

**INVESTIGATING LEADERSHIP STYLES IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN
LESOTHO: COMPARING AND CONTRASTING PRACTICES**

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KEYWORDS

Tertiary education

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Leadership styles

Team building

Appraisal

Formal and informal groups



ABSTRACT

INVESTIGATING LEADERSHIP STYLES IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN LESOTHO: COMPARING AND CONTRASTING PRACTICES

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D. Phil thesis, Faculty of Education, University of the Western Cape.

The study investigated the leadership styles used in the Lesotho tertiary institutions. The research was undertaken at two institutions - Lerotholi Polytechnic and the National Teacher Training College. The population of the study is the lecturers and the leaders in the management position in the two institutions.

The study discusses educational leadership and educational organizations and how they help towards the achievement of goals and objectives. It is revealed that knowledge of educational management and educational institutions is necessary for leaders of the institutions. The discussion pointed out that activities run smoothly towards the achievement of goals and objectives under good management and leadership. The leadership styles are discussed focusing on their advantages and disadvantages. The conclusion drawn is that leadership styles are situational. Each style can be used depending on the situation that prevails. Various appraisal models are also discussed focusing on their strengths and weaknesses. It is discovered that using a combination of appraisal models work best. Combining the models calls for a face-to-face discussion between the leader and the lecturer.

Questionnaires were employed to collect quantitative and qualitative data. The preferred and practised styles are compared and contrasted to determine whether or not they are used to achieve goals and objectives of the lecturers and the organizations. The data collected reflected that the leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic are more democratic and have a higher concern for the lecturers and production than the leaders at the National Teacher Training College. However, in both institutions, the order of preference of the leadership styles was the same. The first preferred was the democratic style. The second was the consultative style. The third was the autocratic style. The fourth was the laissez-fair style.

The study ends by making recommendations that encourage high concern for production, the lecturers and the institutions resulting in sustainable ways of achieving the goals and objectives of the institutions and the lecturers. The recommendations contribute towards the academic and professional development of the lecturers and their institutions. The study specially recommends the Self and Institution Improvement Model (SIIM) adopted from the Department for Education and Employment (1997). The SIIM has an entrance

interview before any lecturer gets into the system of the institution. On entering, each lecturer operates in a system that runs in a cyclical form that touches at four points of commitment, planning, action, and evaluation during own life in the institution. The model ends with an exit interview that encourages any resigning lecturer to reflect on own life in the institution revealing the positive and negative experiences. This is done for the purpose of improving the leadership styles practised.



DECLARATION

I declare that *Investigating Leadership styles in the Tertiary Institutions in Lesotho: Comparing and Contrasting Practices* is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

'Mabaphuthi Junior Moorosi-Molapo

January 2005

Signed:



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CHAPTER 1

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter traces the socio-economic and political history of educational administration and management in Lesotho. Although this history is generally available in published documents, it is in this study written with the aim of clarifying education from the past to the present for the purpose of projecting to the future. It is based briefly on the history of leadership of education, and then it focuses generally on tertiary education, and specifically on the institutions under investigation. These institutions are the National Teacher Training College and Lerotholi Polytechnic. What motivated the researcher to undertake the investigation is related. The information is given to acquaint the reader with the setting in which the study is based. For the purpose of this study, masculine terms will be used as generic terms when referring to the manager, leader or administrator.

1.1 A brief history of Lesotho and its education



The two institutions under investigation are situated in Lesotho, a country that lies in the Southern African region between 20°E S and 31°E S latitude and 27°E E and 30°E E longitude. It is landlocked by the Republic of South Africa and covers an area of about 30,350 sq. km. Three quarters of the country is mountainous. From a plateau in the west, ranging from 1500 to 1800 metres in altitude, the land rises eastward to the Maluti Mountains. The other quarter forms the foothills and lowlands. Another region is the Senqu Valley that is cut by the Senqu River flowing in a southwesterly direction (Ambrose 1976:21) (See Appendix A for map).

Published documents note that in the middle of the eighteenth century, the whole of South African Highveld was in turmoil because of the wars of destruction known as the Difaqane (the Times of Troubles). It was during this time that a young chief, Moshoeshe, gathered together the remnants of those

wars and founded the Basotho nation. Moshoeshoe, later known as a man of peace, invited the missionaries to come and start their missionary work among his people. In 1833, the three missionaries of the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society (P.E.M.S.) arrived in Lesotho and started their first mission at Morija. In 1862, the Roman Catholic Missionaries also arrived and settled at Roma. The third group, the English Church Missionaries, arrived in 1876 and settled at Masite. Besides their work of spreading the gospel, these missionaries established a number of schools before the advent of colonial rule.

The Difaqane wars were mainly fought amongst the Africans. However, in 1836 a large number of the Boers, who fled British rule in the Cape Colony, began arriving in the territory north of the Senqu River and established settlements on Moshoeshoe's land. Moshoeshoe tried to use diplomacy to persuade them to leave but they refused. This provoked a number of wars between the Boers and the Basotho. In 1868, Moshoeshoe realized that he would ultimately lose the whole of his territory to the Boers and therefore he sought protection from the British Government. After some hesitation, the British Government agreed to annex Lesotho, then called Basutoland, and on 12 March 1868 it was declared a British Territory. In 1871, it was annexed to the Cape Colony but in 1880-81 there was a gun war between the Basotho and the Cape Colony. As a result of the war, Basutoland was returned to direct British rule. On October 4, 1966, Basutoland was granted full independence and was known as Lesotho again. (Thompson 1975:1-28 & Gill 1993:48 -114).

Historians maintain that Moshoeshoe never went into decision making on matters that affected his nation without consulting them. Moshoeshoe would call a "pitso" (national gathering) and discuss the issue at hand with his people. Then he would make a decision based on the national deliberations and recommendations. As Dirk (2004) states, Moshoeshoe had humanity. In an African perspective he had "ubuntu or botho." These are African languages terms in Zulu and Sesotho, respectively. The term is an ancient African philosophy and way of life meaning humanity to others. Moshoeshoe had the

humanity because every Mosotho got an equal chance to speak until some kind of agreement was reached. There was dialogue that safeguarded the rights and opinions of individuals and minorities. He had loyalty to the Basotho owing his status and the powers associated with it to the will of the Basotho.

Moshoeshoe showed outstanding humanity to the cannibals of Rakotsoana who ate his grandfather Peete when the Bamokoteli moved from Botha-Bothe to Thaba-Bosiu in 1824 as a result of the wars. Cannibalism is a kind of mental aberration resulting from pangs of hunger making a person unable to realise that it is bad and horrible except own suffering and misery and end up addicted to that way of life. On their way to Thaba-Bosiu, the cannibals attacked Moshoeshoe and his people. When all people ran for safety, Peete, being an old-aged man, could not afford to move fast and was killed and eaten by the cannibals. Instead of getting angry and killing the cannibals, Moshoeshoe sought peace with them. Moshoeshoe's father, Mokhachane, and other Basotho, demanded that the cannibals should be killed. But this was not for Moshoeshoe. He rubbed the purification oil over the cannibals as a sign that they were Peete's grave. Afterwards an ox was slaughtered and people ate the meat. This was an act of clemency (Ellenberger 1992: 217 & 227-228).

Historians also show that when Moshoeshoe learned about the presence of the missionaries at Philippolis and Kuruman from a Griqua hunter, Adam Krotz, he first consulted his people before inviting them (missionaries) to his country (Gill 1993:78). He further sought protection from the British Government with the help of the missionaries. As Murithi (1994) observes, Moshoeshoe made peace in the way that preserved the integrity and the fabric of the Basotho. He behaved with excellence, honesty, trustworthiness, and integrity, reaching the highest level of humanity (Magagula & Mazibuko 2004). In general, the leadership styles that Moshoeshoe used were participative, consultative, and democratic. He also used a team approach strategy that enabled him to secure peace and a western civilization for his people.

1.2 Management of education in Lesotho - A historical perspective

As was mentioned previously, the missionaries brought western education to Lesotho. When Basutoland was annexed to the Cape Colony, the colonial government inaugurated a system of aiding and supporting the existing work of the missions by small annual grants-in-aid. In 1885, after the Imperial (British) Government had taken over the administration of Basutoland, the grant system to the missions was continued. It must be emphasized here that the British Government was not yet directly responsible for the management of education but was only playing a supportive role. The administration and management of schools in Basutoland was still the responsibility of the missions (Ashton 1959:60).

During the period 1905-1906, E. B. Sargant, the Education Advisor to the High Commissioner of South Africa, reported on the state of education in Basutoland. He recommended the creation of the Department of Education. This was created in August 1907 and an Education Officer was appointed. This officer was also responsible for education in Bechuanaland and Swaziland protectorates. His duty was to inspect education with assistance from a native supervisor. The British Government continued to provide grants-in-aid and the missions remained the chief agents for practically all the formal education in Basutoland.

The alliance between the missions and the Colonial Government was further strengthened in 1909 when the Central Board of Advice on Education was created. This board was an advisory and consulting body. The Government had the final responsibility of shaping the educational policy of Basutoland. This kind of relationship has to be expected because the missions had established the schools but they were unable to finance them adequately. So the Government, by providing the much-needed grants, could easily call the shots. However, each mission was later permitted to appoint its own secretary for schools through whom all communication with the Education Department

could be made (Gill 1993:138-139 & Government of Lesotho 1996:133).

In 1914 a European Inspector of Schools and a second native supervisor were appointed for work in Basutoland. From 1914-1927 no further changes were made in the Education Department. However, the number of schools throughout the country continued to increase rapidly and the members of the Department were unable to cope with the extra inspection work that was required.

The leadership and management of education in Basutoland remained in the hands of the three missions. The colonial report for 1960 states that the whole system is run by the Missions under the overall supervision of the Department which lays down syllabuses, time - tables, term dates, grants-in-aid, standards, staff qualifications, etc. This quotation succinctly summarizes the role of the Department of Education in Basutoland as an overseer ensuring that education rules are adhered to. Education in Basutoland has been always the responsibility of the three missions. Although the management of education was the responsibility of the Government, the three missions played an important role of managing the schools too.

It is a matter of importance to find out if the Central Board of Advice and the Department of Education, which today form the Ministry of Education, have an influence on the leadership styles used in the two institutions under investigation. The study also argues that the community and the alliance between the government and the churches have an effect on the styles of leadership. It can be concluded that the missionaries, because they introduced western education and owned the schools in Lesotho, were not concerned with the participation or any contribution whatsoever from learners, teachers, and parents. They only served their own interests. Likewise, the Government played a supportive role through grants-in-aid for the purpose of achieving their interests. In general, the churches and the Government were more concerned with production and less concerned with people. They did not call for people's

contributions in whatever they did. They were authoritarian in nature. Furthermore, the study investigated whether or not there was influence from the church and the colonial rule on the styles used in the institutions. It is therefore of importance to find out how tertiary education developed in Lesotho.

1.3 Tertiary education

Available records show that the majority of the primary and the post-primary schools in Lesotho were and are still mainly church owned. It is of interest to find out how tertiary education came into being in Lesotho with special focus on the two institutions the study investigates. According to the Chief Education Officer (CEO) Tertiary, the Tertiary Education Section in the Ministry of Education was established with the purpose of dealing directly with tertiary education matters and of providing policy in areas like registration and regulation of the establishment of tertiary institutions, accreditation and quality control, certification, standards and equivalencies. The establishment of the Tertiary Education Section within the Ministry of Education is the continuation of the management of education by Government. However, the role of tertiary education in national development has long been recognized when the missionaries introduced it. Hence, it is worthwhile to give a brief background on each of the two institutions under investigation. The background, it is assumed, may influence the way in which the institutions are led.

Lerotholi Polytechnic is named after Paramount Chief Lerotholi Letsie who ruled Basutoland from 1891 to 1905 (Gill 1993:148). In 1894 Chief Lerotholi proposed the establishment of a National Technical School in Maseru, the capital town of Basutoland. But it was in 1897 when the British Authorities showed great interest in the proposal and approached Chief Lerotholi about the matter. This proposal resulted in a nation-wide fund raising campaign to finance the project. However, the South African War of 1899-1902 delayed the implementation of the project. In 1905 Chief Lerotholi's dream came true when the foundation stone was laid for one of the first buildings of the Technical

School. In 1929 it was named the Lerotholi Technical School and it offered several artisan trades such as masonry, leatherwork and carpentry. History reveals that Chief Lerotholi might have been influenced by the missionaries to introduce technical education in his country. Rev. Paul Germond of the Lesotho Evangelical Church had a keen interest in technical education and he realised that pure academic education was not enough for Basutoland. He, therefore, started a "Manual School for girls at Thabana-Morena in the Mafeteng district in 1862. With the support from his mission, Rev. Germond established another technical school in the Quthing district. This school was called Leloaleng Technical School and it was founded in 1880. It flourished so much that it attracted visitors from far and wide. Among these visitors was Chief Lerotholi who was particularly impressed by the work done by the school. From there, he campaigned for the Lerotholi Technical School and the Resident Commissioner, Sir Herbert Sloley, backed him and he raised 3184 pounds for the development of the school. The British Colonial Government in Basutoland, subsequently, became interested in the project and assisted it financially. Up to the late 1950s Lerotholi Technical School was not under the Department of Education but it formed a separate department under the administration of its own director who was directly answerable to the Resident Commissioner (Annual Colonial Reports 1904:7). Today, Lerotholi Polytechnic is responsible to the Ministry of Education. The Director who is assisted by two Deputy Directors – the Deputy Director Academic Affairs and the Deputy Director Administration. There are three Directors of Studies who are responsible to the Deputy Directors. The Heads of Departments are answerable to the Directors of Studies. The lecturers and instructors are responsible to the Heads of Departments. The students form the base of the structure.

As was mentioned earlier, formal education as understood in the West, was introduced in Lesotho in the 1830s and teacher education was part of that. It was the initiative of the three main churches presently existing in the country.

The Lesotho Evangelical Church had two colleges, one for girls and the other for boys. The Roman Catholic Church had four colleges, two for girls and two for boys. The Anglican Church of Lesotho had one mixed sex college. Therefore, there were seven colleges and their major aim was to produce teachers for primary schools. These teachers were also supposed to spread the word of God in accordance with their church beliefs and practices.

After independence in 1966, the Government of Lesotho decided that there should be one national college for training teachers. Although there was scepticism about the formation of the college, after long negotiations and deliberations between Lesotho and UNESCO, it became feasible. The seven denominational teacher training colleges were amalgamated and the National Teacher Training College was formed in 1975. It is responsible to the Ministry of Education.

The Director assisted by two persons - the Deputy Director Administration and the Deputy Director Academic Affairs, heads the College. Heads of divisions - the Assistant Director Secondary Division, the Assistant Director Primary Division, and the Assistant Director In-service Division - assist the two deputies. The heads of various academic departments assist the heads of divisions while the heads of different non-academic departments are answerable to the Deputy Director Administration. The teaching and non-teaching staff are answerable to the heads of academic departments and heads of non-academic departments respectively. At the bottom of the structure are the students.

Historically, the institutions were not government-initiated. The teacher training was the initiative of the missionaries. The technical education was also the initiative of the missionaries although, in particular, the Lerotholi Polytechnic was the initiative of the community through the chief. It is the researcher's assumption that the history of these institutions may influence the way they are managed.

At present, the Lesotho Government owns the Lerotholi Polytechnic and the National Teacher Training College and they are under the administration and supervision of the Ministry of Education. The Chief Education Officer Tertiary is directly responsible for these institutions. The National Teacher Training College is affiliated to the National University of Lesotho - the only institution of higher learning in the country. The University has the responsibility to approve and monitor its academic programmes and to ensure quality performance (Government of Lesotho 1996). The two institutions have proposed structures and are in the process of finalising them. Absence of the finalized administration structures may cause confusion, as employees may not take their responsibilities seriously knowing that the people accountable are not permanent in their positions of responsibility. It also may reflect lack of direction in management activities. An underlying assumption, in this study, is that management is only given cursory thought in these institutions. Yet management is the base upon which institutional and personal goals and objectives are achieved. The researcher was, therefore, interested to investigate leadership styles practised in these institutions.

1.4 Motivation for the study

The researcher was a lecturer at the National Teacher Training College where she started working in 1980. Since then, there have been a number of changes in various areas like programmes, curriculum, buildings, staffing, and management teams. The current team of leaders is the fifth since the inception of the college. The team is constituted when the head is replaced. Usually most of the members of the management team would also be replaced. As is the case with all civil servants, the Public Service Commission employsthe directors.

It was in 1992 when the new director came to lead the college. He was introduced at the faculty meeting in which he tabled his working policy. He

explicitly explained his leadership style and although his exact words cannot be recalled, the message is still as clear as when it was first conveyed. He declared trust and confidence in lecturers; hence he believed in decentralizing decision-making. Furthermore, he indicated that he set clear objectives for lecturers so that they were in a position to achieve personal objectives concurrent with the institution's goals. He had explained himself as the middle-of-the-road type of leader who valued his lecturers' suggestions and support in decision-making. He also declared that he would operate through consultation and consensus. However, he indicated that he would closely supervise and direct his staff. When the need arose, he would apply pressure himself or through his immediate assistants. The Director clearly pointed out that the College has regulations that every staff member has to abide by. Besides the regulations, he was firm on security and job-satisfaction. The staff were free to inquire on whatever issues they might have concerns. This he did with the specific intention of establishing a relaxed atmosphere and maintaining positive working relations among all in the institution.



When the meeting adjourned, the whole staff were happy and hopeful. He made a good impression. The staff gathered in groups of four or five. Informal discussions were going on. There was unanimous agreement amongst the staff that "this is the Director we have been waiting for." It looked like he put forth his message so well that most, if not all, were looking forward to a cooperative working relationship. There was hope that the organizational atmosphere would be healthy. The staff seemed to realize their dependence on one another. They saw a director who had high concern for both production and people. The researcher personally thought there would be some smooth running of the college whereby fewer problems would be experienced and staff would be promoted on performance and professionalism. To the researcher, the following message was sent:

I want everyone in this college to feel important as part of the organs of this institution. We have to be

interdependent, improve ourselves as persons, academically and professionally, and care about teaching and learning which will end in distinct good results. Everyone should be motivated and enthusiastic in his or her work (Paraphrased by the present researcher).

Despite this encouraging wish, quite a number of problems were experienced later. The staff were dissatisfied with the running of the College, feeling that they had an authoritarian type of leader. The students went on strike several times. Cooperation between the management team and the lecturers diminished. Tension and bitterness became the order of the day. No trust existed at all. Some staff members resigned. In general, the Director's formulated working structures and practices were disturbed. The researcher got worried and asked herself questions for which she could not get answers. She could not visualize and conceptualise the type of management and leadership style that could be appropriate for the College as there was an academic, professional and social war going on. It looked like all sections of the College did not want to compromise. In the midst of this confusion, the researcher had to leave the College for two years. However, she kept on wondering about the type of leadership that would be appropriate for the smooth running of the College. Hence, the decision to undertake this study.

The Lerotholi Polytechnic may not have undergone similar experiences as the National Teacher Training College. The researcher thinks it is worth including it in the investigation. Moreover, no research has been done on leadership styles and policy in tertiary institutions in Lesotho. By investigating this area, the study discovered how managers and lecturers relate to one another in these institutions. The researcher also hoped to establish the leadership styles that would help to achieve organizational goals and personal objectives. It was hoped that comparing and contrasting the styles would reveal appropriate leadership practices for tertiary institutions in Lesotho for the 21st century.

1.5 Background to the study

A variety of management theories and styles exist. Foremost, organizations have been established with a bureaucracy in them. Bureaucracy in this sense means governance by a formal system of authority. The purpose of bureaucracy is to engineer achievement of goals and objectives through people. An organization and the people are inseparable entities. However, people have to interact so that there is production. The interaction has to be coordinated courteously so that there is harmony and achievement (Griffin 1987:327).

In a tertiary institution, each lecturer is a specialist in a certain subject area. However, all these teachers work towards the achievement of passing the students in order to obtain academic certificates. Each teacher puts an effort in teaching the subject. But for a student to obtain a certificate, he has to pass most, if not all the subjects. A holistic approach towards teaching and learning is therefore required from teachers and students. The Lesotho tertiary institutions, like any other organizations, use leadership styles. It was, therefore, of interest to find out the leadership styles practised in the two institutions under investigation.

1.6 Statement of the research problem

The hierarchical administrative structure in every institution reflects organized coordination which ensures that the goals and objectives of these institutions are achieved. The concern of the study was to investigate the leadership styles used in these institutions. It was important to find out if the styles used were indeed effective towards achieving the institutional and the individual goals and objectives. It was also of significance to investigate whether or not the lecturers in these institutions were motivated to improve their performance. These issues were investigated through answering the following questions:

- Which are the leadership styles preferred by lecturers at the two institutions?
- In what ways do the leaders practise their roles pertaining to the achievement of the organizational goals and objectives?

1.7 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to:

- investigate the leadership styles preferred at the two institutions;
- investigate the leadership styles practised at the two institutions;
- investigate the lecturers' expectations of leaders;
- suggest improvement of the leadership styles in tertiary institutions in Lesotho.

1.8 Significance of the study



The researcher made an in-depth investigation of the leadership styles in the two institutions. More specifically, it focused on the views of the lecturers on leadership styles in the two institutions. It made a cross analysis, identified major leadership styles, and generalized from the findings. This was done in the hope that the results would contribute to the establishment of effective leadership styles. The underlying assumption was that the lecturers and the leaders were not conscious of the leadership styles that could improve their working relations towards the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. It was also hoped that the study would suggest strategies on how leaders could improve their leadership styles through adopting recommended styles and procedures that suit their organizations.

1.9 Operational definition of terms

Tertiary Education: It is the type of education which is undertaken after

secondary education, and it is vocational and specialized (Page & Thomas 1977). The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1990) defines tertiary education as education that follows secondary education especially in a college or university. In the context of this research, tertiary education means a more advanced and specialized education taken after secondary education level. However, university education was not included in this study.

Organizational Goals: These are non-behavioural guides to which an organization is committed. They are met through action plans and behavioural objectives. They are usually broad and formulated over a long period (Page & Thomas 1977; Van der Westhuizen 1991:145). In this research, organizational goals mean the end results to which an organization is committed.

Organizational Objectives: These are systematic and observable guides that identify precisely what must be done as a measure of achievement of organizational goals (Van der Westhuizen 1991:145). Organizational goals that are non-behavioural are broken down into behavioural objectives. Non-behavioural objectives refer to more intangible qualities and being open-ended do not explicitly state the behavioural outcomes. They do not specify the precise terminal behaviour by means of which a leader can assess whether or not the objectives have been achieved. Behavioural objectives are formulations of educational intent much more specific and precise than non-behavioural objectives or aims (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 1996:61&65). These objectives usually relate to employees rather than employers. In the present study, organizational objectives refer to what workers in an organization exhibit as a way of showing that they are working towards the achievement of organizational goals.

Educational Management: According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:57-58) educational management encompasses classroom, school and system

management. On the other hand, West-Burnham (1997:12) sees educational management as "concerned with the internal operations of educational institutions." For the purposes of this research, educational management means the way in which those in authority in the educational institutions work with lecturers to perform institutional activities.

Educational Administration: Knezevish (1978:8) defines educational administration as "a social process concerned with identifying, maintaining, stimulating, controlling, and unifying formally and informally, organizing human material energies within the integrated system designed to accomplish organizational goals". West-Burnham (1997:12) cites Terrington and Weightman that administration is "work that can be done by an intelligent 16 year-old" because it encompasses "routine functions requiring limited individual discretion." The essence in which educational administration was used in this research report means routine functions, meaning a strategy of checking work progress and process to determine if activities are going on as planned. It also means putting management into practice. Educational administration is, therefore, used interchangeably with educational management.

Leadership: Krietner (1986:461) defines leadership as "a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organizational objectives." It is the ability to inspire others to willingly perform their institutional duties. Leaders always shows where we want to go and the way forward (Bowring-Car & West-Burnhan 1994:121). In this study, leadership means inspiring others to perform organizational duties freely and willingly to achieve the objectives and the goals.

Leadership Styles: They are distinctive manners and ways in which authority works with associates to perform institutional duties (French & Saward 1984).

A good style of leading is knowing the destination and persuading others to join and get there by being "out front leading, rather than staying behind pushing." In this research, leadership styles means ways of guiding others to achieve organizational objectives and goals.

Team Building: Coleman & Bush (1994:266) define a team as "a body established to fulfil certain specified tasks or activities." These authors also cite Everard & Morris (1985:172) that a team is a group that effectively operates tasks that are assigned to it. The expectation is that all members of the group should contribute so that decisions should be of high quality because all talents of the members are harnessed. In the context of this study, team building meant a spirit of working together as a team in an organization - members avoiding to work as individuals.

Appraisal: It is the evaluation of workers' performance and potential for development and training. This is done by workers' immediate supervisor and reviewed by those in high authority in the organization (George 1985:334). Everard & Morris (1985:90) see appraisal as activities and ways in which workers are sustained to perform their duties in a satisfactory manner. An appraisee has "an opportunity to meet with his manager in order to take stock of their individual and joint achievement." In this research report appraisal means the leader and the lecturer sitting together to assess whether or not the institutional objectives are achieved.

Formal and Informal Groups: Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:601-605) clearly explain formal and informal groups in an organization. Formal groups are those groups formed for the purpose of effectiveness and efficiency in achieving organizational goals and objectives. Their tasks are well spelled out, how they relate to authority and others, and their responsibilities are clarified. Informal groups are those that develop voluntarily due to communication in formal structures. Informal group members relate consciously or unconsciously to one another. Sometimes they are asked to

perform organizational tasks. They even come together to perform non-official tasks. In this research, formal groups mean official committees established to participate in organizational deliberations and decision-making. Informal groups meant voluntary groups performing activities related to the official activities of the institution. These groups also relate in performing social and economic activities such as fund raising for their societies.

1.10 Preview of the next chapters

A preview on the next five chapters is given. Chapter 2 reviews literature related to the study. The literature shows various authors' views on management and leadership styles with the purpose of giving information on the research problem. Chapter 3 takes a special focus on literature review on various appraisal systems. Chapter 4 deals with the methods that are employed in undertaking the study. These include the population studied, the pretesting and the administration of research instruments for data collection. Chapter 5 analyses and interprets data collected through the questionnaires and focus group interviews relating the findings to the research problem, research questions, and literature review. Findings of the two institutions are compared and contrasted. Chapter 6 draws conclusions on the findings and emerging issues from chapter 5. On the basis of the conclusions drawn, recommendations are made. Areas of future research are also suggested.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW ON MANAGEMENT, ORGANIZATIONS AND LEADERSHIP

2.0 Orientation

This chapter reviewed literature focusing on leadership in educational institutions. Literature on educational management, educational organizations, and leadership styles was reviewed. This was done through defining and analysing educational management, defining educational institutions, and exploring leadership styles that are used in the running of such educational institutions. The literature review has been used to assist in developing the questionnaire and the interview schedule that collected data to address the research problem, the research questions and assist in making recommendations.



2.1 Theory of Management

Many scholars have researched on the genesis of management. They maintain that it is as old as civilization and has been practised ever since the formation of societies. Various examples of activities of primitive tribes, which reflect managerial skills, styles and actions, are cited. According to the history of Africa, communities changed from hunter-gatherers, fishermen, pastoralists, agriculturalists, to a formation of states in which a variety of managerial characteristics emerged. Communities came together under the authority of a chief or a king who was supposed to lead the people. The first such a state as cited by Trewatha & Newport (1982:8-10), is Egypt. While the Egyptians built their pyramids, management activities such as authority, planning, organizing, controlling, and evaluating were observed. There was also the division of labour, and the leaders practised supervision of work. Even today, in villages and

towns, these management activities are still practised. Management theories are developed from the primitive base and they are continuously being tested to justify their contribution in societies.

Wilkinsons & Cave (1987:11) inform that management theory emerged in industry and that its development is attributed to the USA. They also indicate that, under management theory, there are various management approaches, which can be applied to achieve organizational objectives and goals. These are the scientific approach, the classical management theory, bureaucracy, human relations theory, behavioural theory, the systems theory, and contingency theory. A lot of research has already been done on each one of them.

According to Stoner & Freeman (1987:43-55), there are three major schools of management theory that developed chronologically. These schools are the classical (which comprises the scientific management and the classical organizational theory), the behavioural school, and the management science school. These schools were sequentially developed and they complemented one another. Even today, they continue to develop. Their development is based on the leadership styles that were practised in organizations.

Writing on the scientific approach to management, Wilkinson & Cave (1987:11), Stoner & Freeman (1987:35), and Van der Westhuizen (1991:65) state that Frederic W. Taylor introduced it with the aim to increase production in a steel factory. He broke each job down into components. A fast method of doing each job was designed. He timed each worker against production made. When production is high, the pay also becomes high. Because of this incentive, the workers performed so well that they earned satisfactory salaries. According to the scientific approach the production went well. This activity shows how the leader practised his role pertaining to management for achievement of institutional goals and objectives. Also it reflects the leader who has a high concern for production. Taylor recommended the systematic measure and analysis of the activities undertaken by workers. He stressed and encouraged

delegation and more production. However, the scientific approach to management focused on the operational aspects and underplayed the human elements. It also neglected crucial management activities like planning, decision-making, communication and problem solving. The scientific theory was seen as regarding people as machines that operate without consciousness of what is happening around them. It shows low concern for people. As a result, the school of human relations was developed.

Theorists such as Henry Fayol, Henry L. Gantt, and Frank and Lillian Gilbreths promoted the welfare of individual workers. However, Henry Fayol's works were of interest as he developed the scientific theory and expanded it beyond industry showing that it applied in other areas like educational institutions. First, as Trewatha & Newport (1982:10-12) indicate, Fayol was the Managing Director of the Commentry Fourchbault Mining Company from 1888 to 1918. This company declined and was rescued by his scientific approach to management. This approach looked at the relationship among various factors in a given situation, found out the problem and scientifically came up with a solution to the problem using data collected from factors surrounding that problem. This theory has been adapted in the scientific research and it follows these steps:

Define, outline, and state the problem to be solved; review the literature on the problem area and discuss with informed persons so as to investigate thoroughly all facts that have a bearing on the problem; develop a hypothesis; collect, organize and classify all related data; analyse data as related to the problem and hypothesis; set forth the findings, conclusions and recommendations that flow from the analysis of data; and implement recommendations and evaluate results determining the success of the solution(Trewatha & Newport 1982:11).

The underlying meaning of the above steps is that if there is any dissatisfaction in an institution, the leaders should study the problem and its surrounding factors. This will help to assume and consequently find the cause of the problem. After studying the surrounding factors, it will be possible to make conclusions and recommendations. These conclusions and suggestions can be implemented and evaluated to see if the problem is solved or not. These steps can lead to the finding that both satisfies and improves production.

The classical organizational theory was developed because of workers' dissatisfaction with the working conditions. Henry Fayol was one of the developers of this theory. He believed that the scientific theory school should be coupled with the appropriate activity of management. He argued that management can be taught and that experience and practice of management contribute to good leadership and administration. He initiated five management functions, quoted by Stoner & Freeman (1987:42) as follows:



Planning means devising a course of action that will enable the organization to meet its goals; organizing means mobilizing the material and human resources of the organization to put plans into effect; commanding means providing direction for the employees and getting them to their work; coordinating means making sure that the resources and activities of the organization are working harmoniously to achieve the desired goals; controlling means monitoring the plans to ensure that they are being carried out properly.

The quotation above shows that Fayol realised that there are managerial activities that must be fulfilled by a manager, who is also a leader in an organization. Practising these activities reflects a leader who has concern for achievement of the objectives and goals of both individuals (workers) and the organization.

Gregson & Livesey (1993:24-35) relate the genesis of management theory in line with the above-discussed work. They indicate that it has three main phases: pre-scientific, scientific, and modern approaches to management. They explain that the pre-scientific approach phase covers the revolution of managerial skills like division of labour and specialization in those things that one can do best. This minimizes loss of time, reduces production costs and promotes efficiency. The pre-scientific approach also focuses on coordination and measurement of work. Gregson & Livesey (1993) indicate that Taylor realized that management should help to achieve efficiency. They also come up with four aspects of management role that Taylor initiated:

Breaking down each operation into elements, using observation and techniques (forerunner of modern work study system); recognizing the responsibility of managers by having a subdivision of the duties within the organization between managers and employees; clear defining of managerial responsibility to plan work; and selection and training of all employees in the light of the necessary skills involved (Gregson & Livesey 1993:24).

In essence, Taylor realized that to achieve maximum efficiency in a work situation, the responsibility of the workers should be clearly defined. Then there should be observation and supervision of work activities by the leaders. Lastly, work has to be assessed in order to identify the training needs of the workers. Gregson & Livesey, in the quotation above, explain a leader who has concern for both production and people and who achieves organizational goals and objectives.

However, the scientific approach to management focused on operational aspects and underplayed the human element neglecting the crucial management activities like planning, decision-making, communication and problem-solving – only regarding people as machines that operate without consciousness of what is happening around them. This prompted the development of many other approaches to management. Some of these approaches focus on the psychological and sociological aspects of life in a work situation. Elton Mayo and Mary Parker Follet, for example, are recognized for experimenting on these two aspects. The prior thought was that pleasant physical conditions like heating, good furniture, and lighting were the factors contributing to satisfactory output in organizations. Later, these were proved not to be the only factors. Psychological factors like job satisfaction and attitudes were also seen as important. Mary Parker Follet studied human behaviour in a work place and came up with four principles of management coordination which Trewath & Newport relate as involving direct contact between those involved; commencing as early as possible; being continuous; and being concerned with all the various elements in the work situation. These steps show concern for both production and people (Trewatha & Newport 1982:25).

The above discussion shows that it is not only physical conditions that motivate people to perform work well. Psychological and sociological factors are equally important. Wilkinson & Cave (1987:12) and Robbins (1987:447) state that Henry Fayol advocates the need for guiding principles in management. He sees planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling and commanding as management activities. He also identifies fourteen universal principles of management, some of which are division of work, authority and responsibility, discipline, unity of command, centralization, and unity of direction. He generally terms this approach the classical management theory, which creates tightly knit teams of specialists who could develop expertise in their work areas. This type of management is prescriptive and it tends to advocate for a more tight form of organization. However, it has an element of team management that has more

concern for production than people.

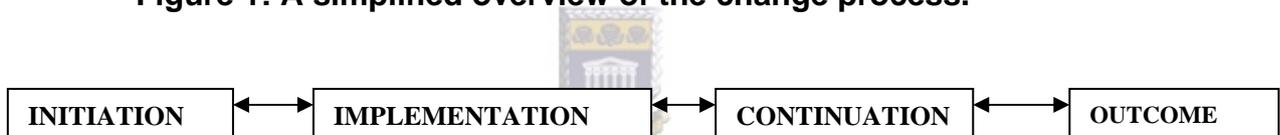
Mussazi (1982:21) indicates that expanding the school organization leads to a greater degree of specialization among teachers. Teachers are trained to teach certain subjects in which they are specialists. There is division of work because the school is organized into subject departments that allow teachers to develop expertise in their subjects of specialization. Mussazi further explains that organizations grow and change. Change includes more duties and responsibilities, designated rules and regulations, and there is insistence on individual competence. Generally the division of labour strategy becomes extensive as change takes place. As an industry expands, likewise a school expands. Its students and staff population increase, also more subjects are offered, and its management should keep pace with the change that is taking place. Therefore, school leaders should be capable to manage change.

Change is an issue that affects people in various ways. Everard & Morris (1985:186-189) observe that some people see change as a source of threat or insecurity that will expose their weaknesses as it may require people to learn new skills and attitudes and discard the old ones if these are no longer important. The cooperation of all people in an institution cannot be assumed. Barker (1987:209) points out that some people are comfortable in continuing in what they had always done and in exactly the same manner while others feel that doing the same thing the same way all the time is an evidence of stagnation. They opt for having a different and new experience to avoid being stagnant. Change involves both intellect and emotions. It does not only affect individuals but also the organization – its structure, norms and environment. It does not happen unless it is promoted, steered or facilitated with all crucial factors like workers, production, and physical facilities, taken into consideration. Vargo (1989:280) cites Bennis, Benne and Chin that planned social change is deliberate, conscious and collaborative effort by change agents to improve operations of a social systems. Arguing against change that is without collaboration and consultation, Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991:62) point out that

any change that affects single or different group(s) should involve its members. No party should be left out without information on what is happening as this may fail. It even becomes worse if such a change is not followed up. Its implementers also get discouraged.

Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991:4) observe three broad phases to the change process. The first involves initiation. It consists of the process that leads up a decision to adopt or proceed with change. The second is implementation, which involves the first experience of putting the ideas into practice. The third is continuation that refers to whether the change gets built in as an ongoing part of the system or it is discarded. These phases are a process in which events at one phase can feed back to alter decisions made at previous stages. They continue to work their way through in a continuous interactive way. Below is a pictorial representation of the change process:

Figure 1: A simplified overview of the change process.



Source: Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991:48)

The arrows indicate feedback from one phase to another, however, it is not in a linear process. Fullan & Stiegelbauer explain that the complication that the total time perspective as well as sub-phases cannot be precisely marked as the debates on change can take long. The line between implementation and continuation is somewhat uncertain and arbitrary, as it may also take long to implement change. They suggest that it is best to combine the three Rs of relevance, readiness and resources. Relevance implies that there should be "...interaction of need, clarity on innovation, and utility." Readiness "...involves the school's practical and conceptual capacity to initiate, develop or adopt a given innovation." Resource concerns the "...accumulation and provision of support as part of the change process."

The process of change requires the leader to communicate and consult with the lecturers in an institution. These should continue even during implementation in order to produce satisfactory results in the achievement of goals and objectives. The process also requires leaders who have concern for production and people. Hence this study investigates the preferred and practised leadership styles in the two institutions.

Robbins (1987:233) and Wilkinson & Cave (1987:14) agree that Weber approached organizations from the aspect of authority relationship that prevailed within them. This concept implies the voluntary acceptance of control mechanisms and power to enforce obedience. This authority lies in the positions rather than in people who occupy them. The positions are arranged in a pyramidal hierarchy with authority increasing as one moves up the organizational structure. Robbins (1987:235) states that:



Weber's model stipulates a hierarchy of office, with each office under the direction of a higher one. Each of these offices is differentiated horizontally by division of labour. This division of labour creates units of expertise, defines areas of actions consistent with competence of unit members, assigns responsibility for carrying out these actions, and allocates commensurate authority to fulfil those responsibilities.

In the above quotation, Robbins suggests that an organization arranges a system in which classes of status or authority are ranked one above the other. This shows a clear line of authority from the top to the bottom of the organization so that it is clear who is responsible to whom. The authority relationship assists in selecting leadership styles that achieve individual and organizational goals and objectives. The styles will show whether a particular leader has concern for production and people or not.

A school has the authority relationship that Mussazi (1982:115) explains in the following way. A head of school is appointed in accordance with the law of the land. He, therefore, possesses that legitimate authority to assign tasks to his heads of departments and teachers. These teachers and heads are obliged by their contracts to work together. The learners in a school are also expected to abide by the school regulations and to take orders from their teachers and the principal. Even among the students, there are prefects who are appointed by their school to hold positions of responsibility. All other students are expected to take orders from the prefects. Generally, the authority relationship in a school is similar to that in a factory. It has the structure that provides organizational control to both teachers and students to achieve organizational goals and objectives. In essence, an institution should have an organizational structure that helps in achievement of institutional goals and objectives. The structure should also assist the manager to manage and lead in the institution.

2.2 Defining and Analysing Educational Management



Management has been greatly researched in industry and in education. It is, therefore, not surprising that it has as many definitions as there are managers (Coventry 1981:2). However, most definitions convey the message that management is used interchangeably with administration. But the two words have overlapping meanings. The manager does administrative work in an organization. One who manages and achieves goals and objectives through administration. There must be particular leadership styles applied by the manager to achieve goals and objectives.

Drucker (1955:2-5) maintains that management entails an economic organ of industrial society in every act, decision and deliberation. It justifies the existence of authority by economic results. Economy, in this context, includes finances, time resources, and human beings. The Student Encyclopedia 1971 defines management as a process by which the executive makes and carries

out decisions. On the other hand, Coventry (1981:2) sees management in a manager through the activities done. The manager is "one who is responsible for getting things done through other people; instead of doing the job himself...with stated objectives to achieve...he directs human activities, with the help of other resources available, towards those ends." This means that the manager works through other people with the purpose of achieving organizational goals and objectives. However, the manager must see that he satisfies both production and workers.

Some theorists define management in perspective with its functions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling. Trewatha & Newport (1982:5) state that, it should be recognized that the management process is best described by these functions, rather than the status or rank held by certain managers. While Griffin (1987: xx & 7) sees management as working what you want people to do, and then seeing that they do it best and cheapest.

The essence, in the views of these authors, is that management is observable in practice through its main activities of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the staff at work. However, this is not a fixed process. There may be other sub-functions like deciding and supervising which still assist to achieve organizational goals in an efficient and effective manner. Management does not lie in the position held but in what the position holder does in the best interest of the organization.

The Dictionary of Management 1984 focuses on the characteristics of a manager in defining management. It shows that a manager has four characteristics

He has his subordinates; he can at least, vote the appointment of particular individuals to be his subordinates; he can assign work to his subordinates; and he assesses the performance of subordinates and

can remove them from their jobs if they fail to produce an adequate standard of work.

This Dictionary also notes Henri Fayol's analysis of administrative management theory. It defines management as the process, activity or study of carrying out the task of ensuring that a number of diverse activities are performed in such a way that a definite objective is achieved. However, the staff, not the manager, largely carries out these activities. The manager's duty is to see that activities are done. But there are some parts of management, which, for convenience, efficiency and effectiveness, are assigned or commissioned to specialists. In this way, they are said to be carrying out administration. Management only focuses on the performance of all the workers. In this way, a manager is applying a particular style of leadership that coordinates all efforts in achieving organizational goals and objectives. In the process, the style of leadership used should have concern for both production and workers.

Stoner & Freeman (1989:3) and Bartol & Martin (1991:6) agree with the above definitions of management.  They see management actualising when the four areas of management happen. The areas are planning, organizing, leading and controlling. All organizational resources should be encompassed in these areas in order to reach stated organizational goals. Leadership in an organization is not restricted to one person. Even the head of an organization, like the heads of departments, is also a leader because he is involved in the coordination of efforts for achievement of goals and objectives of an organization.

Bartol & Martin (1991:14), also, concur that the management process does not only apply to profit making organizations but also to non-profit making organizations. They explain a non-profit making organization as an organization whose main purpose centres on issues other than making profit. However, such an organization still aims at achieving goals and objectives. They indicate that managers in either profit making or non-profit making

organizations have similar roles to perform. A role is an organized set of behaviours that is associated with a particular office or position. These authors also explain that the three roles have been developed by Mintzberg. These are interpersonal, information and decision. Interpersonal roles should be reflected in the authority of those who manage. The managers should develop and maintain a positive relationship with other workers. This should not only be seen in work situations but also in out-of-work situations. This will help to maintain a network of relationships that are sustainable because there is concern for people and production.

Information roles build up on interpersonal roles. Information roles mean receiving and transmitting information among members of an organization with a leader acting as the middle - man of the whole process receiving and conveying information. The leader receives information from outside the organization and conveys it to the members of the organization for using or keeping. The leader also transfers information from one member to another as long as members will benefit from it. He finally transmits whatever message he has to his co-workers. All these the leader does for the purpose of achieving organizational goals and objectives.

A leader has a decision role. He has to make significant decisions that affect the organization either positively or negatively. A leader is an initiator, designer, and an encourager of change and innovation. He also makes corrective measures when unexpected behaviours and problems crop up in an organization. A leader is also a resource allocator. He has to decide on the distribution of all kinds of resources like time, funds, human and physical resources. Lastly, leader is a bargainer and negotiator. On many occasions he has to market his organization. He also has responsibility to represent an organization in crucial matters affecting its life. He, therefore, must have integrity and appropriate leadership styles to make sound decisions that have concern for people with the aim of achieving high production. In fact the three roles discussed above reveal that unless a leader acts in a way that builds up

the organization, he is not managing. A leader should be alert, decisive, and able to build good relationships with workers in and outside the organization. In this way, he will be leading.

Hales (1993:2 & 10-15) looks at leadership from a human perspective; that is, he looks at man in relation to his environment. He argues that people should take responsibility for their work and they should be accountable for their actions. They should also have hindsight and foresight on what happens around them. Hales also contends that various authors see leadership work as having key elements. He cites these elements as follows:

- acting as figurehead or nominal leader of work unit, representing it and acting as point of contact;
- monitoring and disseminating information flowing into and out from the work unit;
- negotiating with subordinates, superiors, other managers, other work units and outsiders;
- monitoring workflow by handling disturbances, solving problems, and dealing with disruptions;
- allocating resources in the form of money, materials and people;
- directing and controlling the work of the subordinates;
- innovating, by looking for new objectives and methods to improve the work unit; and
- planning what is to be done and when.

The cited leadership elements reveal that authority is needed to enforce leadership for the purpose of action to take place in an organization. Leaders have to arrange for others to perform work that leads to the achievement of organizational goals and objectives through leadership styles that have concern for production and people.

Educational leadership is built upon industrial management and therefore

defined in a similar way except that it is leadership in an educational organization. Van der Westhuizen (1991:131) postulates that task and people-oriented leadership is good. In a school situation, the leader includes parents, the school staff and the learners who work together to achieve the goals and objectives of teaching and learning.

Bush (1995:1-2) supports Van der Westhuizen's views on management. Some approaches to educational management are concerned predominantly with organizational objectives while other models emphasize individual objectives. It is, however, crucial that both areas should be addressed. As Bush puts it: "It is reasonable to assume that teachers want their school or college to pursue policies which are in harmony with their own interests and preference." This means that goals of an individual member and of an organization are merged into organizational goals. Therefore, it is worthwhile to find out how managers and staff in an educational organization practise their roles geared towards the achievement of goals and objectives of the individuals and the organization.



In summary, management has been and is still defined in various ways including leadership. For instance, in management activities, a leader should oversee that everything runs smoothly towards the achievement of individual and organizational objectives and goals. The leadership styles of all who manage should help towards the achievement of these objectives and goals. It is important to examine educational organizations before discussing the styles that could be used to manage them. The discussions are based on business organizations.

2.3 Defining Educational Organizations

The discussion on management has revealed that it does not take place in a vacuum. There must be a place in which it happens, people to carry out management tasks, and goals and objectives to be achieved through people who implement management activities. These people are managers and the

place is an organization. The managers lead all workers towards achieving goals and objectives and are therefore leaders. It is important that the manager and the staff should know an organization in order to effect management activities.

Trewatha & Newport (1982:188) define an organization as a social structure designed to coordinate the activities of two or more people through division of labour and hierarchy of authority for the achievement of the common purpose or goal. Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:596) concur that an organization comprises individuals or groups of people working towards achievement of organizational goals and objectives by giving tasks to the workers and continuously directing and coordinating those tasks. This shows that the managing authorities in an organization should have concern for both production and people and lead them towards achievement of goals and objectives.

Everard & Morris (1985:166) explain an organizational structure as embracing an organization chart, the committees, the departments, the roles, the hierarchical levels and authority, the procedures in the staff manual, the timetable, etc. While Hall (1991:30-32) describes an organization as:

A collectivity with a relatively identifiable boundary, a normative order, rank of authority, communication systems, and membership coordinating systems; this collectivity exists on a relatively continuous basis in an environment and engages in activities that are related to a set of goals; the activities have outcomes for organizational members, the organization itself, and for society.

In the above quotation, Hall postulates that all organizations have

characteristics that allow them to be classified as organizations. He cites the views of Max Weber, Chester Bernard and Karl Marx in defining organizations. Weber sees an organization as the corporate group that limits the admission of outsiders by rules. Bernard looks at it as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons; while Marx analyses it as a collective effort with the aim to produce. As the effort prevails, there is power arrangement, job allocation and supervision so that there is finally some production. It is, therefore, of importance to find out how managers coordinate the efforts in an organization for the purpose of achieving goals and objectives of individuals and the organization.

The cited definitions reveal that each person in an organization has an activity to perform. However, the individuals' activities are coordinated for the purpose of achieving the organizational goals. These explanations also signify that an organization has a structure that reflects how work is divided among workers. Hence there is a formal line of authority in an organization in order to maintain a stable relationship and to enhance interaction.



Trewatha & Newport (1982:191) further maintain that an organization "...is an open system since it is subject to outside forces of environment." They cite an example of an educational institution that does not only provide services to the public but exchanges information with it. In this manner, it is open. Furthermore, in an educational institution, the public participate in activities like curriculum planning and review, teaching and extra-mural activities. They even participate in teaching and setting moral standards for the institution. As Hall (1991:30-32) puts it, the public do not overlook the presence of contradictions within an organization but they also possess internal oppositional forces that vie for control. It is important for managers and the staff of an organization to know the public that surround them in order to control the organization well.

Trewatha & Newport (1982:212-215) further postulate that in formal

organizations, patterns of work and personal relationship are deliberately set up and officially recognized. Managers in an organization attain a degree of order and coordination in the achievement of goals. They also maintain that the number of employees characterize an organizational structure and direct relationship. Individuals must know to whom they are responsible and also, how they link vertically and horizontally. The manager, in turn, must have the capability to coordinate, direct and supervise the work. He can perform these activities through delegation. The delegation of work increases as the organization grows in terms of work and number of employees. It, therefore, ends up as a complex organization.

Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:599) agree with Trewatha & Newport that organizations can either be closed or open depending on the degree of interaction. There is more interaction when it is open than when it is closed. They maintain that conceptually a closed or open organization can be depicted in terms of penetrability of the organization's boundaries by factors in the external environment.  Between the closed organization and external environment there is no dynamic relationship. However, the cited authors are adamant that there is never a completely closed or open organization. The leadership styles practised will determine the openness or closeness of the organization.

Hall (1991:48-55) looks at organizations from a complexity and differentiation perspective. He sees a structure as the way in which the parts of an organization are arranged. He maintains that organizations have points and guiding procedures that show their members these points. He lists three aspects of an organization as: complexity, formalization and centralization. The focus of this discussion will be on complexity that reveals the formalization and centralization in an organization.

Complexity comprises divisions of labour, job titles, multiple divisions, and hierarchical levels. One is made aware that individual parts of an organization

also vary in complexity. They may even be more complex in how they control and coordinate their activities. The degree of complexity is usually reflected in the organization chart. To illustrate this degree of complexity of organizations, Hall (1991:51) calls attention to the study that was carried out on one oil company:

The heads of divisions had equal rank in the organization, and each was thought to be important to the overall success of the organization. When the divisions themselves were examined, it was found that they varied not only in size from 3 to 100 members - but also in complexity, the largest division had five separate hierarchical levels with three important subdivisions, each of which was further specialized by tasks performed by specific work groups. The smallest division, which performs legal service, was composed of a lawyer and two secretaries.



Further complexity in organizations is reflected through differentiations that are horizontal, vertical and spatial. Horizontal differentiation refers to the subdivisions of tasks performed by the organization, or people in the organization who have similar amounts of training but in different specialities. Hall also cites Hange and Aiken's three factors that make the interpretation of complexity even more complex: the number of occupational specialities, the professional activity, and professional training. A study was undertaken that showed that organizations differ in the number of occupational specialities that they utilize in achieving their goals. This variable was measured by asking respondents to report their major duties. Each respondent was then classified according to the type of occupational speciality. The degree of professional activity reflected the number of professional associations in which the respondents were involved. Also the number of meetings attended, the number of offices held and the number of papers given at professional

gatherings were considered under professional associations. Then the amount of professional training was based on college training as well as any other professional training. The extent of training and depth of experience was considered to be across all organizations.

The vertical differentiation, sometimes called the hierarchical differentiation, is not as complicated as the horizontal differentiation. Sometimes it is referred to it as proliferation supervisory levels. It is at these levels that authority is shared according to the levels in the hierarchy. This means that the authority becomes greater as you move higher in the hierarchy. In some organizations, employees are promoted to such levels as a result of long service and good performance.

Another observable differentiation in organizations is the spatial dispersion. It can either be a horizontal or a vertical differentiation. This happens when workers and some specified roles are dispersed within the horizontal or the vertical line in the organizational structure. If this spatial responsibility exists permanently, it increases the organizational complexity. The spatial dispersion is clearly observable in institutions that have field offices and staff.

In short, an institution becomes more complex if it has a large number of positions and sub-units. The complexity is the result of dividing work for the purpose of achieving organizational tasks easily and quickly. Therefore, the horizontal, the vertical, and the spatial differentiations make coordination, communication, control, and supervision even more complicated. Managers performing these tasks need to be well equipped with management skills. Successful coordination of work also depends on the appropriate leadership styles used.

Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:601-605) perceive that organizations can either be formal or informal. When it is formal, it is

purposeful and it has a *conscious* form of structure. In it, people have specified roles. However, there can be informal structures which are unofficially designed but whose interaction represents the organizational life in a formal organization. Formal groups are formed for the purpose of effectiveness and efficiency in achieving organizational goals. Their task is well spelt out. How they relate to authority and their responsibilities are clarified in a manner that every employee in an organization knows how to relate to them. However, these formal groups can be dissolved when their activities are over.

Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann(1991:601-605) also observe an organization as a universe or nervous system whereby people relate consciously or unconsciously to one another. Hence, there will be informal groups within any formal organization. They develop voluntarily due to communication in formal organizations. The informallare classified into three groups: the informal task, the formal communication, and the informal friendship groups.



The informal task groups are originally officially structured for performing certain tasks and their members develop close relations as a result. They even collaborate in performing non-official tasks. In the formal communication groups, members are not necessarily friends but they informally interact to exchange information on voluntary basis. Such information may be on teaching, research, or educational field trips. Informal friendship groups usually build on common interest, values, and shared life experiences. This relationship often results in life-long friendship that usually gives emotional security.

It is important to note that the informal groups are usually formed in organizations. The influence of their leaders may even be more powerful than the influence of formally structured groups. They can, therefore, be used for the benefit of the whole organization. However, the heads of institutions should try to balance the formal groups and informal groups emphasizing the good

qualities of the informal groups often. There are seven advantages, seen by Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:601-605), in using these good qualities:

- filling gaps in the formal organizations;
- providing social satisfaction to its members;
- assisting in integrating new staff;
- providing informal channels of communication;
- promoting stability in an organization;
- giving a feeling of solidarity; and
- improving "esprit de corps."

These advantages benefit certain leadership styles to achieve the individual's and organizational goals and objectives. The leader should be specific on what he wants to be achieved before using the formal and informal groups.

Everard & Morris (1985:158-165) view organizations as having models: the classical, mechanistic, bureaucratic, the behavioural human relations, the system cybernetic socio-technical, the decisions, and the technological contingency. The classical model has the elements of rationality, high job specialization, centralization, strong vertical communication, tight control, rigid procedures, and an autocratic approach. The humanistic model has respect for the individual and other human values, job breadth, consultation, consensus, decentralization, loose project organization, flexible procedures, multidirectional communication, management by objectives, and participative approach. Schools often adopt it. The systems model is appropriate for organizations undergoing rapid change. It works like the nervous system, as it resembles how organisms work and survive. It is maintained that organisms adapt and therefore survive in the changing environment. This model has a clear line of authority. It also has a system that looks at the world surrounding the organization and the future of the organization. This is usually realized by appointing a research fellow to do the job. Also, in this system, the horizontal

and the vertical communication link well. Any unsatisfactory signs and problems are sensed and ironed out. The classical model, therefore, has concern for production while the humanistic model and the system model have concern for both production and people.

Everard and Morris (1985:158-165) further distinguish between the decision model and the contingency model in an organization. The decision model maintains that in an organizational structure, there are varying levels of importance. Often, the model is not seen as important to the schools, but there are levels at which decisions are made too. In a school, a teacher makes decisions regarding his lessons' objectives deciding on the best way to achieve them. The head of a department, a division, or a school can make a decision on whether or not to keep uncertificated and non-professional teachers, as long as their decisions do not clash with the set organizational goals and objectives.

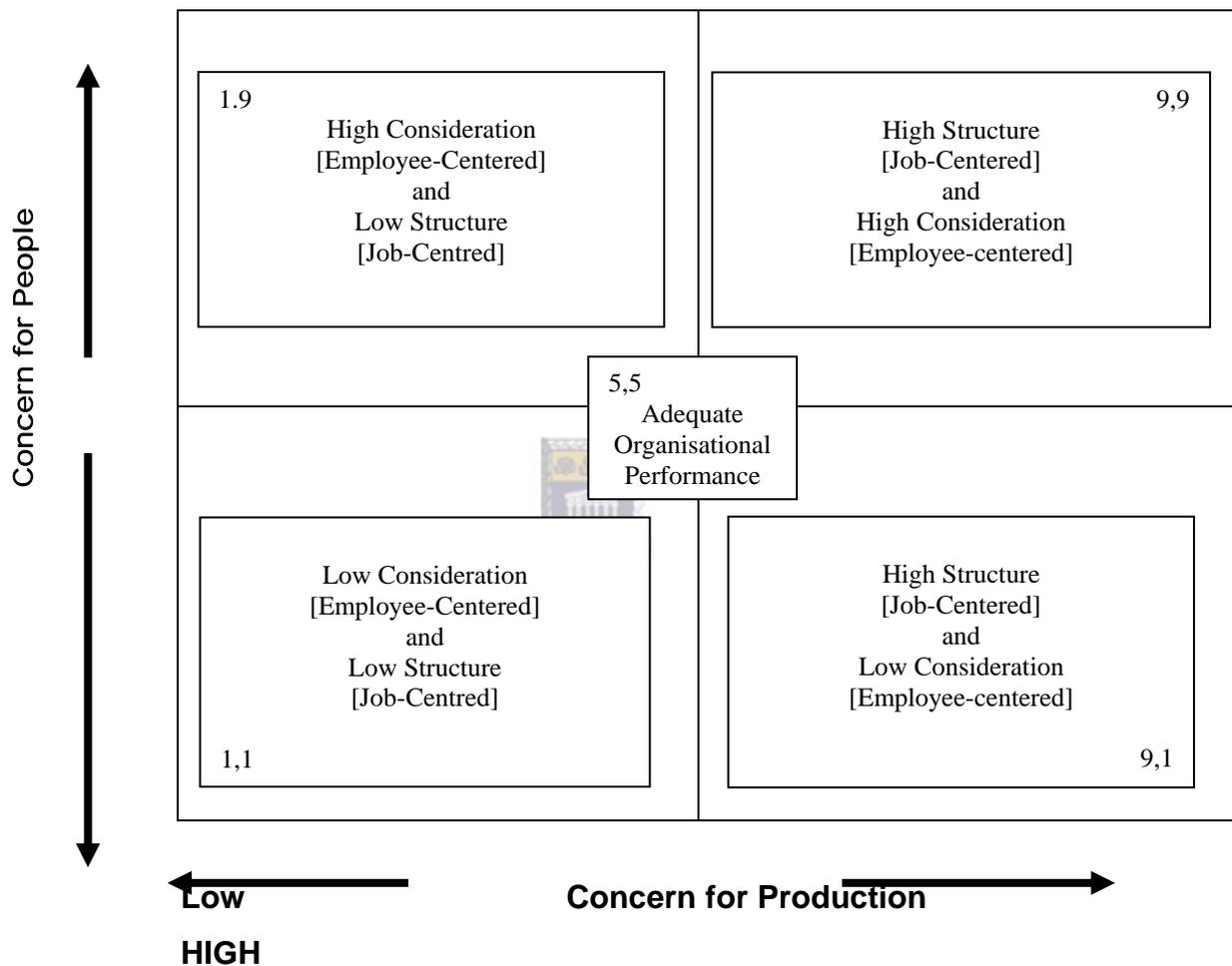
The contingency model postulates that organizations are, and should be different from one another and from part to part. The appropriate structure, management style, etc, are contingent upon what the organization (or part of it) is there to do. In essence, this means that there is no perfect organizational structure. However, the way organizations are structured depends on how each forms its structure as long as each of the structures works towards achievement of organizational goals and objectives. An educational institution is therefore an organization as it has characteristics of a business organization.

To recapitulate, the model that an institution adopts will reveal the type of leadership style(s) used in that institution. However, for an institution to be real, it must have power over its people. It must establish a policy, that is, norms and regulations, to be followed by all staff under its management. Also managers should have various leadership styles that promote objectives and goals of individuals concurrently with those of the institution. The leadership styles discussed in this study are based on the Blake and Mouton Management Grid, that aims at solving human problems of production that originate from

those who work together, ensuring continuing grassroots vitality. This grid is likely to be the relevant way to preserve the right to autonomous action (Blake & Mouton 1964: ix). The figure and explanation of how the grid functions follow.

2.4 The Blake and Mouton Management Grid

Figure 2: The Ohio State (University of Michigan) Leadership Model



Source: Blake&Mouton (1964:10) & Lussier (1993:218 –219)

The Blake and Mouton managerial grid is a systematic technology for organizationwide development. It represents four basic leadership styles on a two-dimensional grid, which are concerned with production and people appearing on a horizontal axis and vertical axis, respectively. It is based on the

idea that any leader has two basic matters he must attend to. These are production and people. Production in the context of the grid means the outcome expected. That means getting results or accomplishing the mission. Examples of these are quality level, units produced or time expended. The people aspect refers to the fact that the leader has to be supportive and people-oriented, calling for humanity. These concerns are seen as job satisfaction, quality work life, working conditions, salary structure, fringe benefits and many others related to personal satisfaction in a working environment. Generally, the grid looks at the relationship between production and people concerns and how leadership is practised in the pursuit of organizational goals and objectives through others. The leaders are labelled according to these concerns. They are either called (1,1), (1,9), (5,5) Or (9, 9) leaders (Blake & Mouton 1964:x) and (Beily 2004).

The (1,1) suggests the impoverished, worst leader with little or no concern for both production and people. This is the type of leader who does the minimum required to remain employed in the leadership position. The (1, 9) leader ranks high in concern for people and low in concern for production. He is the country-club leader striving to maintain good relations and a friendly atmosphere. The workers describe him as considerate, kind, and friendly. His concern is focused on people and their needs but as far as productivity in the work is concerned, little or nothing happens. Production is secondary to him. At the extreme of the (1, 9) leader is the (9, 1) leader who is a sweatshop leader concerned with production but less caring about maintaining friendly relationships and high morale. He arranges working conditions in such a manner that human element becomes a hindrance to tasks and production. He is the type of leader who uses position to coerce, persuade or restrain people to do work. People are treated like machines – expected to increase production. The (5, 5) is the organization-man type of leader. He is the type of leader suggesting compromise as the way of dealing with situations. He is the middle-of-the-road leader balancing working at a satisfactory level with the morale of the workers. The (9, 9) leader has high concern for both production and people. A team-

builder leader integrates people and their work. He is supportive. He wins trust and respect from the people, building a problem-solving team in which high production is achieved as people become highly committed (Dessler 1982:625) and (Beily 2004).

The horizontal axis of the grid represents concern for people while the vertical axis represents concern for production. Each axis is on a 1 to 9 point scale. The 1 indicates low concern while 9 shows high concern. Besides the features and explanation of the grid that are noted above, advantages and disadvantages are observed in its use.

Five advantages come up distinctly. First, the grid allows people to see similarities and differences among and/or between the leadership styles. Second, people are able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each style and to develop conclusions regarding sound and unsound styles of leading. This is because the leaders complete an instrument that indicates what they would do in certain situations. The results are scored to indicate where they are on the grid. They then go through training designed to help them become (9, 9) leaders - having high concern for both production and people. It can be concluded then that using this grid as a base for leading others, and achieving organizational goals and objectives gives an individual leader a chance to improve his approach in leading. Third, it is also helpful in identifying the alternatives available to a leader for improving effectiveness of his leadership styles. Fourth, the grid is used for self-diagnosis as the leader undergoes training or is applying leadership at the workplace. Lastly, unlike other appraisal systems, it is intended for organizationwide development (Beily 2004).

However, the Blake and Mouton managerial grid has some disadvantages in its leadership styles too. Each leadership dimension on which the leader operates has one or two disadvantages. If a leader settles for the (1, 1) leadership style, it means that there will always be little concern for production and people. For the (1, 9) leadership style, it means the focus will always be on people

sacrificing work and achievement of organizational goals and objectives. The (9, 1) leadership style, which is task-oriented, gives little or no concern for human elements and it may turn to be autocratic especially when there is pressure to complete tasks. Most of the time the organization is more important than the people. The (5, 5) leadership style has the weakness of dwelling on the safe side of situations. At best this leader operates at satisfactory level – compromising things. The (9, 9) leader who is ideal is a product of Blake and Mouton training programmes. The training programmes actually help participants become more effective as leaders (Beily 2004).

In training, the grid theory is used as a starting point for seminars to represent the actual model for the learning experience. This theory is used to establish shared experience relating to others more effectively focusing more on how to do work together. The objective of this experience is to let people think of the dynamics of teamwork. In line with the dynamics, people should think of resources and production (Beily 2004). This exercise is done with the purpose of achieving organizational goals and objectives.



The present researcher chooses the grid because it has stood the test of time. It has been used in many countries in the East, West, Middle East, Southern Africa and South America. Even though many countries still use it, it is opposed in International Organizational Development (IOD). The primary difference of the Blake and Mouton grid workshop and other leadership programmes is that about 95% of the time in a workshop is spent practising leadership in a team building situation helping the participants become more effective. But it has the weakness of focusing more on leaders and how they lead and not on how those who are led should operate. It also leaves out the contributions made by those who are led in achieving the goals and objectives of the organization (Beily 2004). It is used in this study to get the opinions of those who are lead.

The present researcher assumes that basing this study on the Blake and Mouton grid may help to find out whether or not the leadership styles used in

the two institutions under investigation result in team-building that help the lecturers to be more effective in their jobs. The leadership styles investigated, it is hoped, will also show whether or not the lecturers are motivated to improve their performance for the purpose of achieving the goals and objectives of their institutions.

The Ohio State Leadership Model (also known as the Blake and Mouton Leadership Style) comes up with five types of leaders - the impoverished leader, the sweatshop leader, the country club leader, the organization man leader, and the participative leader. The leadership styles discussed in this research are linked to the five types shown by Blake and Mouton. They are the democratic or participative leadership style, the dictatorship, the manipulative leadership style, the situational leadership style, the organization man leadership style, and laissez-faire leadership style and country club leadership style. In order to put these styles of leadership in perspective, the concept of appraisal systems is discussed.



2.5 Leadership Styles

Leadership styles vary from the democratic to the dictatorship. Between these two, there are a good number of styles that leaders practise when need arises. A leader may move towards democracy or dictatorship, which are two opposing poles. There is no fixed style to which a leader should cling because leadership styles are situational. A prevailing situation calls for an appropriate style. An explanation of situations and how they demand certain styles is given below.

2.5.1 Situational leadership style

The situational style of leadership develops from the contingency theory. As pointed out by Brayns & Cronin (1983) solutions chosen for organizational problems are taken from matching the internal organization structures and

operations to their environment. This is situational analysis and an approach that calls for the situational style of leadership. Stoner & Freeman (1987) concur by calling it the situational approach that focuses on real life.

The situational approach to leadership depends on various factors that have impact on leadership effectiveness. These factors include the history of the organization, age of the previous and present leader, the community surrounding the organization, the physical circumstances within which the organization exists, the communication pattern in the organization, the structure of interpersonal relationships, the degree of cooperation among members, the cultural expectations of the staff, the group-members personalities, and the time required and allowed for decision making. For the situational leader to succeed, he depends on how much authority he has over his staff. For decision making to succeed, three factors should be taken into consideration: first, the manager's own personality, background, knowledge and experience, confidence in staff, the leader's inclination and feeling of security. Second, the staff should have need for independence, be prepared to accept responsibility for decision-making, have interest in problems, expect to share in decision-making, and understand the goals of the organization. Third, it depends on situations. The behaviour of the leader and the staff may be affected by the situation, the type of the organization, the values and the traditions affecting people, group effectiveness, the problem and its complexity, the time pressure which may result in staff not being involved in decision making (Allais 1995:295-296).

In using the situational style of leadership, it is indicated that often one leadership style will not work in another situation. Different situations call for leaders to identify styles that can best help to achieve goals and objectives in particular circumstances, situations and times. This means that the situational leader needs to be flexible in order to use an appropriate style at any required situation (Stoner & Freeman 1987:58).

The interpretation of leading under certain situations is that there are no general or special solutions to leadership problems. The leader's task is to identify contingency factors in given situations and derive appropriate structures and processes for their effective congruence. There is no single, universal way to lead that is applicable to all organizations. Each organization should have culture and design its way of solving problems. Moreover, each organization should be responsive to the changing environment. The following is an explanation of some leadership styles showing their features, advantages, disadvantages, when such styles are effective, and when they are ineffective.

2.5.2 The Democratic or Participative Leadership Style

The democratic leadership style, which is also participative by nature, is popular among the leaders because it is people-centred. If there is a decision to make, all matters are discussed by the entire group. Then the leader gives the members an opportunity to make their input especially if issues affect their work. The leader only facilitates input. He uses the decisions of the members to enrich his own. The participative leader establishes trust; hence, close supervision of the staff is not necessary (Grossman & Ross 1991:85 and Allais 1995:290). The democratic leadership style produces the most positive results in terms of such things as productivity, loyalty, enthusiasm, flexibility, people development, and freedom of expression. The staff are involved in most, if not all, activities. However, the leader makes it clear that if the staff cannot come to a decision, he retains the right to do so.

Under this style of leadership, the staff are always well informed about what is taking place at the workplace. Both delegation and genuine teamwork are practised in order to achieve results together. Blake and Mouton, as quoted by Allais (1995:294), explain a democratic leadership style as implying that the job will be done automatically if interpersonal relationships are on a sound footing. The leader works with his staff and they reach decisions by either agreement or consensus. Watching such groups in action, it is usually difficult to identify the

leader. Such a leader is not fussy about position or rank. The workers realize that the participative leader is on top and they recognize him as such.

As Allais (1995:294) explains, this is a team leadership style in which a leader integrates concern for production with concern for people at a high level. Teamwork is emphasized and it is goal-oriented. It also strives for high quality by means of participative management, people involvement and conflict resolution. Schilbach as cited by Allais (1995:290) indicates that the democratic style is most likely to be successful, but it is clear that different leadership styles will be effective in different situations. On the basis of the features mentioned above, one concludes that the democratic or participative leadership style has high concern for both production and people and it works towards achievement of personal and institutional goals and objectives.

The democratic leadership style has several advantages. First, people's abilities, knowledge and skills are effectively and efficiently utilized. Where this style is used, team spirit is observed and all members are committed to the work they perform. Trust is built, communication flows smoothly and the working atmosphere is relaxed. The leader gets ideas from the team, however, he can still make a final decision, never losing sight of the fact that he bears the important responsibility of leadership. Most workers prefer the democratic leadership style and it is strengthened by McGregor's Theory X, which suggests that the workers should be directed (Norhtwest Leadership 2002)

Second, the workers gain ownership and commitment for decisions and activities. This is because the leader solicits thinking and open discussion on issues by all members. The leader only makes decision after getting relevant input from the group (Snyder 1999).

Third, the democratic leadership style produces high quality and high quantity work for long periods of time. This is because the workers like the trust they receive from the leader and they respond with cooperation, team spirit, and

high morale. In order to help the workers to respond this way, the leader does four major things. He develops plans for the workers to evaluate their own performance. He allows the workers to establish goals and objectives. He encourages them to grow on-the-job and be promoted. He also encourages achievement. Generally, under the democratic leadership style everyone gets a say.

Fourth, the democratic leadership style transfers power from the leader to the workers. This power motivates and develops participants and in turn, they work towards the achievement of goals and objectives. Empowering is inspiring, and as employees get inspired they achieve and get sustained commitment and performance that are extraordinary whether or not the rewards are there.

Fifth, the democratic leadership style is very effective with an educated and motivated team. As the team members work together, they develop their own leadership style. This is observable as they plan and make decisions. As followers too, they learn from the exchange of ideas and the praise and criticism of ideas in a relaxed and collegial atmosphere. The exchange of ideas broadens their perspective and helps them grow in wisdom.

Sixth, as the leader practises the democratic leadership style, he is concurrently training his followers to assume more responsibility and reach self-fulfilment. As the followers participate, consult and decide, they feel a strong sense of ownership in the achievement of goals and objectives.

Notwithstanding the advantages of the democratic leadership style discussed above, there are disadvantages as well. First, Harding (1987:77) argues that the democratic leadership style is time consuming because individuals expect and demand to be consulted on everything that occurs in the organization and this consumes time. Another argument in line with Harding's is that the democratic process takes longer than any other style. In time of crisis this delay

may be costly.

Second, when talking of a trained and motivated group, it means that this group must know enough to contribute good and constructive ideas. They also must be motivated enough to want to be involved. The leader, too, must make them feel that their input is essential and it is used. If this does not happen, the followers may conclude that one is an autocratic leader using democratic style to put his preconceived ideas into practice. This lowers the followers' morale.

Third, a democratic leader can also be seen as being so unsure of himself and his relationship with his followers. To him everything seems to be a matter for group discussion and decision. When used for decision-making, the democratic style calls for majority vote at times. The major disadvantage here is that nobody takes the responsibility. The leader is not responsible. The lecturers also may claim not to have voted for the decision.

Fourth, the democratic leader  emphasizes on involvement of the group members. They emphasize that members should take part in the decision making process. Such a leader bases decision on the consensus opinion of all the members. He is of the opinion that direction and close supervision are not necessary in doing the work when trust has been built. Such a leader holds meetings often in order to get the opinions of his followers.

To sum up, the democratic leadership style emphasizes the group and leader participation in the achievement of the goals and objectives of the organization. Decisions about organizational issues are reached after consultation and communication with various organization members. The democratic leader derives power and authority from his followers. He, on the other hand, operates by tapping skills and ideas from the organization members, remembering to delegate responsibility to the members. But this leader has authority to make the final decision even if all members do the groundwork leading to that decision.

2.5.3 The Dictatorship Leadership Style

Grossman & Ross (1991:84-85) describe dictatorship as a coercive style forcing people to act as they are told. It is leader-centred and cares less about the followers. The dictator tends to do the following five outstanding things:

[He] provides clear direction by telling staff what to do without listening to or permitting much staff input; expects immediate staff compliance or obedience; controls tightly, often by requiring many detailed reports; gives negative and "ad hominem" feedback e.g name calling; and motivates by threats of discipline or punishment (Grossman & Ross 1991:85).

What the above citation implies is that the dictator does not care much about human feelings and reactions. He thinks for the staff and instructs them without expecting their reaction to the contrary. In a normal work situation, instructions must be carried out meticulously. But where dictatorship reigns, if the staff reacts, their reactions are taken personally and emotionally. The dictatorship leadership style, therefore, can be equated to authoritarian leadership style or autocratic leadership style. Allais (1995:290) concurs that such a leader solely determines policy and personally gives orders to the followers, emphasizing his position and dictating what is to be done. Above all, he does not discuss the goals and objectives of the organization with the groups or individuals. Others are regarded as mere instruments or tools. In fact, he claims to be institution-oriented. Grossman & Ross (1991:294) amplify this point by arguing strongly that a dictator sees influence as an important part of his job. He is authoritative. He persuades the staff by explaining the "whys" behind directions or decisions in terms of the staff's organization's best interest. As Grossman & Ross (1991:294) observe, the staff are made submissive through formal authority control. This leader uses punishment rather than reward to discipline the staff and he calls for more production. He tells rather

than listens. He wants things done his own way. He does not care about other people's feelings.

In line with Grossman & Ross (1991) and Allais (1995) dictatorship is seen as a style in which a leader retains as much power and decision making authority as possible. A dictator is autocratic. He neither consults people nor allows them to make an input. He expects people to obey his orders without even giving an explanation. A dictator makes people work under the motivation environment of structured set or rewards and punishment (Northwest Leadership 2002). However, the dictatorship leadership style has advantages and disadvantages.

The first advantage of the dictatorship leadership style is that it can be used where there is pressure of time. In times of crises or emergencies, decision-making is faster when only one person is involved in the process. In situations like these, there is limited time to consult people and call for their participation to make decisions.



Second, the dictatorship leadership style is appropriate when the leader is training others who are new and untrained at the job to make decisions. New or untrained workers usually do not know which procedure to follow. The leader is a coach. He is competent and the employees are motivated to learn new skills. The leader closely supervises the new employees, leading through detailed orders and instructions (Northwest Leadership 2002).

Third, the dictatorship leadership style is relevant when employees challenge the leader's power. When there is a rebellion and the situation is filled with disturbance, the leader has to take over and control the situation. This is a situation in which the employees should receive orders without any explanation. Detailed orders and instructions should be given to calm down the situation.

Fourth, when a leader has all the information concerning an issue or a problem,

and has limited time and all employees are motivated people, the dictatorship leadership style can be used. It is appropriate for a leader to tell the employees what should be done, how it should be done, and when it should be done without input from the workers (Northwest Leadership 2002).

Despite the advantages, problems come up in the use of the dictatorship leadership style. First, it fails to develop leadership skills in the team members since the leader makes all decisions. This kind of leadership style discourages initiative, creativity and innovation. At times work stops when this leader is not physically present in the institution because other employees cannot make decisions or have no right to make decisions. Usually, institutions led by dictators do not develop after those particular leaders have left. The main observation is that the dictatorship leadership style deprives the institution members of self-confidence (Grossman & Ross 1991: 294 and Yeager, Sorensen & McKee 1999).

Second, the dictator becomes fatherly in nature. He becomes too concerned with each person's welfare like a father caring for his children and closely monitoring them in their work, assuming that people will avoid work as much as possible because they dislike it. He, therefore, controls, coerces and threatens people with punishment. His word is law (Gastrich 1998).

Third, the dictatorship style of leadership is insensitive to other people's feelings. Some dictators yell and use demeaning language, threats, and abuse of power when working with people. Some leaders do this realizing fully that they hurt other people; others do it just because it is their way of working with people. (Gastrich 1998).

To summarize, the dictatorship leadership style generally does not allow workers to think for themselves. This style is also an easy alternative for those leaders who do not want to spend time working through problems. If a dictator decides to work through people, he directs, coerces and controls closely.

2.5.4 The Manipulative Leadership Style

The manipulative leadership style is closely related to dictatorship. This connotes that the manipulative leader is self-centred. As long as things are done his own way, he is satisfied. He eats his cake and wants it too. He calls the shots but he also wants to be popular. The International Dictionary of Education explains that manipulating is handling objects in an exploratory and constructive way. This means the leader manipulates his way in a tactful manner in order to get what suits his best interest without caring about whether or not others are satisfied. It means leadership and direction of others for intentions not of their own choice. Sometimes this leader decides on an issue, and then lobbies people on a one-to-one basis to win support for his decision.

The manipulative style of leading has four major disadvantages that develop in a chain-like manner causing instability in an institution. It starts with the formation of cliques. Because the leader lobbies for support, those individuals agreeing with him form a clique.  The number of cliques ultimately grows depending on the sorts of agreements in which people believe. Usually those who disagree with the leader form a group that is hated. This results in the second disadvantage of favouritism.

Chambers 20th Century Dictionary defines favouritism as an inclination to partiality, not that a person gets what he qualifies for. The practice of favouritism prevails in the manipulative leadership style. The leader tends to favour those who support his lobbied decision. This shows bias when dealing with individuals in an institution. People like to be treated fairly and equally. Favouritism develops into play at work. When some workers know that the leader favours them, they drag their feet at work. Others, who know that they are not favoured, also drag their feet. The result is little or no production. Play at work is the point at which the leader loses control over the workers. Nothing is taken seriously. The workers have an attitude that they should be favoured.

At times this attitude leads to corruption (Stoner & Freeman 1989:619).

According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary, corruption is defined as an inducement by means of improper consideration, loss of integrity, virtue or moral principles. Departing from what is correct and involving in what is wrong, is violation of duty. In most cases, where corruption reigns, people try to exchange material things for support. A leader may do this in order to be loved and supported by the workers. He usually succeeds in this because of his position of authority. This leads to the disadvantage of abuse of power.

The hierarchical structure in an organization automatically gives a leader power over the workers. Having power implies having the ability to affect something - a telling force. Usually leaders misuse power to manipulate workers to agree to their decisions. In situations like this, workers agree with leaders because they are afraid of the power leaders have over them. Stoner & Freeman (1987:300) explain power as the ability to exert influence. It is power to change the behaviour and attitudes of others. The position of a leader allows him to do so because he has formal authority over the workers. However, one may argue that misuse of power often hinders progress work because it causes indiscipline among the workers.

From the foregoing discussion on manipulative style of leadership, one discovers that a manipulative leader is a persuasive type of leader who uses his position to win support of others. But he is oppressive as well because he does not care for the people. As was mentioned previously, the manipulative style of leadership bears close relationship with the dictatorship style. They have similar disadvantages. However, the outstanding difference is that a manipulative leader lobbies support before dictating while a dictator does not consult but instructs.

2.5.5 The Organization Man or Middle-of-the-road Leadership Style

As the name implies, this is a modest leader keeping a balanced position of equal concern for people and work. To show concern for people, this leader makes sure that he establishes a rapport with the staff. He plans work with each worker making certain that they agree on the work objectives and that the work will be carried out. As a sign of good rapport, workers are free to discuss issues with the leader. According to Hoy & Miskel (1987:75) there are rules and regulations established by the leader for the purpose of ensuring that they are followed. However, this leader usually allows room for suggestions. As work continues, he supervises and supports workers - making them aware of their strengths and weaknesses and emphasizing improvement.

Allais (1995:294), on the other hand, defines the organization man as the type of leader who maintains a balance between production and interpersonal relationship. He is characterized by "the middle-of-the-road" theory or "go-along-to-get-along" assumptions which are revealed in conformity to the status quo." The organization man style of leadership maintains the system as it is. The leader is neither creative nor innovative but he is eager to maintain stability in an organization.



However, the middle-of-the-road leadership style has advantages. It has room for tentative decisions and therefore results in a balanced workers' performance. This is because it balances work and workers' satisfaction. As work is achieved, the morale of the workers is boosted and sustained. This style helps to build trust and confidence in workers. As a result of that the leader feels bound to protect satisfaction and security of the workers.

Despite these advantages, the middle-of-the-road leadership style has disadvantages as well. For instance, workers have little freedom and initiative because they are closely supervised. They may be allowed freedom to ask for help if they encounter problems in their work, but they are not allowed to think independently. Instead the leader plans work for them, explains the procedures and makes sure that the work is carried out (Blanchard, Zigarmi & Zigarmi

1985). The major disadvantage of this style is that it does not bring improvement to the organization; instead it keeps things as they are.

To sum up, the middle-of-the-road leadership style keeps the institution progressing at a very slow pace because the needs of the institution and the workers are balanced at a low level. There is satisfaction as long as the work is done. This style also keeps the morale of the workers low. The goals and objectives of the institution are hardly achieved and the institution itself remains stagnant.

2.5.6 The Laissez-faire Leadership Style

The laissez-faire leadership style is sometimes called the free rein or individual-centred leadership style. This style makes the presence of the leader felt but gives workers freedom to make individual or group decisions. It looks like it is democratic but most of the time the leader appeals to personal integrity which results in some individuals being totally trusted. This is because they are given little or no direction. As the group works, no one seems to be an outstanding leader because the leader has faith and trust that the work is done well (Van der Westhuizen 1991:190). Robbins & DeCenzo 2001:347) concur that the laissez-faire leader generally allows employees complete freedom to decide and complete work in whatever way they see fit, while this leader provides material for use and answers questions.

The laissez-faire leadership style calls for a minimum of direction and control from the leader and maximum freedom of the workers. All authority is given to the employees and they must determine goals, make decisions and resolve problems on their own. It is not an absence of leadership but lack of leadership control. It is a free rein style.

The laissez-faire leadership style has several advantages. First, as the leader believes in faith and trust, individuals become more responsible. They are

motivated to work and have maximum freedom of activity. It is non-interference in the affairs of others style of leadership. This style is used when workers are able to analyse the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it (Northwest Leadership 2002).

Second, the laissez-faire leadership style is appropriate, with a worker who knows more about the job than the leader. This worker should be allowed to take ownership of the task, especially when situations call the leader to be at other places doing other things (Northwest Leadership 2002).

Third, this style allows a chance to bond in a less formal way. Also, leaving workers to make their own decisions can be very successful if they work together in terms of ownership and responsibility. However, the laissez-faire leadership style operates at its best when used with a trained and motivated group.

There are also disadvantages in the use of the laissez-faire leadership style. First, the freedom does not encourage good team functioning as individuals do as they please. Those individuals who are conscious about their responsibilities become overloaded with work. Working as individuals, the tendency is that their efforts are not coordinated as the leader withholds leadership responsibility. Moreover, skills and knowledge are not shared among the workers because of the individualism and uncoordinated efforts. Sometimes group members end up ignoring everything themselves. They also make a lot of mistakes knowing well that they will not be asked to account for them. If some members raise a concern, the leader shelves it until it dies off.

Second, the laissez-faire leader has no authority. He just watches what is going on in the institution. In such an organization there may be chaos if the leader stays apart from the rest of the workers. However, if the workers are responsible and conscious about their duties, they are motivated to work freely and they determine their own goals. Some employees cannot work under this

style of leadership, as they need more direction. They may even feel that the leader does not care for them and what they do, as there is no control. On the other hand, some workers cannot work under this style of leadership because they conclude that nobody cares.

To sum up, the laissez-faire leadership style connotes leading by abdicating the leadership role. The leader has trust and faith in the workers to the extent that if they are not conscious about their work

2.5.7 The Country Club Leadership Style

Blake & Mouton (1964:71-72) define the country club leader as the type that shifts to a 1, 9 direction – low concern for production and high concern for people. As the name connotes, the country club leader leads as if he is in a social club whereby he has to keep good social relations with the rest of the gathering. A club is an association of persons for the production of the same, common objectives. This leader has the McGregor's Theory Y attitude which stipulates that everything goes right because employees have an inner feeling of duty and therefore have a strong desire to work and attain their own goals and the goals of their institution.

The country club leader is seen as taking good care of the team he is working with, ensuring a comfortable and friendly atmosphere and hoping that this will lead to the work getting done. He has this hope because when the team members are happy, they work harder and the work takes care of itself. The main objective of this type of leadership style is to create a secure and relaxed atmosphere and trust that employees will respond positively towards work (Gemmy 1998).

The country club leadership style has some advantages and disadvantages. As Trewath & Newport (1982:397) observe that thoughtful attention to the needs of the employees for satisfying relationship leads to a comfortable, friendly

atmosphere at the work place. This assumption then is that the best way to lead is to create good working conditions and pay less attention to work, especially in creative areas.

Secondly, the country club leadership style is permissive and appealing to the employees. The leader believes that good feelings guarantee motivation to work. Whenever resistance and antagonism are generated, in an attempt to avoid losing the employees, the leader swings to a 1, 9 direction. The employees get satisfied and stay (Blake & Mouton 1964:71-72).

Disadvantages are also observed in this type of leadership. First, as Blake & Mouton (1964:71-72) argue, the country club leadership style is designed to promote creativity in an organization but the organization becomes a quite comfortable and uncreative place to work as the employees pay less attention to work. The leader ends up powerless because of the permissive and appealing character he develops. The work is not well done and the employees blame themselves for weakness in their tasks.



The second disadvantage is that the country club leadership style has few, if any, regulations, policies and procedures. This equates the style to minimal accountability. The trust that the country club leader establishes between him and the employees makes the style shift towards the laissez-faire leadership style.

In summary, the country club leadership style has a very high concern for people and low concern for the job. It creates a secure and relaxed atmosphere to the extent that less attention is paid to the work. It is a style that promotes the laissez-faire attitude in an institution resulting in paying less attention to the achievement of goals and objectives of that institution.

Having discussed the leadership styles and bringing out their characteristics, advantages and disadvantages, it is observed that they are of importance

In the improvement and success of an institution. It is only through using the leadership styles appropriately that the goals and objectives of an institution can be achieved. In the use of these styles, emphasis should be on high concern for both production and employees. The most significant barrier to institutional improvement is the focus on leadership as a hierarchical function characteristically located at the top of the organization pyramid with everyone else taking orders from the top. Leadership has to be persuasive and be the natural part of everyone working in the institution (West-Burnham 1997: 23).

Leadership styles should be used situationally. The leader should study the situation under which the work is done and the type of people who do the work. Then he can apply the appropriate style. As the leader does this, he should bear in mind that adapting or adopting leadership styles to different situations calls for balancing concern for production with concern for people. It should be noted that it does not have to be the same person in every situation. The leader should delegate responsibility to other employees because different people emerge as leaders in different situations. A leader successful in one situation may not be in another. However, a designated leader has to lead in a variety of situations hence the knowledge of various leadership styles is necessary. This will help the leader to know when to delegate and to whom to delegate.

It is concluded that there are strengths in every leadership style that can be practised. There are also weaknesses that can be guarded against. Moreover, a leadership style is neither right nor wrong. It is right if it is used at an appropriate situation, and it is wrong when it is used inappropriately. Furthermore, the leader may be positive or negative. He is positive when he uses rewards, and he is negative when he uses penalties, dominates and makes the employees feel that he is superior. Generally, the leader should be positive and tap the best in employees, applying a delicate balance of pressure and support (Yeager, Sorensen & McKee 1999).

The next chapter continues on literature review with special focus on appraisal systems. The various appraisal systems are discussed in line with communication and performance bringing up their advantages and disadvantages. They are linked to leadership that best suit the person appraised.



CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW ON APPRAISAL SYSTEMS

3.0 Orientation

This chapter reviewed literature on appraisal systems explaining them, and bringing up their strengths and weaknesses. The leadership styles that could be used with the appraisal systems were also looked at. On the basis of the reviewed literature, questionnaires were further developed.

3.1 Appraisal Systems

Performance appraisal is a contributing factor in showing concern for people and production. Used together with leadership styles, the concern for people and production can be observable. Performance appraisal systems promote a formal face-to-face talk between leaders and workers in an organization.

Appraisal denotes a feedback practice on job performance. An appraisal, therefore, is an estimate of performance for the purpose of giving an expression that leads to change for better. When performance is appraised, it is measured against expected standards that organizations have. As Stoner & Freeman (1987:425) state, a leader has to appraise the workers' performance in order to assess whether or not the organizational and workers' goals and objectives are achieved. If used appropriately, performance appraisal systems show concern for people and production.



Various performance appraisal systems are tried out in institutions. However, it is appropriate for an institution to choose a system that meets its interests and the interests of its workers. Some of these appraisal systems are: the traditional model, the human relations model, the human resource model, the Herzberg's two factor theory, management by objectives and clinical supervision.

Focussing on educational institutions, the lecturers often pinpoint strengths of those in authority and subsequently praise the good and positive things they observe. Weaknesses are also pointed out and alternatives for improvement are given. The leaders also do likewise. However, there are never responses to these comments as those who make them never meet to discuss. There are formal strategies to be used whereby these casual comments can be systematically and scientifically assessed and improvements made.

In formal settings like educational institutions, appraisal is done for various purposes including improvement, promotions, transfer, demotions and separations. The lecturers whose performance is good or outstanding need to be promoted, those who are uncomfortable with one job may need to be transferred to another or they may be helped to adjust and improve. On the other hand, a lecturer may be demoted because of inefficiency, ineffectiveness or irresponsibility. However, for any leader to reach a decision on what to do and how to handle such situations, an appraisal should be applied so that the decision made is acceptable to the appraisee (Stoner & Freeman 1987:257).

An appraisal, therefore, is an estimate of something for the purpose of giving an expression that leads to change for better (Student Encyclopaedia 1971). When performance is appraised, it is measured against the expected standards. Subsequently, a strategy to motivate that lecturer for better is applied that will channel and sustain his behaviour in relation to those standards. A leader has to appraise the lecturers as organizational and personal goals and objectives are achieved through working with and through them (Stoner & Freeman 1987:425). This section focuses on motivation strategies in a workplace that show whether or not a leader has concern for production and people. Special focus is on the traditional model, the human relations model, the human resource model that includes McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, the Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, clinical supervision, management by objectives, and the Johari Window.

3.1.1 The Traditional Model

The traditional model of appraisal is associated with Frederick Taylor and the scientific management whereby the leaders determine how work should be done. It assumes that the workers are lazy and that the leaders understand how the work should be done more than the workers do. It also postulates that financial rewards are appropriate for those who do good work and are productive. In the olden days, the workers favoured this. However, as time

went by, efficiency was improved and finance was reduced as an incentive for good performance. This led to the workers taking time off their duties. The workers even started complaining about job security rather than money (Stoner & Freeman 1987:426-432).

The underlying meaning of the above explanation is that the leaders give direction as to how the work is to be done. They do not consult with the workers or call for their participation to decide on how best the work can be done. However, the leaders should give tangible incentives to those who are productive so that they produce even more. These are the leaders who are more concerned with production than the people. They are 9, 1 and sweatshop type of leaders who use position of power to coerce employees to do the work. The workers, on the other hand, become satisfied because of the financial rewards they get. The performance improves because the workers are forced to work. Ultimately, the improvement in work performance leads to the workers having time off their duties because they are dissatisfied with certain areas of work that concern them as people.



The traditional model, also termed the conundrum, is thought of as conservative. It has arisen out of Plato and Aristotle's theories. Rogers, citing Bowen's book in the introduction to his Theories of Education, explains that in the traditional model, the authority of the teacher is stressed and his role is seen as one of instilling in the learners a required body of set subject matter, little attention is paid to individual differences, learners are expected to remain quiet and passive and, to this end coercive techniques are common. The school is cut off from the outside world and what goes on within is seen as a preparation for the future rather than the enrichment of the present.

The classroom example given above compares well with the work situation in an institution. It also connotes a similar meaning to the explanation by Stoner and Freeman above. The position of the leader like that of the teacher is highly recognized and just like the teacher, the leader is thought to have all the

knowledge of how the work is to be done. The leader has to be authoritative and make the workers produce output without complaining. Worse still, the institution in which these employees work becomes a closed system. An open institution is subject to outside forces of environment. The institution depends on the outside world for its survival. Although the traditional model has stood the test of time, it lacks open human relations hence why institutions opt for human relations model.

3.1.2 The Human Relations Model

It was realized that the traditional approach to motivate workers was no more effective. After research by Elton Mayo and others, it was discovered that social contacts at work were important for motivating the workers. Acknowledgement of social needs and frequently telling the workers that they were valuable in an organization were necessary. This resulted in leaders informing the workers of the organizational intention. Also, the workers were free to suggest any action appropriate for the achievement of the intention. This was termed the human relations model and it was concerned with both production and the people.

The human relations model maintains that leaders in organizations have authority to set policies and goals to the workers who are responsible and accountable for the work that they perform. However, it recognized that the workers have some influence on the standards and the result of their work. Elton Mayo and his associates undertook a study that recommended giving the workers freedom to decide on how they could do their work on their own, to communicate and to consult among themselves. The study also suggested intensification of management. Informal groups were accepted and encouraged. However, the leaders in management positions still maintained formal authority to set policies and goals and held the workers accountable for their work. This model showed concern for both production and people in

achieving personal and organizational goals.

The difference between the traditional model and the human relations model is that the former expects the workers to be satisfied under the authority and to accept instructions given in return for high wages. The latter expects the worker and the leaders to consult and communicate among themselves. The workers accept the authority because it treats them with respect. However, further research was done on the human relations model and its weaknesses were discovered. So the human resource model was developed.

3.1.3 The Human Resource Model

Stoner & Freeman (1987:426–432) state that McGregor, Maslow, Argyris and Likert consider the human relations model sophisticated. They postulate that the workers are not only motivated by money and job satisfaction. They argue that need for “achievement and meaningful work” also contributes to the workers’ satisfaction. In their research, McGregor and his colleagues discovered that the people are already motivated to do their work. McGregor, in particular, assumes that the traditional Theory X that stipulates that the workers dislike work and regard it as only necessary for survival implies that the workers must be directed. Theory X recommends that the leaders should be strict and authoritative to make the workers productive. On the other hand, Theory Y assumes that the workers will direct themselves towards the objectives if they are rewarded. In essence, Theory Y shows that the people are eager to work and that if they work under a relaxed and conducive atmosphere, they increase their production. Theory X has a high concern for production and a low concern for the workers while Theory Y has equal concern for both production and the workers.

The outstanding features that make the human resource model different from the traditional model and the human relations model is that it promotes participative democracy. However, on the basis of these models, it should be

noted that the individuals bring their own interests, attitudes and needs to the workplace. This is shown by Maslow's study that assessed the characteristics and needs that the workers bring to an organization. The study identifies the following five human needs:

- Physiological – includes the need for air, water, food and sex.
- Security – includes the need for safety, order, and freedom from fear or threat.
- Belonging and love (social needs) – these include the need for love, affection, feelings of belonging, and human contact.
- Esteem – includes the need for self-respect, self-esteem, achievement, and respect for others.
- Self-actualization – that includes the need to grow, to feel fulfilled and to realize one's potential.

Stoner & Freeman (1987:426-432) further show that when an individual is partially fulfilled, he feels the desire to satisfy the next need in the hierarchy. For these needs to be fulfilled, an organization should have a stipulated hierarchical structure, rules and regulations, and policies that guide all the workers. The conditions should also be physically conducive for working. Furthermore, each leader should research into the needs of the workers in order to help them achieve personal and organizational goals through appraising their performance. On good performance, reward should be given to promote job satisfaction.

Although the traditional model, the human relations model, and the human resource model are the early theories of motivation, they still play an important role in the improvement of performance. To depict the differences in the three models, it is stated that

from a human perspective, then managers should not induce workers to comply with managerial objectives by

bribing them with wages, as in the human relations model, or manipulating them with considerate treatment, as in the human relations model. Instead, managers should share responsibility for achieving organizational and individual objectives, with each person contributing on the basis of his or her interests and abilities (Stoner & Freeman 1987:427 –428).

The quotation above depicts that bribery and manipulation cannot be used to encourage workers to perform well. This is not appraisal and should not be practised. The leaders should rather share responsibilities with the workers with the purpose of achieving organization's and individuals' goals and objectives.

Apart from the three models discussed above, other appraisal models were developed, one such a model is the Herzberg Two-Factor theory that is discussed below.



3.1.4 The Herzberg Two-Factor Theory

The Herzberg Two-Factor Theory is a theory of motivation. Herzberg analysed the job attributes of 200 accountants and engineers who were asked to recall when they had felt positive, or negative at work and reasons why. From this research, Herzberg suggested a two-step approach to understanding employee motivation and satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel 1987:182).

Sergiovanni & Starratt (1983:137) maintain that Herzberg's two-factor theory shows that in a work situation there are satisfiers and dissatisfiers. There are rewards that contribute to job satisfaction and others to job dissatisfaction. The satisfiers are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement. The dissatisfiers are company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. The satisfiers are positive elements and dissatisfiers are negative elements.

However, these are not opposites but two independent dimensions. Workers are motivated by factors outside the job.

Based on Herzberg's study, the conclusion is that the presence of certain factors act to increase an individual's satisfaction, but absence of these factors does not necessarily produce job dissatisfaction. It was also found out that when people take employment, they are neither satisfiers or dissatisfiers. However, as time goes on, they either move towards satisfiers or dissatisfiers depending on the experience in the job (Bryn & Cronnin 1983:124, Sergiovanni & Starratt 1983:136, Hoy & Miskel 1987:182 & Ivancevich & Matleson 1993:145).

Herzberg points out that there are hygiene factors that prevent dissatisfaction ;if they are present but do not actually satisfy things like rules, pay, and working conditions. Motivators actually satisfy and motivate people if they are present. Those are incentives such as promotion and recognition. However, Herzberg makes a distinction between motivation and movement. He observes that to make someone move you can hit him with a stick or feed him jelly beans. But to make him move again, you have to keep on feeding him or hitting him. Herzberg argues that to motivate people, you need to enrich their working lives, give them direct feedback and allow them to produce a complete unit of work and also give them training. He concludes that hygiene factors and motivators are of equal importance.

Herzberg gives a clear explanation of hygiene factors and motivator factors. He explains that hygiene factors are based on the need for a business or institution to avoid unpleasantness at work. If employees consider these factors inadequate, then they can cause dissatisfaction with work. He goes further to explain that hygiene factors include company policy and administration, wages that include salaries and other financial remuneration, quality of supervision, quality of interpersonal relations, and working conditions.

Hertzberg further explains that motivator factors are based on an individual's need for personal growth. When they exist, motivator factors actively create job satisfaction. If they are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. Motivator factors, according to Hertzberg, include status; opportunity for advancement; gaining recognition; responsibility; challenging or stimulating words; and a sense of personal achievement and personal growth in a job (Sergiovanni & Starrat 1983).

The present researcher observes that the traditional model, the human relations model, the human resource model (that includes the McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y) and the Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory only relate to the conditions under which the workers are either satisfied or dissatisfied. They do not open channels of communication. However, they still lead to achievement of goals and objectives of an institution. There are other appraisal approaches that engineer discussions between the employer and the employee resulting in performance improvement and job satisfaction. These approaches include the clinical supervision, management by objectives and the Johari Window.



3.1.5 Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is in-class based. It was developed to give chance to Harvard University student teachers to observe in-class teaching and give each other feedback on performance. It was further used to assist experienced teachers and administrators to learn more about teaching. It developed. Today it has validity in the professional, academic and personal development of teachers and administrators. It is a supportive structure that particularly helps teachers analyse their teaching and as a consequence, make improvements. It is a face-to-face cyclical process involving five outstanding stages: the

preobservation – a stage whereby instructional goals are jointly discussed by the supervisor and the teacher; the observation – a stage in which the data to be used in improving the teacher's instruction is collected; the analysis – a stage where the supervisor works alone, building meaning and making sense out of the data collected during the lesson presentation. Consequently, the supervisor determines an appropriate strategy to present the results to the teacher so that what actually happened is reflected; the post-observation – a stage in which the supervisor presents the data collected during observation. The teacher discovers whether or not the set objectives and goals during the preobservation stage have been achieved and; the supervision analysis – a stage where supervisory skills are examined. This is done to find out whether or not the supervision has been successful. The discussions extend to future agreement (Milts & Fanslow 1980:7-8), (Smyth 1985:9) and (Goldhammer, Anderson & krajewski 1993:133-134).

In essence supervision connotes that the teacher discusses face-to-face with the supervisor and agree on the type of data to be collected; moreover, they establish rapport in a relaxed atmosphere. This results in an intensive lesson observation. It becomes easy to attach meaning to data collected during observation because the teacher and the supervisor have discussed before the lesson starts. During post-observation the supervisor facilitates the discussions and the teacher discovers strengths and weaknesses of the lesson that lead to suggestions for improvement. When the supervisory skills are examined, the supervisor is helped to improve supervision. Both the supervisor and the teacher gain professional, academic and personal growth. The clinical supervision cycle has concern for both production and people in a democratic style of working relationship.

Despite the good points in the use of clinical supervision, it has some disadvantages. Cogan (1973:4) states that some supervisors put their good relationship above improvement of performance. This is against the goals of clinical supervision. Turney, Cairns, Hatton, Towler, Eltis, Thew & Wright

(1982:47) and Smyth (1984:9) argue that clinical supervision is labour-intensive. The student teacher, the cooperating teacher and the college or university tutor are involved in it during the teaching practice. Various complaints and conflicts can occur in the triad. For example, the two supervisors tend to form a competitive combination that hinders the student teacher's development. These conflicts often extend to in-school and out-of-school activities. Clinical supervision is also time-consuming because the conferences take a long time. This time could be used for teaching other classes.

Danah, Elliot & Marland (1982:35) reporting on their experiences during teaching practice in which clinical supervision was used, show concern about the unprofessional attitude of some supervisors. Three complaints are raised. First, they were criticized in front of the class. Second, they were not consulted when other teachers were invited to observe them teach. Third, some supervisors took over from them as they taught. The unplanned interferences weakened their confidence. Turney, Cairns, Hatton, Towler, Eltis, Thew & Wright (1982:48) claim, moreover, that the teacher sees the supervisor as an evaluator rather than a helper. As Goldhammer, Anderson & Kajewski (1993:11) argue, clinical supervision produces feelings of anxiety that result in teachers resisting change. Usually teachers are afraid of supervision when it is connected to career ladder placement.

Although weaknesses are observed in clinical supervision, these weaknesses are seen not as problems of clinical supervision *per se*. But these problems are largely administrative, personal and professional. Smyth (1985:9) argues that to complain about scarcity of time in using clinical supervision, teachers are understood to mean that their professional activities are less important than other activities. He further shows that the conflicting roles of college supervisors and school-based supervisors; the evaluation procedures; and the attitudes; are to be blamed on those who use clinical supervision and not on clinical supervision itself.

3.1.6 Management by Objectives (MBO)

From the discussion above, it is deduced that clinical supervision is objective-based and so is the management by objectives appraisal approach. J. Humble of Urwick Orr and Partners developed MBO. It was used to assess managerial performance and it made an impact on planning. It was based on quantifiable, qualitative and verifiable objectives simultaneously meaning how much, how well and with what result. The developers of MBO also advocated that MBO be used to avoid the elements of top-down approach to management but to involve the workers in consultation with the immediate supervisors and ask them to set their own objectives based on organizational goals. MBO is a system in which specific performance objectives are jointly determined by workers and their supervisors. The progress toward objectives is periodically reviewed and rewards are allocated on the basis of this progress. Each worker in an organization has aspirations which most of the time are in line with the organizational objectives and goals (Stoner & Freeman 1987:35 & Gregson & Livesey 1993:94-95).



Beach (1980:309) informs that MBO has been "... designed to overcome certain inherent problems of traditional appraisal system" which did not focus on enhancing supervisor-subordinate relationship. The good relationship between the two strengthens the motivational climate and improves performance. Certain features which collaborate with supervision approach are observed in MBO and are perceived by Beach as follows:

- Supervisor and subordinate get together and jointly agree upon the principal duties and areas of responsibility of the individual job.
- The person sets own short performance goals or targets in cooperation with his supervisor. The supervisor guides the goal setting process to ensure that it is related to the realistic needs of the organization.
- They agree upon the criteria for measuring and evaluating

performance.

- From time to time the supervisor and the subordinate come together to evaluate progress made towards the agreed upon goals. At these meetings new modified goals are set for the ensuing period.
- The supervisor plays a supportive role, he tries on day-to-day basis to help the subordinate reach the agreed upon goals. He counsels and coaches.
- In the appraisal process, the supervisor plays less the role of a judge and more the role of one who helps the subordinate attain the goals or targets.
- The process focuses on results accomplished and not on personal traits.

Both clinical supervision and MBO have similar advantages. They improve the management as both the supervisor and the subordinate commit themselves to work agreed upon. In the processes of the appraisal, problems are ironed out, strengths are consolidated and the overall performance of the organization is enhanced. The individuals in the organization commit themselves towards the achievement of the goals and objectives of the organization. This also helps to promote good relationship between the workers and their supervisors (Gregson & Livesey 1993:95).

Although management by objectives enhances performance, there are a number of weaknesses observed in its use. Seevers (1979) argues that MBO is widely used and widely misused. He emphasizes that any leader must first be aware of the performance and potential of his staff and genuinely concerned about their development. Secondly, the leader must be able to separate objectives from intentions. Things desired are not objectives. In an institution desires such as values, policies, programmes, and tasks are not objectives. Objectives include meeting the demands of the environment that is being served.

Seevers (1979) observes four disadvantages of MBO. First, he points out that leaders tend to forget that objectives are often established without sufficient information and may become invalid due to increased knowledge or changes in external factors. He argues that objectives must be specifically defined to be used as criteria with which to measure progress. They must be flexible enough to respond to changing conditions.

The second disadvantage of MBO is that those who use it without understanding may end up with unfavourable outcomes either because objectives were poor or actions followed were improper. It can be argued that before people embark on MBO, they must be educated in participative management.

The third disadvantage of MBO is that it is a threatening technique because it emphasizes results that determine the success of measurement process. When this is coupled with lack of constructive feedback, the strategy does not succeed because feedback is the central theme of MBO. Workers who are insecure may perceive MBO as a threatening technique.

The fourth disadvantage of MBO is based on clarity of communication. Seeves (1979) emphasizes that communication lines including feedback are crucial in an institution. He argues that lack of an arranged system of feedback to both leaders and their staff makes MBO fail. Satisfactory and timely feedback is a shared responsibility. Above all, the leader must always be ready to reinforce the multidirectional flow of communication in an institution.

3.1.7 The Johari Window

Although the Johari Window is mostly associated with teaching and the relationship between a teacher and a clinical supervisor, it also fits well in activities outside the classroom. It depicts the relationship between the supervisor and the worker. The table below shows the teacher's position

through the Johari Window.

Figure 3: The Johari Window and the Teacher’s Educational Platform

	What the supervisor knows about the teacher	What the supervisor does not know about the teacher
What the teacher knows about himself	Public or Open Self 1	Hidden or Secret Self 2
What the teacher does not know about himself	Blind Self 3	Undiscovered or Subconscious Self 4

Source: Sergiovanni & Strarrat (1983:307) (adopted)

The Johari Window, named after the first names of its inventors, Joseph Luft and Harry Ighan, is a simple and useful model explaining the process of human interaction. It took its name after the first two letters of each first name of the inventors. The inventors developed it while researching group dynamics. It is a tool for illustrating and improving self-awareness, and mutual understanding between individuals within a group. It is a four-paned model dividing personal awareness into four different types: open, hidden, blind, and subconscious. The lines dividing the four panes are like window shades that can move as interaction progresses. Today the model is especially relevant in institutions due to the modern emphasis on, and influence of, soft skills, behaviour, empathy, cooperation, inter-group development and interpersonal development. It is used for improving relationship and communication. It is also

referred to as a disclosure/feedback model of self-awareness or as an information-processing tool.

The Johari window is self-disclosure because there is sharing of information with others that they would not normally know or discover. This involves risks and vulnerability on the part of the person sharing information. The window is a way of showing how much information you know about yourself and how much others know about you. The meaning of the open cell is what a person know about himself that is also known by others knows. The blind self is what is unknown by a person about himself but which others know. The hidden self is what a person knows about himself that others do not know. The subconscious self is what is unknwn by a person about himself and also unknwn by others. In general, the window model represents views, feelings, emotions, experience, attitudes, skills, and intentions. The self in it means oneself who is a person subject to the Johari window analyses (Rogers n.d.).



The panes in the above model are of the same size. However, they can be changed in size to represent the right proportions of the type of knowledge about a particular person in a given situation. As people work in groups or teams in institutions, the aim of each team should be to develop the open self for every person because when people work in this area with others, they are at their most effective and productive, and the team is at its productive too. This is the pane where there is good communication and cooperation. The pane is free from mistrust, distraction, confusion, conflict and misunderstanding that are often a stumbling block to teamwork.

As team members communicate and interact in the open self, the size of the open self horizontally expands into the blind self. As feedback is done on team members, each member begins to realize own blind self and becomes open. The open self also vertically expands into the hidden self as team members disclose their attitudes, feelings, views, skills, and experiences about the self. Freedom of communication and interaction grows. In order to achieve the

horizontal and vertical expansion, the team leader should facilitate a culture and practice for team members to be open, honest, helpful, positive, sharing, and constructive in what they say and do. Encouraging the expansion of open self into the other cells is a sign of good leadership that ends in each team member knowing the self and others.

Looking deeper into the blind self, this is the area that is not an effective or productive space for an individual or a group as it is ignorant about the self. When team members do not say anything about the strengths and weaknesses they observe in one member, they keep that member in the blind area. Work will never go well if people do not realize their strengths and weaknesses. The work of the leader, in this area, is to give feedback and encourage disclosure. However, this should be done in concert with an individual to avoid emotional upset because each person is expected to reach self-actualization. When self-actualization is realized, then the open self expands.

In the hidden self, anything positive or negative is not revealed to the team members. These things can include information, feelings, views, experiences, fears, hidden agendas, manipulative intentions, and secrets. These things are dangerous if they are work-performance related. The leader in this area should push these things into the open self. As the open self enlarges, distractors like poor communication, mistrust, confusion, and misunderstanding are reduced. During self-disclosure, some of the blind and the hidden aspects could be in the subconscious self.

There are a variety of the unknown aspects that cloud the subconscious self. Some of the unknown factors are stated as an ability that is underestimated or untried through lack of opportunity, encouragement, confidence or training, a natural ability or aptitude that a person does not realize he possesses, a fear that a person does not know he has, or an attitude from childhood. These subconscious aspects can be discovered through open communication, observation by others, counselling or a self-discovery method. It is the work of

the leader to ensure that the discovered subconscious self is disclosed. The leader can provide opportunities to individuals to work on new activities by creating an enabling atmosphere that promotes self exposure, discovery and development of potentials that contribute to the achievement of the goals and objectives of the institution (Rogers n.d.).

In short, the Johari Window is a way of showing how much information one knows about oneself and how much others know about you. It also leads to discovering one's own unknown self. The relevance of the Johari Window to this study is that when the leader knows the strengths and weaknesses of a worker, he is in the position of knowing what action to take when appraising the worker. However, the Johari Window has advantages and disadvantages.

The Johari Window has several advantages. It is a way of gaining information about another person. In a work situation, one wants to predict the thoughts and actions of people one works with. This is a way of learning about how others think and feel. Once one person engages in disclosure, it is implied that another person will also disclose information. In a team, every member will end up disclosing information. This is a norm of reciprocity resulting in mutual understanding among the team members. The disclosure extends the trust in members' relationship and it helps all team members to understand one another more. Each member even feels much better about himself. The end result of the relaxed and conducive working atmosphere is the achievement of personal and institutional goals and objectives in a style that is entertained by all members of the institution.

Despite several advantages of the disclosure in the Johari Window, there are also disadvantages. One such disadvantage is that one person may not respond in favour of the disclosure. The disclosure does not always lead to favourable impressions. The other disadvantage is that one member of a team may gain power over the others because of the information that the individual possesses. It can be argued further that the disclosure can spoil the

relationships especially if it comes early in the relationship or when the disclosing members are not ready. This means that each member should be ready (Borchers 1999).

To recapitulate the discussion on appraisal systems, the traditional model, the human relations model and the human resources model are the earliest appraisal approaches whose objective is to improve the workers' performance. However, they are authoritative requiring no input and complaint from the workers. The Herzberg Two-Factor Theory relates only to the conditions under which workers are either satisfied or dissatisfied. It also lacks open channels of communication. The clinical supervision and the management by objectives involve workers all the time. In their use, there is joint planning and implementation, and overall performance enhancement. The Johari Window depicts self-disclosure. As people work in an institution, the open self-pane enlarges while the blind self; the hidden self and the subconscious self-panes fade or disappear. This happens as a result of the relaxed and conducive atmosphere under which work is done. Under this atmosphere, there is relaxed communication and team spirit. All these appraisal approaches are used for the purpose of achieving the goals and objectives of the institution and the individuals.

The next chapter explains the methods that were employed in undertaking the investigation. These include the population studied, and the construction, pretesting and administration of the research instruments used for data collection. This chapter explains how data were analysed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.0 Orientation

The research design and the method of carrying out the study are explained in detail. Since this investigation studied people and their activities, it captured leadership styles as perceived by the lecturers and leadership styles as practised in the institutions. The research design and methodology are explained in this chapter. The chapter further explains the population of the study and the research instruments. The procedures that were followed are described and the method of data analysis explained in detail.

4.1 Research Design

This study compared and contrasted leadership styles in two tertiary institutions in Lesotho. It used a descriptive approach - describing the conditions that existed, practices that prevailed, and beliefs and attitudes held by the lecturers in the institutions. The research was also qualitative in nature and supported by quantitative method. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used because they provide different perspectives and have different assumptions, and look at different things. The qualitative research is multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. It studies subjects in their natural setting, trying to interpret behaviours in terms of the meaning people bring to them. This method also elicit verbal, visual tactile, olfactory and gustatory data in the form of descriptive narratives like field notes, recording or other transcriptions from audio and videotapes and other written records, pictures, and films. The strength of the qualitative method is that it opens and generates new theories and recognizes phenomena ignored by previous researchers and literature. By all means, It attempts to avoid prejudgements (Denzin & Lincoln 1994:2). The quantitative method relies less

on interviews, observations, questionnaires, focus groups, subjective reports and case studies and is focused on numerical data and statistics. In analysing quantitative data, researchers choose from a specialized set of data analysis techniques. In this study, statistical data is used. It is manipulated, summarized and reduced so that it provides information necessary for answering the research questions and the research problem. Researchers also begin data analysis when all data is collected. The qualitative method helped to reveal conditions and practices while the quantitative assisted with quantified data. The investigation looked deep into events and situations capturing and revealing leadership styles used in the institutions (Wiersma 1986:12).

Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires elicited quantitative and qualitative information interwoven to determine practices. The quantitative questions consisted of closed questions or single statements while the qualitative questions were open-ended requiring free responses. A focus group interview was held for further exploration of leadership styles used in the two institutions. This interview provided a setting in which individuals were comfortable to disclose information. The data they gave also complemented that data collected through the questionnaires. Open-ended questions allowed the study to give a complete picture of the two institutions. The picture helped to portray in detail the complex patterns of leadership styles used (Wise, Nordberg & Rietz 1967:107 and Anderson 1993:242).

4.2 Population

Wiersma (1986:455) defines population as the totality of all members that possess a special set of one or more common characteristics that define it. The population of this study comprised lecturers and the leaders in management positions. It included top-level leaders who are directors, the middle level leaders who deputize for the directors, the lower level leaders who are heads of academic and teaching departments, and the lecturers. The population is also

homogenous because the subjects all hold teaching certificates. All are included in the study to find out their views on leadership styles used in the institutions under investigation.

The population of the two institutions is finite hence the total population was included. Cohen & Manion (1989:86) state that if the population of the study is specific and readily identified and, given sufficient resources to contact every member of the designated group, sampling decisions do not arise. The population was accessible and relatively easy to survey. Theoretically, a high level of accuracy in the result of the investigation was expected because the whole population was given a chance to respond to the research questions. As Best & Kahn (1993:19) indicate, studying the whole population helps to generalize and discover principles that have universal application.

The population at Lerotholi Polytechnic was eighty- two. There were three top-level leaders, three middle level leaders, and three heads of departments who hold authority of lower level leaders. The lecturers were seventy -three.



At the National Teacher Training College, the population was one hundred and fifteen. It comprised three top-level leaders, three middle level leaders, thirty-seven heads of departments and seventy- two lecturers. There were more departments at the National Teacher Training College than at the Lerotholi Polytechnic; hence the large difference in populations.

4.3 Research Instruments

The researcher constructed a questionnaire of which some parts were own-invention while other parts adopted the Blake and Mouton Management Grid which was explained in the literature review. Questionnaires were used to collect data from the respondents. These questionnaires are written lists of questions that are distributed to the respondents to fill out and return. Out of the 12 items on the Blake & Mouton Table of Responses, only 9 that are

relevant to educational institutions were adopted. The grid depended upon the two leadership dimensions called concern for production and concern for people. It identified the ideal leadership style as having a high concern for both production and people. The grid had eighty-one possible combinations of concern for production and people. However, Blake and Mouton identified five major styles that were: the impoverished, the sweatshop, the country club, the organization man, and the participative (Lussier 1993:218).

An interview schedule was also constructed. Open-ended questions, based on the research question and the statement of the problem, were written for the purpose of leading the discussion. The purpose of the focus group interview was to further exploration on leadership styles used in the institutions. The data captured complement that which was collected through questionnaires (Anderson 1993:242).

The research instruments were constructed based on the research questions. They solicited data on practices of leaders and lecturers who jointly work towards the achievement of the institutional and personal goals and objectives through leadership styles used.

4.3.1 The Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to collect data for this study because of the three advantages that it had. First, the responses from all respondents were gathered in a standardized way and were more objective than in other methods. Second, although a questionnaire might take long to design, it was quick in collecting data, and also it had the potential to collect data from a large population. A questionnaire translated the research objectives into specific questions and responses to those items that focused on the research questions. Closed questions elicited objective information such as gender, age and habits. The information was used to classify the respondents and explained the calibre of the population studied. Open-ended questions elicited

information on attitudes, beliefs and opinions. These questions did not have preconceived responses but respondents expressed themselves freely. The researcher designed a coding frame to classify responses (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:250-254).

The questionnaire (see Appendix B) comprised questions that solicited quantitative and qualitative data. Three headings were used in constructing the questionnaire. These were the biodata, which were basic items of information; the leadership styles under which there were sub-headings on - styles perceived by Blake & Mouton, meetings, management for achievement of goals and objectives, and general data. The biodata were quantitative and contributed to the investigation by providing characteristics and background of the population studied. Since this was a descriptive study, the biodata gave a profile of the characters in those institutions. The biodata again gave the intensions of the characters in relation to training and leadership. In particular, the data helped to discover which gender is predominant in tertiary institutions in Lesotho especially in managerial or leadership positions. The data on age revealed the age profile of the population in the institutions investigated. The profile of academic levels or achievement was made. The respondents were provided with the responses from which they ticked the appropriate ones. The responses from these types of questions were quantifiable. There were nine questions in all.

For the sub-heading on styles perceived by Blake & Mouton, respondents were led with guiding short explanations of practices in organizations. Then four alternative responses from which the respondents were to tick appropriately were provided. These responses were adopted from the original responses as "invented" by Blake and Mouton. However, only nine questions were adopted. The ticked responses were assessed based on the table of responses provided by Blake and Mouton. The ticked responses indicated a preferred leadership style.

From the table, a letter is selected for each situation indicated in the

questionnaire. The column headings - SA through SL - represent a particular leadership style. The number of circled items per column is added up. The highest score indicated the preferred leadership style. The more evenly distributed the numbers were between SA and SL, the more flexible the style was. A score of 1 or 0 in any column indicated a reluctance to use the style. The responses from these types of questions were quantifiable. The qualitative responses were obtained from follow-up questions to the ticked responses.

Originally, the Blake and Mouton Table of Responses had twelve items as indicated in figure 2. However, for the purpose of this research, only nine items were adopted. Items numbered 3, 6, and 8 were left out because they concerned themselves with factory material production rather than human relations. The table is shown below:



TABLE 1 : Blake and Mouton Table of Responses

	SA	SC	SP	SL
1	c	b	d	a
2	b	a	d	c
3	d	b	c	a
4	c	a	d	b
5	a	d	b	c
6	d	c	b	a
7	d	a	c	b
8	b	d	a	c
9	d	b	a	c
10	a	c	d	b
11	a	c	b	d
12	b	c	d	a

Source: Lussier (1993:229)

SA represents autocratic style SP represents participative style
 SC represents consultative style SL represents laissez-faire style

The data under the meetings, achievement of goals and objectives, and general data were solicited through open-ended questions. These again allowed the respondents freedom of expressing their views in relation to the questions asked. These questions brought out the character and nature of events in a report form. In general, the questionnaire contained a set of structured questions with responses to be ticked or with space for providing short responses. It also contained a personal data section in a closed-ended form followed by a specific matter of inquiry in an open-ended manner. The closed-ended questions unlocked a comprehensive understanding of facts while open-ended questions fully explored data. In particular, questionnaires had an advantage of eliciting information from a large population.

They were completed in the absence of the researcher and, therefore, guaranteed privacy, confidentiality and freedom of response, which, in turn, led to more true responses (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh 1990:431, Bell 1993:64 and Allison, Owen, Rothwell, Sullivan, Saunders & Rice 1996:26).

However, even though the questionnaire was used for data collection, it often fails to probe deep enough into feelings and opinions. Often the questionnaire is complemented with interviews, which dig deep into the information given by respondents (Borg & Gall 1989:446).

4.3.2 The Focus Group Interview

The interview guide was constructed based on the data collected through the questionnaire. The guide listed the questions to be asked in sequence and provided guidelines to the researcher on what to ask. The questions also elicited information to confirm earlier findings and help to establish the concurrent validity of the questionnaire data. Interviewees were asked to fill in the guide and then probes were made during the focus group interview. A focus group interview is a small group of people brought together to a central place for an intensive discussion with the researcher acting as a moderator to keep the focus of the discussion on various issues in line with the research area. The researcher uses probing techniques to solicit detailed information from the group. It also explores attitudes, feelings, and precise issues unknown to the researcher. The responses written helped the researcher to make probes and be on track. Also it helped to anticipate situations (Borg & Gall 1989:400 &451). Interviews are rich sources of data as they are a specialized form of communication between or among people. People are more easily engaged than when completing questionnaires. These interviews gave more data when probed and prompted. They did not only disclose what individual respondents considered as important but they also provided a situation in which the collaborative effort and interaction gave indepth information and insights into the leadership styles used in the two institutions under

investigation, therefore, providing more qualitative data that helped to assess leadership styles used in a critical manner. The interview was less formal and it encouraged the interviewees to provide various, relaxed views during the discussion. The data collected had meaning, values and interpretations bringing out the lecturers' own actions and those of others and hence, disclosing their particular version of leadership styles used (Anderson 1993:241-243 & Allison 1996:117).

The interview questions were unstructured so as to allow the researcher to ask other questions as the discussions continued. These questions encouraged the lecturers to be expansive in their responses. The researcher also had an opportunity to seek clarification on any point raised directly by the lecturers. The researcher was also able to pick up non-verbal cues and their meaning as the interviews continued.

The interview schedule was not pilot tested. The reason is that it was developed based on data collected through questionnaires. It was also because the researcher is an experienced interviewer. She was involved in two country studies that involved interviews.

The first study investigated teaching and learning strategies in Lesotho primary schools. A sample of ten schools was studied and the researcher studied one school for seven months. Five observations per class per subject were conducted. Since there were seven classes and five subjects, the total number of observations per school came to 175. Each of the seven teachers was interviewed at the end of the observation. Before undertaking the investigation, a special training workshop was held on the use of data collecting instruments. It was important to ensure uniformity in the approach of asking questions and recording answers. This resulted in data collectors being sensitive to record comprehensively (Chabane, Lefoka & Sebatane 1989:20 -22).

The second study was on comparing and contrasting teacher education systems of Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa, and Trinidad and Tobago.

The research was the responsibility of the Institute of Education of the National University of Lesotho operating in collaboration with the University of Sussex. The researcher was involved in the administration of questionnaires and focus group interviews. These two studies helped the researcher gain experience in interview techniques.

4.3.3 Evaluation and Pretesting of the Questionnaire

Two professionals evaluated the questionnaire before it was tested. One is a specialist in research methods. He taught a research methods course at the National University of Lesotho. The other is a specialist in educational management. He was employed as a management advisor at the National Teacher Training College. They both assessed the validity of the instrument. As Wise, Nordberg & Reitz (1967:102) suggest, a questionnaire needs validation that is a measure of accuracy of the instrument and its appropriateness to elicit true responses and give adequate information.



For pretesting reliability, five respondents from the National Teacher Training College completed the questionnaire. These five comprised subjects who had experience working in management positions of the College. The questionnaires were given to people to complete and were collected after a week. They were again given out to the same people after two weeks and collected a week later. As McGrath & Watson (1970:134) comment, pretesting of an instrument is helpful in discovering ambiguities that can be corrected to enhance data collection. Shipman (1981:91) maintains that pretested questionnaires check if questions asked are understandable and appropriate. Bell (1993:84) concurs that data collecting instruments should be tested to find the length of time subjects take to fill them in and so that any items that do not explore usable data are left out. McMillan & Schumacher (1993:249) also suggest that an instrument should be pretested by choosing a small sample of subjects. Pretested respondents should be given space to write comments on individual items and the questionnaire as a whole. This is done to find out if

items are clear. Likewise, Lietz & Keeves (1997:127) assert that a pretest provides an opportunity to detect and remove ambiguities, to ascertain the range of possible responses... and to ensure that the questions asked are yielding the information sought.

The returned pretested questionnaires did not need to be enhanced. The results were stable because they showed consistency. Errors of measurement were absent. The instrument was, therefore, reliable. It was also valid because it measured what it was expected to measure (Best & Kahn 1993:203). The validity and reliability of the instrument made the results of the data collected to have external validity. Therefore this questionnaire could be used in institutions of the same setting to the two studied.

4.4 Research Procedures

The research procedures are discussed under the administration of questionnaires and limitations encountered during the investigation.



4.4.1 Administration of Questionnaires

The researcher wrote letters to the directors of the two institutions soliciting permission to undertake the study. The researcher personally delivered the letters and gave a verbal explanation of the purpose of the study. Permission was granted. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, the researcher held a special meeting with one of the Assistant Directors and all questionnaires were left with him to administer. The completed questionnaires were returned to the Academic Affairs Office. At the National Teacher Training College, questionnaires were given to the three Assistant Directors to distribute to the lecturers in their respective divisions. Completed questionnaires were returned to the Registrar's Office. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires.

4.4.2 Administration of the Focus Group Interview

The researcher presented the study including its preliminary findings to a group of twenty-five lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic on 9 September 2002. The administrators selected these. This was done because not all the lecturers could be present at the presentation. The teaching timetable was tight and only those who were free could attend. However, the selected lecturers had completed the questionnaire and were selected across all the departments. They also had experience regarding the situation under study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:234). The presentation resulted in a discussion which equipped the researcher with more qualitative data. Each point raised prompted more information from the participants. After the discussion, ten lecturers were asked to complete the interview schedule. This was done for the purpose of having a record of the day's discussions.

At the National Teacher Training College, the presentation and the interviews were scheduled twice (26/08/02 and 02/09/02). However, they did not take place. They were cancelled when the researcher arrived at the College. The researcher, therefore, opted for a convenient method of collecting more qualitative data. The researcher gave out interview schedules to ten purposively selected lecturers to complete. A purposive sample is one that is selected by the researcher subjectively. In this study, these were individuals who were representative of the whole population because they were sampled from all departments of the institution. These schedules were collected after five days.

4.4.3 Limitations of the Study

Generally the return of questionnaires was slow and low after four months. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, it was 33% and at the National Teacher Training College it was 39%. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, a special meeting was called by one administrator with the help of two lecturers who showed special interest in the study. The lecturers were requested to fill in the questionnaires. Most were

completed. Some promised to complete them later. After two weeks, the return rose to sixty one percent (61%). At the National Teacher Training College, the lecturers in the Inservice Division were visiting the schools most of the time and helping the inservice teachers. When they were called to a meeting by their immediate supervisor, the researcher took advantage and requested those who had not completed the questionnaires to fill them in. These, plus the other returned questionnaires, improved the return rate to seventy percent (70%).

Problems occur because of non-response and as a result the sample that is actually achieved becomes deficient compared to what was intended. Actually, in this investigation, a hundred percent (100%) return was expected as the whole population was taken. However, less was achieved. Nevertheless, more than half of the population had responded. As Bell (1993:83) suggests, 50% can be regarded as representative of the whole population. In the two institutions, more than 50% of the whole population had responded to the questionnaire as everyone was given chance to participate.



Despite the high percentage (61% at Lerotholi Polytechnic and 70% at the National Teacher Training College) in the return of the questionnaires, data collected were not sufficient and did not fully answer the research questions. The researcher had to construct another questionnaire to collect more data to complement the previous one. The researcher also planned to present the study to the lecturers in the two institutions but only succeeded in on one. The researcher arranged for the presentations in the two institutions. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, the Director agreed and arrangements were made for the researcher to hold the interview. The deputy Director for academic affairs arranged and chaired the discussions. At the National Teacher Training College, the Deputy Director refused, saying that outsiders are not allowed to present research work at the college

At Lerotholi Polytechnic, the study was presented and the lecturers contributed

more data during the discussions. Ten of the lecturers who volunteered completed the second questionnaire and were probed and prompted on the responses they gave. But at the National Teacher Training College the researcher was denied the chance to present the study and therefore she did not collect data through large group discussions. However, the researcher gave out ten questionnaires to ten volunteer lecturers to fill. The drawback was that the researcher was not able to probe and prompt the written responses. For the second questionnaire, see Appendix C.

4.4.4 Data Analysis

The researcher analysed the data with the help of a specialist in data analysis.

The analyst was well known to the researcher as they participated together in a comparative research sponsored and led by the Institute of Education of the University of Sussex. The study was comparing and contrasting teacher education systems of Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa, as well as Trinidad and Tobago. He analysed the quantitative data. The qualitative data were analysed by the researcher.



Data analysis is a process of systematically searching and arranging data accumulated during fieldwork. The analysis synthesizes data and searches for patterns. Then the researcher discovers important issues to be learnt and presented to other people (Bodgan & Biklen 1992:153). Page & Thomas (1977) explain data processing as the condensation of scores or data into tabular form by various systematizing methods, the choice of which will depend on sample size, the number of available variables, and the processing facilities available. In the case of this study, the analyst used a computer to analyse data.

It may seem that data analysis starts at the end of data collection but it continues as data are collected. Setoi (1996:91) cites various authors who describe how data analysis develops. He refers to Glesne & Perskin (1992) who state that if data analysis is done simultaneously with data collection, the

study is easily shaped and processed as it continues. As the questionnaires came in, the researcher scanned through them and spotted the emerging issues. The questionnaires were then handed over to the analyst to form tables. After some time, the researcher consulted with the analyst to find out emerging findings.

From the questionnaire, each question was written in paraphrased form. Then a table was formed through data collected under it and was analysed. Each table was discussed bringing prominent features to the fore and relating them to the appropriate research questions and the reviewed literature. Various responses on each open-ended question were written. Similar responses were grouped together under one summarizing category. The tables were formed and interpreted.

Other qualitative data captured from the focus group interview complemented data collected through questionnaires. These data were on how meetings were organized and run; how the organizational structure influenced leadership styles; and general comments on how the institutions were run. Data collected under each question of the focus group interview were analysed under the corresponding question from the questionnaire. This was done to complement data already captured under the questionnaire but in a more qualitative form.

The following chapter focuses on data analysis. The data were captured through questionnaires and focus group interviews. The findings are related to the research problem, research questions, and the reviewed literature. The findings of the two institutions are compared and contrasted.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

5.0 Orientation

This chapter explains the method used in analysing the data. Tables and descriptions are the major ways of bringing the collected data together. These are interpreted and discussed linking them to the reviewed literature in order to come up with findings that answer the research problem and questions.

5.1 Explanation of Method Used

Data analysis involves a description and a statistical reflection of the information collected. The statistical information is written in a tabular form reflecting frequencies and proportions. The description form synthesizes the information describing what has been found out. The emerging issues from both types of analysed data are related to the research problem and question, and literature. Moreover, both types of analysis are interwoven (Wiersma 1986:248). According to McMillan & Schumacher (1993:479 & 486) quantitative data analysis is an inductive process putting data into categories. The researcher was assisted by a computer analyst to analyse quantitative and qualitative data.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to process the data. SPSS is a software package used to prepare and execute computerized data analysis. It was used in this research to enable the investigator to code variables, to deal with missing

values, to sample and select cases, and to effect transformation (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:503). In particular, in this study all the questionnaires were coded and assigned specific numbers for the purpose of identification during data screening. Then they were entered into SPSS. A frequency count of all the variables was made. A cross-tabulation of certain variables was also done. In qualitative analysis, the researcher integrated the qualitative method and the quantitative method organizing, analysing and interpreting data. Clustering topics did this. Then constant comparing and contrasting were done. As the researcher analysed data, issues emerged and were explained, synthesized and interpreted linking them to the research problem, the research question and literature (Setoi 1996:89).

The second questionnaire was used to further explore information on leadership styles. It was intertwined with the first questionnaire analysis. This was done by putting the relevant interview question under an appropriate table and analysing the question. In this way, it was easy to have the complementing data at the right place.

Both positive and negative findings were shown as the data were analysed. This was done for the purpose of finding out leadership styles used in the two institutions under investigation (Borg 1987:74). Qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis were intertwined. The analysis was structured into the following parts: the return of questionnaires, and the preferred leadership styles that mainly formed the basic quantitative analysis interwoven with qualitative analysis. The qualitative analysis focused on why it was important that lecturers should be trained in educational management, the styles used in holding meetings, the styles for achievement of goals and objectives, and the general data.

The data were analysed and summarized to give information needed to answer research questions and respond to the statement of the problem. It was also analysed to examine relationships between properties and dispositions of the two institutions so as to develop the pattern of relation before making inferences (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:129).

5.2 Analyses and Interpretation of Data

The tables, the questions, their interpretations and analysis follow:

Table 2: Return of Questionnaires

CATEGORY OF RESPONDENTS	No. Sent out		No. Returned		% Returned	
	LP	NTTC	LP	NTTC	LP	NTTC
Top level managers	3	3	3 (6.3%)	2 (2.5%)	100	67
Middle level managers	3	3	2 (4.2%)	2 (2.5%)	67	67
Lower level managers	3	37	1 (2.1%)	19 (23.8%)	34	51
Lecturers	70	72	42 (87.5%)	57 (71.3%)	60	79
TOTAL	79	115	48 (100%)	80 (100%)	61	70

The above table reflects the return of questionnaires from all respondents at Lerotholi Polytechnic and the National Teacher Training College. The return is shown in numbers and percentages. The percentages are calculated on the total number of questionnaires sent out. This means that although the total number sent out for the top-level leaders is three for the National Teacher Training College, the number returned is two. But the two only forms 2.5% of the total population at the National Teacher Training College. However, 67% of top-level leaders questionnaires sent out were returned. Therefore the comparison is not made based on the classified categories but on the total returned questionnaires from each institution.

Explaining how to draw a sample, Bell (1993:83) points out that efforts should be made to select as representative a sample as possible. If 50% of the population is sampled, then generalizations can be made from the findings. In this study, the total number of questionnaires sent out was (79) (100%) and (115) (100%) for Lerotholi Polytechnic and the National Teacher Training College respectively. The return of questionnaires was (61%) and (70%) respectively. The investigation was intended to capture data from all the lecturers in the two institutions, but the return was lower than expected. However, the study makes generalizations on the findings since the return from each institution is more than 50% of the total population of the lecturers.

The lecturers from each institution form a homogeneous group. They are homogeneous because they hold academic and professional certificates. They are trained in the subjects they teach. It is concluded, then, that the data given by those lecturers is constructive and therefore the researcher drew conclusions and made recommendations based on the data.

Table 3: Training in Educational Management

Training in educational management						Intention to train						Necessity for training					
LP			NTTC			LP			NTTC			LP			NTTC		
YES	NO	NR	YES	NO	NR	YES	NO	NR	YES	NO	NR	YES	NO	NR	YES	NO	NR
59	31	58	25	48	27	25	12	63	36	17	47	29	2	69	59	1	40

The numbers in Table 3 are in percentages. The table reflects whether or not further training is required in the management area. It reveals that at Lerotholi Polytechnic 11% of the lecturers are trained in educational management while 31% have no training. Those who have an intention to train in educational management are 25% while 12% have no intention to train. However, 29% indicate that this training is necessary while 2% feel that it is unnecessary. Higher percentages are reflected at the National Teacher Training College. A Total of 25% of the lecturers are trained in educational management while 48% are not trained. But 36% intend to train while 17% find training unimportant. A total of 59% see training in educational management crucial while 1% think is not necessary. However, there seem to be a high no response from the lecturers who did not comment on educational management. This is further indication that skills in educational management are not taken seriously in leading the institutions under investigation.

The significance of Table 3 is that although the lecturers are fitted well in the institutions, there are some who feel that they need training in educational management. They maintain that knowledge in this area will make them better understand what their leaders say and do. Those trained in educational management, even though they do not hold leadership positions; indicate that since they have learned leadership theories, it becomes easy to observe whether or not leadership styles are appropriately used. They also indicate that if they are assigned managerial or leadership duties, they can perform them well. They can apply the learned leadership styles. At times, situations may demand the leader to be away from the

institution and therefore to appoint one lecturer to act on his behalf. If the lecturer appointed is trained in educational management, he will know the style to employ for each situation that arises.

From the above interpretation, there is a difference in the two institutions. At Lerotholi Polytechnic 25% of the lecturers show the intention to be trained in educational management while at the National Teacher Training College the percentage of lecturers who want to be trained in educational management stands at 36%. Also 25% of lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic and 59% of the lecturers at the National Teacher Training College indicate that knowledge of educational management is useful for those who work in tertiary institutions in Lesotho. All the lecturers who indicate an intention to train and all those who point out that knowledge of educational management is important think that it should form a component of their professional training. Literature reveals that knowledge of management theories equips people with skills to manage themselves and others. Stoner & Freeman (1987:42&464) give two examples showing the necessity of the knowledge of management. First, They show that there are functions of management that reveal that there are management activities that have to be fulfilled by the leader in an organization. Second, they postulate that if a leader is acquainted with the scientific theory of management as perceived by Henri Fayol, then such a leader will, probably, use the democratic (employee-centred) style effectively. Likewise, if employees know the functions of management and leader's role, then they will work harmoniously with such a leader. The emerging issue from Table 3 is that most lecturers find it important to train in educational management. This responds the concern of the study in a way that the lecturer appointed to act on behalf of the leader is motivated to improve his performance. This also answers the research question that the leaders in the two institutions delegate responsibility to some lecturers. In the acting position, the lecturers work to achieve the goals and objectives of the institutions.

TABLE 4: BLAKE AND MOUTON TABLE OF RESPONSES – PREFERENCES OF THE LEADERSHIP STYLES IN THE INSTITUTIONS.

Question	SA		SC		SP		SL		No responses	
	NTTC	LP	NTTC	LP	NTTC	LP	NTTC	LP	NTTC	LP
2	C - 27	C - 5	B - 26	B - 25	D-12	D-9	A - 7	A - 4	8	5
3	B - 19	B - 12	A - 21	A - 11	D - 33	D-15	C-2	C-5	5	5
4	C-13	C-13	A- 58	A- 24	D - 1	D - 1	B - 3	B - 6	4	4
5	A - 4	A- 2	D- 3	D- 4	B-68	B-35	C-3	C-4	2	3
6	D-1	D-2	A-34	A-29	C-41	C-10	B-4	B-4	0	3
7	D-3	D-6	C-6	C-6	A-58	A-18	C-8	C-13	5	5
8	A-3	A-5	C-10	C-5	C-51	D-26	B-9	B-9	7	3
9	A-18	A-19	C-11	C-14	B-44	B-11	D-1	D-1	6	3
10	B-3	B-7	C-10	C-12	D-48	A-20	A-14	A-2	5	7
TOTAL	91	71	179	130	356	145	51	48	42	38

Table 4 indicates the results scored through the grid. It shows the collective preferences of the leadership styles that are used in the two tertiary institutions. As was explained previously, the columns heading - SA through SL represent a particular leadership style. SA represents autocratic style, SC Consultative, SP Participative, and SL laissez-faire. The number of circled items per column and the highest total indicates the preferred leadership style and the lowest the less preferred style.

The interpretation of the table was done in numbers and not in percentages. The highest number indicated the preferred style while the lowest number showed

reluctance in the use of the style. The interpretations comparing and contrasting the institutions follow and it is from the most preferred to the least preferred style:

(a) The 356 respondents from the National Teacher Training College and the 145 respondents from Lerotholi Polytechnic reflected that the most preferred style is the participative (SP).

(b) The 179 respondents from the National Teacher Training College and the 130 respondents from Lerotholi Polytechnic selected the consultative (SC) leadership style as the second preferred.

(c) The third preferred style is the autocratic (SA) leadership style. From the National Teacher Training College the 91 respondents and the 71 from Lerotholi Polytechnic have indicated this preference.

(d) The least preferred style is the laissez-faire (SL). Respondents at the National Teacher Training College were 51 and at Lerotholi Polytechnic were 48.



The style that most respondents preferred was the participative and the second most preferred style was the consultative. Both these styles fall under the umbrella of the democratic leadership style. As literature maintains, the democratic style is the most preferred and popular leadership style. It is a style that calls for people's contributions. The participative leadership style includes actions that give a chance to other people to make an input in decisions that affect them. In using this style, the leader just facilitates input and leads people towards achievement of set objectives and goals.

One outstanding reflection from Table 3 is the high rate of non-responses to the training, intention to train, and necessity to train. This suggests that most lecturers in the two institutions are less concerned with how leadership and management are practised for the purpose of achieving goals and objectives. Also, this may be an indication of low morale of lecturers that results in not caring about what happens in

their institutions.

Responses captured through open-ended questions revealed that lecturers from both institutions wanted to be informed about events taking place in their institutions. Being informed, they claim, would indicate that leaders cared about and trusted them. It would also reflect that leaders utilized their knowledge and skills, and moreover acknowledged that the lecturers had expertise. Their ideas, efforts and abilities are used in the best interest of the institutions. Comments from respondents also suggested that in the case of a job not well done, leaders should call the concerned lecturer into discussion, solve the problem by allowing him to raise his opinions and suggestions leading to the solution. On the one hand, the work, they supposed, might have been unclear and needed to be clarified and broken down into small tasks, which the concerned lecturer would easily understand and perform. On the other hand, the lecturer might have not been aware that his performance was declining. After discussions he would be back to expected performance. In general, respondents agreed that if leaders involved lecturers in matters that affected them and their institutions, there would be smooth running of the institutions. The lecturers pointed out that the participative leadership style encourages a leader to take the middle position. As Hoy & Miskel (1987) maintain, the leader has room for suggestions but he abides by rules and regulations that run the institution. Although the respondents from both institutions rate participative leadership style high, they might not be aware of the unfavourable conditions that go with it. As was indicated by Harding (1987:77), lecturers might expect to be involved in everything happening in their institutions forgetting that this might be time-consuming. Also, they overlooked the fact that the leader reserves the right to take decisions.

In support of the consultative leadership style, responses to the open-ended questions from both institutions were similar. In both cases, lecturers were consulted and as a result direct control gradually diminished. This made lecturers feel that their leaders trusted them to do the work and to make decisions. Leaders and lecturers came together to discuss issues and delegated duties. Lecturers also freely took the initiative to consult the leaders because of this practice. It became a two-way communication that resulted in fewer conflicts. All knew one another better to decide on appropriate placement when tasks were allocated. It also became easy to identify training needs and this led to the achievement of organizational and personal goals and objectives.

As Mussazi (1982:11) explains, the authority relationship in a school, which is an organization, the leader possesses the legitimate authority to assign tasks to teachers and heads of departments. These teachers and heads of departments are obliged by their contracts to comply with one another. Apart from being obligated, both delegation and genuine teamwork are practised in order to achieve positive results together. However, without participative, consultative practices and coordination, work might not be done smoothly. The leader has to take the middle position and lead lecturers towards the achievement of results. This he does through maintaining good relationships among those involved. As Blake & Mouton, cited by Allais (1995:294), observe, this is democracy because the job is automatically well done if interpersonal relationships are good.

Respondents from both institutions chose the autocratic leadership style as the third

preferred style. Lecturers asserted that close supervision was the most required strategy for leading people. If a leader did not keep on directing and overseeing closely, things might go wrong. A leader must keep an eye on each step taken by lecturers if he wants to succeed in leadership. Respondents also pointed out that lecturers continued with mistakes if the autocratic style of leadership was not used. They, therefore, suggested strict control in running the institutions.

Respondents quoted examples that reflected strict actions. One was that when there was a conflict between two lecturers, the leader should intervene by identifying the problem and making the conflicting parties aware that problems disturb team spirit in a work situation. The leader should discuss the problem with them; find a solution and a way forward. The leader should closely supervise the two in settling down and implementing the recommendations. The other action was that a leader should come in between in an autocratic manner but without taking sides. Conflicting lecturers should be forced to commit themselves to working cooperatively. This makes the autocratic leadership style advantageous.

However, there were some observations made by respondents that show that they were aware of the harshness of the autocratic leadership style. In particular, the respondents from the National Teacher Training College indicated that there was always the first time in doing things. They suggested that if the work is not done to the expected standard, shortcomings should be pointed out, and help and guidance given. Another alternative would be to assess needs and then offer relevant training to the particular lecturer. This would make lecturers motivated and confident. If there was improvement, praise and encouragement should be given. Likewise, respondents from Leretholi Polytechnic wrote that even if the autocratic leadership style was used, lecturers' ideas should be solicited; then they would appreciate that

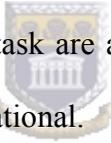
their contributions were valued.

The message conveyed by data from the lecturers from the two institutions is clear. They are aware of how an autocratic leader operates. The analysis interprets that the autocratic leader is absolute and dictatorial by nature. He is also authoritarian as he sees his influence as an important part of the job. He makes lecturers submissive through formal authority control. He is the boss and everybody must obey him without asking him any questions. As Grossman & Ross (1991:84, 294) observe, this leader expects compliance and obedience from lecturers, seeing his own influence as an important part of his leadership.

Commenting on the organizational management of the National Teacher Training College, the MUSTER Report (2001: vii) reveals that it is weak on a number of issues. These issues are that lecturers were not receiving the academic and administrative support that would raise their capacity to implement programmes effectively. It showed that departments and individual lecturers work in isolation. This might not be happening in the Primary Division only but in other divisions of the College. However, data have proven the opposite at Lerotholi Polytechnic.

The Multisite Teacher Education Research (MUSTER) project was a collective effort of researchers who investigated primary teacher education in Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Trinidad and Tobago, and South Africa. The study was the initiative of the Institute of Education at the University of Sussex in the United Kingdom and the British Department of International Development sponsored it. In particular, in Lesotho, the research was done with the purpose of understanding various aspects of

teacher education with special focus on primary teacher education offered only at the National Teacher Training College. First, it studied the organizational structure of the College. Second, it studied the entry qualifications of new trainees. Third, it studied the curriculum used. Fourth, it focused on the impact of training, and fifth, it studied the cost effectiveness of the programmes offered (MUSTER Report 2001:vi &viii).

As Musaazi (1982:53) points out, there are some characteristics that should be identified before leadership is allocated to any person for any situation. A group determines the type of leader, and both the group and the situation determine the style of leadership to be employed. For the group, characteristics such as homogeneity, stability, intimacy, size, and control are considered. If situations, climate and relationship in a group, trust between the leader and the lecturers, time lines, limitations, and the nature of the task are analysed, then the leader is appointed and how leading is done will be situational.  Before choosing leaders for the National Teacher Training College, those empowered to do that, should have considered the characteristics described by Musaazi.

In the motivation of the study, the researcher indicated that the new director of the National Teacher Training College explained his leadership style as the middle-of-the-road leadership style but based on participative democracy. He indicated that he operated through consultation and consensus - applying pressure when the need arose. Lecturers realized their dependence on one another because of his explanation. For them, this was the director they needed. But, later, they thought he was authoritative. He might have been like that because the situation called for his authority. It might

have been difficult to control the situation democratically. The lecturers too, might have been reluctant to change their way of doing things. Then, this situation might have influenced the director to exercise strict control - hence being described as authoritative.

The last preferred leadership style in both institutions is the laissez-faire style. The Blake and Mouton Leadership Model shows that laissez-faire leaders are impoverished. They make minimum effort to get the required work done. This leadership style is appropriate to sustain organizational membership (Trewatha & Newport 1982:397). Although it is taken to be ineffective, the laissez-faire leadership style may be used positively in a situation where lecturers are responsible and can work without supervision. When the lecturers from both institutions further explain their preference of the laissez-faire style of leadership, they gave similar responses that they were responsible adults who should take it upon themselves to do work allocated to them effectively and efficiently. They showed that they were accountable for the results of their work whether that work was done individually or collectively. They also indicated that when they were left alone to do work, they grew professionally and academically because that situation encouraged their own initiative. They claimed that if clear explanations and guidelines were given, and targets set, it was easy to do any job. They further indicated that it was the newly employed lecturers who needed guidance and a lot of support. This was because good performance results from clarity and full understanding of the job. They further showed that if people get clear explanations and instructions, they are able to cope with any given responsibility.

To encourage sustainable performance, the lecturers recommended refresher courses, on-the-job-training, and an induction programme to the institutions. In particular, lecturers from the National Teacher Training College suggested that their institution be managed by objectives as this sustains good performance. In this way, the laissez-faire leadership style would work. However, they pointed out that regular progress reports should be made or written as a way of supervising progress.

The emerging issue from the analysis of the data on laissez-faire leadership style is that the leader takes minimum authority. He leaves maximum authority to the lecturers. They must determine goals, make decisions, and resolve problems on their own. The lecturers suggest that the laissez-faire leadership style can work better if it coupled with styles the participative, the consultative and the autocratic styles. After analysing the preferred leadership styles, the study focused on those leadership styles which leaders commonly use when holding formal staff meetings.

5.3 Leading meetings in the institutions

Seekings (1987:15) suggests that the leader should find time for planning and organizing a meeting. Foremost, the leader should decide whether or not the meeting. If it necessary, it should have an agenda which includes the title, date, time, venue, items for discussion, and any other business if necessary. Often some leaders decide to hold a meeting before they resolve how time should be spent. This should not happen. Planning a meeting should be coupled with time allocation on each item. Objectives of the meeting should be specified at the beginning of the meeting. Barker (1997:9) points out that sixty percent of the leaders' time is spent in meetings; hence they (leaders) have the responsibility to run meetings effectively and efficiently.

Barker further shows that meetings have two sides – they can be inciting, energizing and fun; they can also be dispiriting, demotivating and uninteresting depending on the style that the chairperson uses to lead the meetings.

Everard & Morris (1985) concur with Seekings that meetings are an important aspect of life in an institution. Meetings reveal the leadership styles that are used in an institution. In handling such meetings, the leader calls for input, allows the participants to discuss, influence output, and take actions on resolutions agreed upon.

The following table shows analysis of data revealing the leadership styles used in the meetings held in the two institutions under investigation. First, the table reflecting quantitative data is presented and interpreted. The interpretation is interwoven with data collected through open-ended questions. Second, the interview questions are analysed and intertwined with questionnaire data. The analysed data are then related to the research problem, the research questions, and the literature review.

Table 5: Styles used in Meetings

RESPONSES	LP		NTTC	
	NO	%	NO	%
5.1 Planning a meeting	-	-	-	-
a)Leader considers meeting alone	3	4	20	25
b)Leader plans agenda alone	26	6	41	51
c)Lecturers contribute items	9	19	7	9
d)Leader allocates time for items	0	0	0	0
5.2 Reaching decisions	-	-	-	-
a)Decisions reached by consensus	15	31	25	31
b)Decisions made by individuals	8	17	11	14
c)Decisions reached by majority vote	10	21	10	13
d)Decisions are compromised	5	10	23	29
5.3 Handling decisions	-	-	-	-
a)Lecturers' ideas are taken	18	38	31	39
b)Contributions used	9	19	18	23
c)Lecturers convinced in decisions	1	2	7	9
d)Leader's decision is final	12	25	14	18

The sub-table 5.1 reveals that the leaders at the National Teacher Training College plan meetings on their own. This is reflected by 51% of the lecturers. They point out that they need to contribute items, as there are some issues that concern them that never appear on the agenda. One lecturer wrote: "I do not remember being involved in

the actual planning. The lecturers are never asked to contribute items.” Another lecturer further noted that he did not know whether or not all members of the senior management were even involved in drawing up the agenda. He was of the opinion that the Director planned it alone since most of the meetings he held were reporting of issues rather than discussing them.

It is, however, a small percentage (9%) of the lecturers at the National Teacher Training College assert that they are asked to contribute items for the agenda. One lecturer stated that the leader talked to him about the items of the agenda and he, therefore, had a chance to suggest some items for the meeting. As Stoner & Freeman (1987:300) explain, the leader may have used his formal authority to manipulate the lecturer to contribute items. The leader may have wanted the lecturer to support a lobbied decision.



The National Teacher Training College lecturers also indicated that the meetings are scheduled in the College calendar. The dates of the meetings are shown. At times, special or emergency meetings are called. These do not appear in the calendar.

Regarding the planning of meetings at Lerotholi Polytechnic, only 6% of the lecturers claim that the leaders plan the agenda on their own. This is a lower percentage than the one at the National Teacher Training College. This difference is clarified by the 19% of the lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic who pointed out that they sometimes have a chance to contribute items for the agenda. They explain that often the agenda planned by the leader is circulated among the lecturers before the meeting. The

lecturers discuss the agenda in various sections. The lecturers further indicate that their leader encourages them to ask for a meeting if they feel there is need for it. This implies that they contribute items for such a meeting.

There are issues that arise from the analysis of the data on planning of the meetings. First, the lecturers from both institutions are never directly asked to take part in the planning of the agenda for any meeting. As Seekings (1987:15) explains, the lecturers may be asked to contribute items for the agenda if necessary. The leaders from Lerotholi Polytechnic are aware that the lecturers aspire to contribute items as they ask them to initiate meetings giving them an opportunity to contribute their own items. The leaders at the National Teacher Training College never give the lecturers such an opportunity.



Second, at times in both institutions the agendas for the meetings are circulated prior to the meeting. The lecturers are not asked to contribute items but at least they can discuss the items on their own before the meeting. However, the lecturers from the National Teacher Training College often see the agenda for the first time in the meeting. Circulating the agenda is keeping the lecturers informed. It is also providing them with time to read and think about what they will contribute in the meeting . It appears that at Lerotholi Polytechnic, on the other hand, there is consultation and participation as far as the planning of meetings is concerned. But at the National Teacher Training College, the lecturers are just informed that there will be a meeting. The leader always prescribes the agenda for the meeting. This is an autocratic leadership style.

The percentages of the lecturers from both institutions are prominent on two issues – reaching decisions by consensus and majority vote. Consensus and majority rule is not a good way of deciding. This is reflected in 5.2. Barker (1997:70-71) points out some weaknesses in these. He acknowledges Irving Janis's attribute that poor decisions are a result of groupthink. He explains groupthink as “the psychological drive for consensus at any cost that suppresses dissent and appraisal of the alternatives in cohesion decision-making groups.” He also points out that participants in a meeting have a social belonging and feel that if one does not agree with the group, then he deviates from its norms and this results in a poor decision. He mentions that there are four disadvantages of consensus. First, the group discusses a few alternatives. Second, the decision favoured by the majority is not thoroughly examined for hidden risks. Third, when there is an expert opinion, it is often ignored. Fourth, even when the expert opinion is debated, the points that the majority does not support are purposely ignored.



The emerging issue from reaching decisions by consensus or majority vote becomes pseudo-democracy. This is because most of the points coming up from the debated concerns are not critically looked at.

At Lerotholi Polytechnic, (17%) of the lecturers and at the National Teacher Training College, (14%) wrote that certain individuals force decisions. This is not good. Barker (1997:62) confirms that a few strong personalities can dominate the meeting while other participants remain helpless. He maintains that the leader should not allow this but rather relax every participant by encouraging him to contribute ideas and ensuring him that his contribution is valued. As individuals contribute, their contributions should be distinguished from them as persons. The leader should reinforce useful contributions. All these can control the dominant participants. However, the leader

should summarize the contributions made by the group in a way that every participant feels his idea is considered.

The highest percentages, as shown in 5.3, at Lerotholi Polytechnic (38%) and at the National Teacher Training College (39%) reflect that the ideas of the lecturers are considered and decisions are based on them. This brings us back to the idea of voting and reaching decisions by consensus. It can be noted that since lower percentages at Lerotholi Polytechnic (19%) and at the National Teacher Training College (23%) have reflected this, it seems the leaders in the two institutions at times counteract groupthink. They may be doing this by encouraging diverse opinions systematically and pursuing disagreements in an orderly manner. They do this to the extent that all ideas raised in a meeting are considered and decision made based on them (Barker 1997:71).



There are contrasting issues emerging from the process of running meetings in the two institutions under investigation. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, the leaders invite contributions from the lecturers and in most cases reasonable and appropriate contributions are considered for decision-making. Often at the college meetings do not involve discussions. They are for informing staff what management has done or would do. The lecturers argue that decisions are always based on the wish of the senior management. It is only in rare cases that the lecturers' ideas are considered.

At Lerotholi Polytechnic participative democracy is used. The leaders give lecturers a chance to make an input in decision-making. They trust that lecturers can make

sound and profitable contributions for the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. It seems the leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic tend to have good human relationships with the lecturers. They also tend to consider lecturers' abilities, knowledge and skills and utilize them for the achievement of organizational goals and objectives.

At the National Teacher Training College leaders use the dictatorship leadership style. They use their authority to drive discussions towards their preconceived decisions. Even when lecturers contribute towards a decision, leaders ignore their input without caring much about the human feelings and reactions. They are also persuasive in the sense that they drive the discussions towards their goal without realizing that they deprive staff of self-confidence and initiative.



Both institutions lecturers reflect that they are concerned about what is going on around them and they want to contribute to issues that affect their lives in the institutions. Even if they come to meetings without prior knowledge of what is going to be discussed, they still feel bound to make contributions. This indicates that they prefer the participative leadership style.

The most important task of a leader in a meeting is to come up with a decision in a participative leadership style that shows concern for participants and production. The leadership style in a meeting is reflected by the way a chairperson directs the decision. Most of the time chairpersons are criticized for being autocratic and failing to control meetings. They are advised to be strict right from the beginning of the meeting -

especially in a newly formed group. Procedural control should be followed. The chairperson should explore ideas, suggestions, and future trends concurrently. When a suggestion challenges an argument, some participants take a positive side while others take a negative side. This calls for a chairperson to direct discussions carefully until an agreement is reached. A leader, who does this, shows concern for people and production and is likely to achieve organizational goals and objectives. In most meetings, therefore, a participative-democratic style works best because participants work best if they own the task to be performed and are empowered to act (Everard & Morris 1985:64-65 and Barker 1997:51).

Table 6: Presences of the Structure (Hierarchy) and Responsibility.

	LP 				NTTC			
	Presence of structure		Responsibility		Presence of structure		Responsibility	
Response	No	%	No	%	No	%	NO	%
Yes	36	75	37	77	67	84	49	61
No	7	15	7	15	11	14	26	33
NR	5	10	4	8	2	3	5	6

Table 6 reveals whether or not the institutions under investigation have structures known to the lecturers and that the lecturers know to whom they are responsible. The significance of the table is whether or not these lecturers know that the organizational

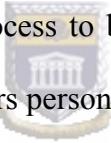
structure reflects the line of authority. While it is a substantive percentage at Lerotholi Polytechnic (75%) and at the National Teacher Training College (54%) that specified knowledge about organizational structures. There was also low percentage (15%) and (14%) respectively which indicated lack of this knowledge. It is noted that an institution has an activity to perform. Each individual in an institution performs activities that are coordinated for the purpose of achieving institutional goals and objectives. This signifies that an organization should have the structure that reflects how work is coordinated to achieve goals and objectives (Trewatha & Newport 1982:188 and Hall 1991:30-32).

It seems that most lecturers in the two institutions are aware of the structure and its purpose. They indicated that it helped in improving performance and achieving institutional goals and objectives. It indicated who is responsible to whom. Work was also allocated according to subject speciality. One respondent from Lerotholi Polytechnic even indicated that for achievement of some goals, the leaders gave special tasks to lecturers. He explained that heads of departments, in consultation with the management team allocate special work to lecturers and supervision is done. Respondents from the National Teacher Training College specifically indicated that there were divisions formed for the purpose of managing the institution effectively and efficiently. These are the primary division, secondary division and in-service division. There are also subject departments formed for each division. These departments have leaders to whom lecturers are responsible. There are committees that form the official structure. Most lecturers are members of these committees. All these sub-structures reflect a clear line of responsibility.

Those who were not aware of the structure did not know the normative order, the rank of authority, and the communication systems used in the institutions. This further showed that the structure, through coordinated efforts, is supposed to achieve personal and organizational goals and objectives. They might not even be aware of how the

work was divided. Maybe they did not care about the formal line of authority that maintained a stable formal relationship. It might be assumed that they did not care to whom they were responsible (Trewatha & Newport 1982:212-215 and Hall 1991:30-31).

The emerging issue here is that in the two institutions some lecturers are not aware of how parts of these institutions are arranged. They may be interpreted as "sleeping passengers" who do not care about the degree of complexity, formalization and centralization in the institutions (Hall 1991:51). On the other hand, other lecturers are aware of the chain of command existing in their institutions.

Commenting on the institutional structure, the lecturers from both institutions gave a general complaint that the structures of the two institutions are bureaucratic and cumbersome. There is a long process to be followed before decisions are reached. The structures even deny the leaders  personal contact with departments and individual lecturers, most of the time, except when they are in a meeting. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, the research revealed that the top leader did not visit sections to find out some issues himself. He depended much on deputies in communicating with staff. The lecturers found this practice demoralizing. One lecturer pointed out that the structure encourages too much delegation. This had little positive influence because lecturers felt out of contact with the leaders.

At the National Teacher Training College, there was a general feeling that those at the bottom of the structure had little or no say at all in the running of the institution. They took directives from above. Making contributions at meetings did not benefit them because they were undermined. They claimed that some leaders misused the power

vested in them. They gave instructions in an authoritative manner - making one to feel inferior and powerless. The leaders expected the lecturers to be submissive to whatever was said to them. One lecturer indicated that it looked like some leaders lacked skills of leading other people positively. They only knew that they were in authority and must be obeyed.

Being under government administration, the institutions get orders from government authorities through the Ministry of Education. This is a formal system of authority that is supposed to gear the Ministry and departments towards achievement of their goals and objectives. However, as the bureaucracy is cumbersome, it tends to deny the leaders a chance to use leadership styles that are people-centred. Hence, the lecturers feel that the organizational structures seem to influence leaders to be autocratic and authoritative. In both institutions, lecturers complain that the organizational structures have distanced their leaders from them. The line of authority tends to separate the lecturers from the leaders. As Pinchot & Pinchot (1993:24) point out, bureaucracy was appropriate in the early industrial days when rules and procedures were diametrical. Today leaders have to step out of bureaucracy. One of the ways of cutting down the cumbersome bureaucracy is to keep multi-skilled people. This, for instance, in the two institutions studied, would mean removing some secretaries from the structure and remaining with computer competent lecturers to do the secretarial jobs. Further cutting could be made and remain with a flat structure that allows peer interaction which has room for ideas and potentials that the lecturers could contribute towards the development of the institutions.

Pinchot & Pinchot (1993:26) show that bureaucracy denies concern for people but holds on to strict obedience and loyalty to the leader. It is autocratic and causes people to stick to the rules resulting in lecturers who are demotivated, not caring and reluctant to use their intelligence.

The following data reveal whether or not there is anything done to appraise the lecturers in performing their duties for the achievement of goals and objectives.

Table 7 Presence of Appraisal Scheme

	LP		NTTC	
Responses	NO	%	NO	%
Yes	23	48	6	8
No	11	23	39	48
NR	9	19	12	15
N/A	5	10	23	29

Table 7 reveals the presence of appraisal schemes in the two institutions. At Lerotholi Polytechnic 48% of the population claim that there is an appraisal scheme while at the National Teacher Training College 89% of the subjects point out that it is present.

The lecturers further commented on what the leaders in the two institutions do to sustain good performance. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, there were four indicators that

good performance was sustained. The first was that examination question papers were checked. The second was that quarterly the leaders ask the lecturers about the problems they encountered and areas in which they needed support. The third was that workshops were organized for lecturers to refresh themselves in work-related issues. The fourth was that those who performed well were congratulated. What they did was shared with others in regular academic meetings. At times the workshops are held outside the country and money is given as a form of incentive to the one who participates. Another lecturer added that, in his section, the immediate supervisor listens to staff grievances and gives advice. As a result performance improves.

Although there is no specific appraisal system used at Lerotholi Polytechnic, it seems there is care about how the lecturers perform their duties. Good work is reinforced while weaknesses are remedied through activities like workshops. There is an element of a traditional model of appraisal since financial rewards are given. The leaders also play a supportive role because they are concerned about the problems that the lecturers encounter at work.

The lecturers at the National Teacher Training College raised a complaint that the leaders seemed not to have time to visit the lecturers' offices or classes. There seemed to be no time to discuss issues related to work. However, the leaders were strict on deadlines for submission of examination question papers and marking memoranda. But if lecturers encountered work-related problems, there was no one to assist. Surprisingly, the lecturers who worked hard got no recognition but the lecturers who took their duties lightly just got away with it. These practices resulted

in the lecturers either choosing to work hard or to rest and there was no structure in place to respond to such situations. The emphasis was that there was nothing done to sustain performance in general at this institution. Other lecturers disclosed that a few lecturers were sent for further training and the majority were denied this opportunity. Most lecturers found their own means to further their education. Some complained that there were no financial incentives or motivation.

It seems that work performance is not measured against expected standards, if any, at the National Teacher Training College. There is no proper supervision of work and clarity of criteria for promotion. It is also observed that there is no specific appraisal system used. Almost everything takes care of itself in a laissez-faire fashion. There is minimum control from the leaders.



However, a few lecturers from the National Teacher Training College pointed out that the only support given to them is the supply of stationery from the College store. This is to assist the lecturers in teaching. They also indicated that the library has good books for teaching and learning purposes.

There are two contrasting issues emerging from the analysis of sustaining good performance. The leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic are trying to keep a balanced position of equal concern for people and work. The lecturers are free to discuss issues with their leaders because the leaders have room for suggestions and this leads to improved lecturers' performance. This is the middle-of -the- road leadership style that sustains morale and builds trust and confidence (Hoy & Miskel 1987). Goals and

objectives of the institution are easily achieved where the rapport is good between the leaders and the lecturers.

At the National Teacher Training College the leaders have a low concern for production and a low concern for people. If the leaders advise a lecturer to perform according to expected standards and that lecturer ignores the advice and does not improve his performance, he is left alone. Perhaps this is happening because the leaders do not want to lose the lecturers. Blake & Mouton (1964) describe such an institution as stagnant and pseudo-democratic. It can be deduced, therefore, that sometimes the leadership styles used at this College are the country club style and the laissez-faire style. The leaders withhold the leadership responsibility and do not make a follow-up on work not well done.



Responding to the question regarding what is done to those lecturers who do not perform to the expected standard, the lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic raised some alternatives that were used. They pointed out that the lecturers who did not perform well were called in and talked to. But in most cases they did not change and nothing was done about them. One continued with such behaviour until he left the institution. Sometimes workshops were organized for them and their shortcomings were identified. It was in rare cases that a lecturer was called for disciplinary action and advised to improve. Often the leader announced the weakness in a meeting without mentioning the name of the culprit. Obviously, this had little impact because no serious action was ever taken afterwards. The leader led as if he was in a social club where he had to keep good social relations with other club members.

Similarly, at the National Teacher Training College, lecturers claimed that there was nothing done if the lecturers did not perform up to the expected standard. This discouraged the lecturers who did their work well. Seldom, a few individuals were called and reprimanded. Amazingly, most of those who were not performing well were promoted to higher positions. As opposed to what was done at Lerotholi Polytechnic, at the National Teacher Training College there was totally nothing done to assist the lecturers to improve their performance

The emerging issue is that at the National Teacher Training College there is a practice of creating a pseudo-democratic atmosphere. The leaders are permissive and appeasing to the lecturers. It is obvious that the leaders here have low concern for both lecturers and production. On the contrary, the leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic show concern when the lecturers do not perform their duties well. For instance, they train them in order to remedy their shortcomings. One can say, therefore, that the leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic have concern for both lecturers and production. They are people-oriented because they identify the weaknesses and they are job-oriented because they want to see improvement in performance.

Literature indicates that a variety of appraisal systems are used in educational institutions to meet the needs of the organizations and of individuals. As stated by Herzberg's two-factor theory, there are satisfiers and dissatisfiers in work situations. Satisfiers are positive elements in a workplace and dissatisfiers are factors outside the job. Examples of such factors are supervision. Management by objectives (MBO), as an appraisal method, looks at whether or not objectives are achieved in a consultative and democratic manner (Stoner & Freeman 1987 and Gregson & Livesey 1993). If

leaders in the two organizations practise MBO, the goals and objectives of the organizations and lecturers will be achieved.

The clinical supervision is also objective-based and it is most appropriate in a teaching-learning situation. It appraises teacher performance and helps him to grow academically, professionally and socially. The teacher and the supervisor sit and discuss the lesson plan and agree on what is to be observed during the lesson presentation. The supervisor observes and collects data as the lesson is presented. At the end of the lesson, the teacher and the supervisor come together and discuss the lesson. The supervisor leads the discussion in a manner that the teacher discovers his strengths and weaknesses. The supervisor and the teacher further suggest how to work on the strengths and weaknesses. The skills of the supervisor are also analysed by the teacher with the purpose of improving supervision (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski 1993).



The two institutions investigated are involved in teaching and learning. For good performance in teaching, there is need for classroom observation. The observation is done to improve instruction. When the instruction is improved, the learners' performance improves too. The goals and objectives of the institutions, the lecturers and the learners are improved. Open and face-to-face discussions bring out the strengths and weaknesses of the instructions and suggest ways for improvement.

As was indicated in the reviewed literature the traditional model, the human relations model, the human resource model, and the Herzberg's two-factor theory identify factors that contribute to and/or hinder performance. The management by objectives

and the clinical supervision open up to alternatives for improving performance and are appraisee-centred.

The majority of the respondents from both institutions seemed to be aware of the government's confidential report form that is confidential even to the appraisee. They were aware that appraisal leads to promotion, further training, and job satisfaction. The government's confidential report does not cater for these. However, at the National Teacher Training College, respondents indicated that an appraisal scheme was about to be established and a lot of funding went into it. Nevertheless, it failed because the management team was reluctant to be appraised. They also dropped it when they realized that it was not meant for punishment.

The researcher wonders how performance is assessed in the two institutions as most respondents indicated that appraisal schemes were not used in their institutions. Significantly, management by objectives and clinical supervision are effective and efficient tools for improving performance for achieving personal and institutional goals and objectives. The following is a discussion on whether or not the lecturers are aware of academic activities taking place in their institutions. The discussion also focuses on whether or not the leaders encourage the lecturers to participate in such activities for the purpose of achieving personal and organizational goals and objectives.

Table 8: Awareness of Academic Activities

	LP		NTTC	
Responses	NO	%	NO	%
Yes	15	31	24	30
No	23	48	46	58
NR	10	21	10	30

Table 8 reveals whether or not the lecturers in the two institutions are aware of academic activities that take place outside their organizations. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, 31% and at the National Teacher Training College, 30% of the lecturers were aware of such activities while 48% and 58% respectively were not aware. The leaders usually asked the lecturers to take part. They gave an example that if there was a conference somewhere, they were allowed to attend and they were financed to participate. They also indicated that other lecturers were members of committees in other institutions. This gave them an opportunity to learn, copy, and adopt from them whatever was relevant to their institutions. Lecturers from Lerotholi Polytechnic, in particular, indicated that their students were attached to industries and companies for practical courses.

The lecturers from the National Teacher Training College particularly pointed out that the College invited resource persons to lecture to the students and staff on specific

areas or topics. Outstanding was the business community that gave awards to the best performing students in the subjects offered. Commenting on professional and academic relations, the respondents showed that some lecturers got part-time lectureship at the National University of Lesotho and other tertiary institutions.

On the other hand, 21% of the lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic and 30% of the lecturers at the National Teacher Training College who claimed not to be aware of the academic activities going on around their institutions argued that there was no formal or official mechanism to make them aware of such activities. They expected their leaders to alert them whenever such activities occurred

The discussion above reveals that two institutions investigated are not open. On the contrary, a small population sees the institutions as open - that is, they are subject to outside forces and they exchange information with them. Hence they are aware of academic activities outside their institutions. The finding from this analysis is that a large percentage of the lecturers do not care much about what happens in the community outside their institutions. It may be maintained that leaders in these two institutions do not effectively disseminate information they receive to the lecturers. As Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:599) state, an organization can be closed or open depending on the degree of interaction with the surrounding environment. However, it is still argued that there is never a completely closed or open institution. The end result is that all organizations have particular characteristics that classify them as organizations. The leadership styles used also determine the openness or closeness of such organizations.

There may be this improper communication in the institutions investigated. The lecturers may not know about activities taking place around them. These activities may be affecting them and their institutions. It is important that they should know about them and take action where appropriate for the purpose of achieving their personal and institutional goals and objectives. The leaders should have a way of showing members about activities going on outside their institutions. The leadership styles they practise should help them to achieve this.

It may be concluded that it is the leaders' discretion to see that the information is disseminated. Leaders may also not care much whether or not lecturers get involved in academic activities. On the contrary, most lecturers seemed to acknowledge that they have a close relationship with the surrounding community.



5.4 General Comments on the Leadership Styles

The following is the discussion on the leadership styles used in the two institutions under investigation. General comments include contributions made by informal structures in the institutions, how emergencies and change are handled, and whether or not the history of the institutions has any effect on the way they are managed.

Commenting on informal structures that existed at Lerotholi Polytechnic, some lecturers claimed that they only formed academic groups. However, there was a contradiction here as other lecturers pointed out that there were informal structures,

which were also used to benefit the institution. Their leaders were appointed to lead academic activities like research. At the National Teacher Training College, there was awareness of informal structures that were managed by certain individuals. However, they were not officially recognized. One lecturer wrote that, “they are petty” and therefore ignored. The lecturers thought that such groups bring unity and spirit of working together because participants share ideas and work collaboratively. Examples of such groups are money-saving societies and research groups. One lecturer commented, “They are left to the individual concerned. The management does not seem to be interested in their activities.” All these comments led to the conclusion that the leaders at the National Teacher Training College did not capitalize on the activities initiated by groups to improve their leadership styles while at Lerotholi Polytechnic they did.



The lecturers from both institutions showed that in handling emergencies, the leaders called a meeting whereby all lecturers participated by raising views before a decision was taken. If the emergency affected an individual, a prompt decision was taken by any lecturer who then reported the matter to the authorities. At times only the head of the institution handled emergencies and reported them to the lecturers later. In particular, some lecturers from the National Teacher Training College pointed out that an appropriate committee was elected in a meeting to discuss the matter. The discussions were expected to result in consensus on what should be done. It could, therefore, be assumed that in both institutions emergencies are solved in methods appropriate to the situations encountered. Therefore, they require the situational leadership style. As Stoner & Freeman (1987:58) point out, the situational approach

looks at real life situations and adopts an appropriate solution. It also acknowledges that there is no one solution for problems encountered. A leader is the one who must find an appropriate solution to a problem.

Raising views on how change is handled, most lecturers from both institutions indicated that they were government employees operating under a cumbersome bureaucratic structure. Information has to go through a large number of authorities before it can come to them. So far, any change was implemented and the lecturers were just notified about it. If it was change that affected each institution directly, they were alerted and asked to contribute their views on which leaders acted.

A participative democratic leadership style seems to be used in handling change in the two institutions. However, this style is coupled with a dictatorship style because the institutions do not operate independently from the government bureaucracy.

Concerning the history of the institutions, some respondents from Lerotholi Polytechnic indicated knowledge that the institution is named after its founder, Chief Lerotholi Letsie. Although they seemed not to know much about the history of the school, its history did not have any impact on the leadership styles practised. Respondents from the National Teacher Training College, on the other hand, noted that the College is an amalgamation of the former church colleges. They pointed out that the three churches, Lesotho Evangelical Church, the Roman Catholic Church, and the Anglican Church of Lesotho are represented in the management board of the College. They also pointed out that in the Religious Education Department of the

College, the three churches are represented. Their presence has a positive effect especially in the discipline of the staff and the students because of what is preached. However, other lecturers claimed that the amalgamation was done during the state of emergency when the constitution of the country was suspended. Hence there was great lack of democracy in the College. Moreover, there was an observation that most lecturers lived in the past. What was done when the College was founded in 1975 is still done today. This might be because many of the ex-students of the College later became lecturers at this institution

The lecturers from both institutions realized that as government departments, the institutions were operating under the constraints of the cumbersome administrative structure. However, they thought the institutions needed autonomy in order to run their own affairs.



5.5 Summary of findings

The first research question on the leadership styles preferred by the lecturers in the two institutions, Table 4, which is based on Blake and Mouton Table of Responses, indicates the order of preference of the leadership styles. It reveals that the lecturers in both institutions listed the leadership styles in the following order of preference: the participative style, the consultative style, the autocratic style, and the laissez faire style.

The choice of the participative and the consultative leadership styles as the first and second most preferred styles discloses that the lecturers want to be democratically led. The participative leadership style calls for participation of the lecturers in issues that affect them and their institution. Calling for their participation indicated that the leaders acknowledged that the lecturers have expertise. Their ideas, knowledge, efforts and abilities were utilized for the achievement of personal and institutional goals and objectives. The lecturers also showed that, by being consulted, the leaders reflected that they welcomed input in decisions that affected their life in the institutions. The consultative leadership style also made the lecturers feel that they were trusted. This trust helped the lecturers to work independently. They felt that every decision made was their responsibility. However, the lecturers made an observation that sometimes if the lecturers were allowed to work independently. This led to a laissez-faire situation and therefore, it was necessary to use an autocratic leadership style.



The autocratic leadership style was the third preferred style. This shows that the lecturers in the two institutions sometimes prefer an absolute and dictatorial leader - one who uses formal authority control and owns influence as an important part of his leadership. They claimed that an autocratic leader was, at times, important. The type of group and the situation under which that group operated often determined this style of leadership. They also claimed that when there was reluctance to change from the old ways of doing things in an institution, the leader should be authoritative and force the new ways through. They maintained that this should be the leader who makes prompt decisions.

However, there were weaknesses that the lecturers noticed in an autocratic leader. He acted as a boss and everybody obeyed without questioning. Compliance and obedience were the rule.

The last preferred leadership style was the laissez-faire. The lecturers from both institutions pointed out that they were responsible adults who did not need close supervision. They showed that they took it upon themselves that work allocated to them, whether it was done individually or collectively, they had to do it effectively and efficiently. This was because they were responsible and accountable adults. The leader's responsibility under this style was to give clear instructions understood by the lecturers and appropriate implementation would be easily done.



However, the lecturers in both institutions made a general observation that each leadership style cannot operate independently; it needs the support of other leadership styles. They further noted that every situation calls for relevant leadership styles.

The second research question was on the ways practised by the leaders in the two institutions to achieve organizational goals and objectives. The lecturers from both institutions have pointed out that there were a number of leadership styles that would assist in the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. First, they indicated that using the participative leadership style was most appropriate. They showed that if they participated in issues that affected their work in the institutions, then they felt committed and therefore bound to achieve the goals and objectives of their

institutions.

Besides the positive use of the participative leadership style, the lecturers observed that use of this style caused them to believe that they were to be involved every time when a decision was taken. They tended to forget that the leader has executive powers to make decisions, sometimes with or without their participation.

Second, in using the consultative leadership style, the lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic noticed the smooth and effective communication. This resulted in the building trust between the leaders and the lecturers. Less conflict was experienced when this style was used. It became easy for the leaders to assign tasks to individual lecturers and to a group of lecturers. They emphasized that good interpersonal relationships were experienced. Work ran smoothly and goals and objectives were easily achieved.



At the National Teacher Training College, the lecturers indicated that they were seldom consulted. Consultation was observed only during the preparation for the College to be autonomous. However, the lecturers were just chosen by the leaders to take part in the task forces and then the task forces were assigned duties. It was in rare cases that the lecturers were consulted before a decision was taken. But they still maintained that the autocratic leadership style worked in the achievement of goals and objectives.

Third, the lecturers from both institutions indicated that the autocratic leadership style was required in some instances. They argued that close supervision helped in achieving goals and objectives. They showed that without an autocratic style of leadership, many mistakes could be made. The autocratic leadership style was also seen as effective in settling disputes. On the other hand, the lecturers from the National Teacher Training College maintained that the autocratic leadership style is harsh and often harshness results in conflicts. They pointed out that conflict resolution skills should be used. They also argued that praise and encouragement should be applied as positive reinforcement for the lecturers doing well to achieve the goals and objectives of their institution.

Fourth, the lecturers from both institutions concur that the laissez-faire leadership style could be used because the lecturers were responsible adults. They emphasized that when left on their own to work, they grew professionally, academically and personally. In particular, the lecturers from the National Teacher Training College argued that this style is appropriate for the lecturers with long experience in the institution. They also argued that clear explanation of the job to be done, coupled with clear instructions, helped in the achievement of goals and objectives.

Meetings were considered to be one area that revealed the leadership styles needed to achieve institutional goals and objectives. The common finding from the two institutions was that agendas for meetings were planned in an autocratic manner. Apart from being pre-scheduled in the college calendar, they were planned by the leaders. However, the lecturers from Lerotholi Polytechnic indicated that they were

consulted, at times, and asked to contribute items for the agenda. Moreover, they were allowed to initiate meetings whenever the need arose. The major finding from the two institutions was that the lecturers wanted to be consulted before any meeting was held. They also wanted to participate in the planning of meetings.

During the actual discussions in a meeting, decisions were reached in two ways - by voting and consensus. The leadership styles that appeared during the discussions were dictatorship, participative and democratic. Lerotholi Polytechnic leaned more towards participative democracy while the National Teacher Training College embraced the participative autocracy. Generally the leaders in both institutions explored the lecturers' ideas and suggestions and based their decisions on them.

The second area that revealed the leadership styles used in the two institutions was the organizational structures.  The finding of this inquiry was that since the two institutions were under the cumbersome bureaucracy of the Government of Lesotho, they were influenced by the autocracy practised in the civil service - using more of the job-centred leadership styles. However, the institutions had their formal system of authority to gear all activities towards achievement of their own goals and objectives. One significant finding is that the formal line of authority tends to separate the lecturers from the leaders.

The third area that influenced the leadership styles was the performance appraisal. The finding is that at Lerotholi Polytechnic, the strengths and weaknesses of the lecturers were identified. The relevant workshops were held to improve performance.

This practice reflects concern for both lecturers and their jobs. On the contrary, at the National Teacher Training College, it was in rare cases that some lecturers were sent for short or long-term courses. When this was done, performance of individual lecturers was not considered. Most lecturers were denied training opportunities even when they performed well. This resulted in a laissez-faire situation in which nobody cared while the institution became a dull and uncreative place.

On the other hand, at the National Teacher Training College nothing was done to the lecturers who did not perform up to the expected standard. The leaders here created a pseudo-democratic atmosphere characterized by low concern for both lecturers and work. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, on the other hand, the lecturers with unsatisfactory performance were called and reprimanded. The overall finding in the two institutions was that some form of performance appraisal was done.



The last area that revealed the leadership styles practised in the two institutions was the activities going on in the communities surrounding the institutions. The finding was that the involvement of the lecturers in community activities and the community in the school activities promoted participative democracy. Also the lecturers' involvement advertised the institutions and led to the institutions, achievement of goals and objectives. However, there was a concern that information from the communities was not disseminated fairly and this denied the lecturers opportunity to participate in activities that even helped in the achievement of institutional goals and objectives. It was also found out that some lecturers at the National Teacher Training College did not care much about the activities in their surrounding and hence they did

not show interest in such activities.

A number of other findings came up from the general comments that the lecturers from both institutions made. In dealing with emergencies, for instance, the finding is that in both institutions the leaders took prompt decisions. This means that the leaders were ready for eventualities and had contingency plans in place. However, if time and situation allowed, the lecturers were involved in reaching decisions through participative democracy.

The findings on handling change were that government bureaucracy influenced them and therefore autocracy was prominent especially if that change affected all civil servants. But if change affected individual institutions, the consultative and participative leadership styles were used to achieve goals and objectives.



When looking at whether or not the history of the institutions affected the use of leadership styles, there was a difference of opinion. At the National Teacher Training College, the representation of the three churches - the Lesotho Evangelical Church (LEC), the Roman Catholic Church (RCC) and the Anglican Church of Lesotho (ACL) had direct influence on morale at the College. The leaders lead most activities in collaboration with the representatives of these churches. This promotes participative democracy. Another issue that cropped up is that there is no change in the way the lecturers taught since the inception of the College. The lecturers have stuck to the old ways of doing things. For instance, the lecturers claimed that nobody supervised their classroom performance. But at Lerotholi Polytechnic the finding is

that the history of the institution has no influence on the leadership styles used.

Generally, the findings reveal that there are special leadership styles were used in both institutions. In the order of preference they are the participative, the consultative, the autocracy and the laissez-faire. However, in practice, various leadership styles are used to achieve institutional goals and objectives. These are the participative, the dictatorship, the autocracy, the consultative, the middle-of-the-road, the country club and the manipulative styles. The study reveals that no single style operates exclusively. Each leadership style requires support of others. Moreover, it was discovered that leadership styles were situational. Each situation calls for a particular leadership style. These findings answered the two research questions and the research problem.



The next chapter draws conclusions and makes recommendations that are based on the purpose, the research questions, the literature review, and the findings of the study. It also draws attention to the areas on which further research can be done.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Orientation

The study objectively investigated the leadership styles used at Lerotholi Polytechnic and the National Teacher Training College in Lesotho. It compared and contrasted the leadership practices. This chapter draws conclusions and makes recommendations from the summary of findings relating them to the purpose, the research questions, the statement of the problem, the significance of the study, and the literature review.



6.1 Conclusions

The lecturers from both institutions regarded training in educational management as important for them and the leaders. They realized that knowledge of the concept of management might help in achievement of goals and objectives of the institutions. Knowledge of educational management would lead to understanding of the leaders' and lecturers' tasks. The responsibilities of the lecturers would be clearly defined. The leaders would observe and supervise the lecturers' work. The leaders would also assess the lecturers' performance objectively. The lecturers' needs would be identified and shortcomings remedied.

It was clear that not every lecturer needed to go for full time training on management and leadership. Regular in-house workshops on these areas could be run to equip all the lecturers with knowledge on them. The workshops would be beneficial for the leaders and the lecturers in that all would know how best to lead and to be led in tertiary institutions. This training would respond to the significance of the study in that leadership in the tertiary institutions would be given attention as an important aspect to achieve goals and objectives. The training would also answer the concern of the study in that the lecturers would be motivated to improve their performance. This would in turn, lead to the achievement of the goals and objectives of the institutions.

In both institutions there were lecturers who saw training in educational management as unnecessary. This showed that there was dissatisfaction in the way the leaders operated sometimes. It also confirmed that in-house workshops on management were necessary. They would serve as an eye-opener that management and leadership concepts or activities needed to be known by all lecturers who work in tertiary institutions.

Regarding the findings on how the lecturers preferred to be led in the institutions, the study showed that the lecturers chose similar styles of leadership in the same order of preference. These styles were the participative, the consultative, the autocratic, and the laissez-faire. The conclusion drawn from this finding was that the lecturers from both institutions wanted to be informed, consulted, and asked to participate in institutional activities. This would be an indication of trust and openness in which the

leaders reflected that they recognized the lecturers' expertise, skills, knowledge, efforts, and ideas, using these attributes to respond to the needs of the individuals and the institutions. It was shown that the leaders who used the participative and the consultative leadership styles usually took the middle position resulting in equal concern for both production and the lecturers. However, the study pointed out that the leaders were always the final decision makers.

The conclusion drawn from the use of the participative and the consultative leadership styles was that the lecturers expected their leaders to ask them to participate in institutional activities. They also expected the leaders to consult them and get their contributions. These practices would help in achieving goals and objectives of the institutions because all lecturers would gain ownership and commitment for all activities and decisions reached. This answered the question why the lecturers from both institutions preferred the participative and the consultative leadership styles. They preferred and expected that their leaders should use them, as they would get motivated to work.

Apart from the use of the participative and the consultative leadership styles, the autocratic leadership style was also preferred. The conclusion drawn from the choice of this style was that the leaders should direct and oversee the work done by closely supervising the lecturers. At times if the lecturers were left without close supervision, mistakes might be made by the lecturers; hence the use of the autocratic leadership style and strict policy in the running of these institutions. However, there was an argument that the autocratic leadership style was often harsh, absolute and dictatorial

by nature. The conclusion drawn on the findings of the autocratic style of leadership was that it was authoritarian but appropriate when situations called for its use.

It was concluded that the choice of the autocratic leadership style as the third preferred style was an indication that the lecturers from both institutions were aware that their leaders had to dictate at times. It seemed that although they were conscious that the participative and the consultative leadership styles were the most suitable to lead, they were also aware that, at times, some situations called for an autocratic leadership style to achieve the goals and objectives of their institutions. Stoner & Freeman (1987:58) state that different situations call for leaders to identify the leadership styles that can best help to achieve goals and objectives in particular circumstances. This responds to the purpose of the study that was to investigate the lecturers' expectations of their leaders.



The laissez-faire leadership style was the least preferred. The conclusion drawn from the findings was that, although the lecturers from both institutions thought that they were responsible adults who performed their duties effectively and efficiently, they enjoyed the pseudo-democratic atmosphere. Some lecturers argued for the advantages of the laissez-faire while others equally argued for the disadvantages of this style of leadership. The conclusion drawn from the lecturers' responses was that if the laissez-faire leadership style was used, the lecturers who by nature were responsible continued to be responsible. But those who were irresponsible remained irresponsible. The responsible lecturers analysed the situation and determined what needed to be done, and how to do it. The irresponsible lecturers let everything to take care of itself.

There were two overall conclusions drawn from the findings of the preferred leadership styles. First, the order of preference was similar in both institutions. This connoted that the lecturers were conscious of how leadership should be practised in Lesotho tertiary institutions to improve working relationships towards achievement of goals and objectives of such institutions. This was what lecturers expected from the leaders. Second, the lecturers were aware that leadership styles were situational and focusing on real life in institutions. As Allais (1995:295-296) explains, the behaviour of the leader and the lecturers may be affected by situations, values and traditions of the institution, the problem and its complexity, and time pressures. The type of leadership style applied will be prompted by any of these listed issues.



Some leadership styles used in the two institutions were discernable from the way meetings were run. The major finding was that there were various leadership styles that were in relation with meetings. For instance, when meetings were planned, there was a top-down directive from the leaders and there was no involvement of the staff in the planning of such meetings. It was, therefore, concluded that the leaders were authoritative. Regarding the planning of meetings, it was concluded that the leaders could either involve or not involve the lecturers. As Seekings (1987:15) explains, the lecturers may be asked to contribute items for the agenda if necessary. This suggests an option. However, in an institution that practises participative democracy, involvement and consultation are necessary. The leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic

were exceptional in that they sometimes allowed the lecturers to initiate meetings. This suggested that they were sometimes democratic.

With regard to the deliberations in meetings, in both institutions, the lecturers' contributions were considered for decision-making. But sometimes at the National Teacher Training College meetings were fora for telling the lecturers what had to be done. So the main conclusion on the findings on meetings was that while both institutions used participation and consultation, the National Teacher Training College also used autocracy.

The study revealed that most lecturers at Lerotholi Polytechnic (75%) and at the National Teacher Training College (86%) were aware of the existence of the institutional structures. They also knew who was responsible to whom. They were, moreover, aware of the official committees of the institutions. They were aware that it was through the coordinated efforts that institutional and personal goals and objectives could be achieved.

Trewatha & Newport (1982:188), Everard & Morris (1985:166) and Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:596) emphasize that the goals and objectives of an institution are achieved through well-established structures. The structures consist of the hierarchical levels and authority, departments and committees. These are made up of people who work through the division of labour. The leaders in the two institutions practised their roles through the structures and the lecturers to achieve the goals and objectives of the institutions.

The conclusion drawn on whether or not the structures had any influence on the leadership styles was that the cumbersome government bureaucratic structure had a discouraging impact on the participative and consultative leadership styles. Decisions were delayed because of too many authorities above the leaders of the institutions. These authorities were to be consulted before the final decision could be brought back to the institutions. Often the lecturers were not consulted for contributions leading to the decision. The lecturers remained distant from the leaders. This resulted in the use of the autocratic leadership style.

The researcher takes a stand that the two institutions should step out of the cumbersome bureaucratic structure as Mclagan in Pinchot and Pinchot (1993:24) suggests. To manage their affairs appropriately, they should form structures that are flatter and more participative, allowing lecturers to direct their own activities and coordinate with others.



Another area that revealed the leadership styles was the use of appraisal schemes for sustaining performance. Although the lectures from Lerotholi Polytechnic (48%) and the National Teacher Training College (89%) claimed that appraisal was practised, it was not meant for sustaining good performance (see Table 7). The leaders completed the confidential form that was confidential to the lecturers appraised. Literature shows various models of appraisal ranging from the old types to the modern ones. There is one common element in appraisal systems – to improve performance for the purpose of achieving goals and objectives of an institution. Stoner & Freeman (1987:425) state that a leader has to appraise the workers' performance in order to assess whether or not the goals and objectives are achieved. Modern systems like clinical supervision

maintain that appraisal should be done in a free and relaxed atmosphere, where there is a two-way communication allowing the appraisee to reflect on own performance for the purpose of improvement (Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski 1993:133 -134).

However, based on the qualitative data collected, it was concluded that at Lerotholi Polytechnic the leaders appraised performance of the lecturers better than the leaders at the National Teacher Training College. At Lerotholi Polytechnic the approach was democratic because the lecturers were asked to state their problems and areas in which they needed support. Then, appropriate workshops responding to the lecturers concerns were held. After these workshops, there was a follow-up to see whether or not there was improvement in the lecturers' performance. At the National Teacher Training College, the lecturers' concerns were ignored. There was a peculiar practice of appraisal at the National Teacher Training College. For instance, there was no criterion for sending the lecturers for further training. Also, if the leaders tried to call any lecturer to order and that lecturer decided to ignore the order, no action was taken and the lecturer was left alone. The negative behaviour continued and hence the laissez-faire that promoted pseudo-democratic situation prevailed. Generally, the leaders at the National Teacher Training College tried to appease the lecturers as if they were in a social country club. This practice was revealed by the qualitative data that stated, inter alia, that amazingly most of those who were not performing well were promoted to higher positions. The conclusion then, was that the leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic had high concern for the job and the lectures while at the National Teacher Training College the leader had low concern for both the job and the lecturers. Also, the leaders of the two institutions did not have the initiative. They

should design appraisal models, one for each institution, as is an internal arrangement.

On the whole, it was concluded that at both institutions, there was lack of a proper, effective and efficient appraisal system. The lecturers could not improve their performance because of the confidentiality in the form that was used. Coupled with this appraisal form was lack of criteria for promotion to higher positions and further long-term training programmes. There was no two-way communication when appraisal was done.

Academic activities were another aspect that revealed leadership styles used in the two institutions. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, 31% of the lecturers and 30% of the lecturers at the National Teacher Training College indicated that they were not aware of the academic activities going on around their institutions (see Table 8). These were significant percentages on which to draw conclusions. It depended on the discretion of individual leaders whether or not to disseminate information to the lecturers. Also it depended on the leadership style one wanted to use. On the one hand, the lecturers seemed not to be interested and inquisitive about academic activities going on around them. On the other hand, the leaders could not disseminate information promptly because of the cumbersome government bureaucracy.

There were other practices in the two institutions that depicted the leadership styles used. These included extra-curricula practices, responding to emergencies, handling change, and the history of the institutions. Some lecturers displayed leadership skills in the extra-curricula activities. The finding on this aspect was that the leaders at the

National Teacher Training College did not capitalize on this potential. At Lerotholi Polytechnic, on the other hand, the leaders requested such lecturers to lead officially recognized committees. Therefore, it was concluded that the leaders at Lerotholi Polytechnic were participative and democratic while at the National Teacher Training College the leaders were neither participative nor democratic. They just let things take their own course.

It was concluded that the skills and abilities of the lecturers who lead the extra-mural activities of the informal groups could be harnessed to achieve institutional goals and objectives. Basson, Van der Westhuizen & Niemann (1991:601-605) clearly explain that these skills and abilities could be used. They also point out that these lecturers' influence could be more powerful than the influence of the leaders in the formal structures. Some advantages seen in using their skills are that they can provide social satisfaction to the lecturers; assist in integrating new staff; provide stability in the institutions; and provide a feeling of devotion and pride in the group one belongs in. If this team spirit is built, then it becomes easy to achieve the goals and objectives of the institutions.

The findings on how to deal with emergencies showed that the leaders in the two institutions distinctly used the leadership styles that matched with the emergencies. When necessary, they called an emergency meeting in order to come up with a solution. It was concluded that the leaders in the two institutions were aware that any emergency required an appropriate leadership style. The leaders looked at the type of emergency and then applied the corresponding leadership style.

It seemed the emergencies were dealt with appropriately in the two institutions. An appropriate leadership style was used to address each type of emergency. Allias (1995:295-296) shows that the situation and other issues like the type of the leaders and the lecturers may affect the situational type of leadership. Often the leadership style used in one emergency may not necessarily work in another. Each institution should have a way of solving emergencies.

The findings on how to handle the change process showed that the lecturers in both institutions blamed the cumbersome bureaucratic government structure. They claimed that the structure delayed their efforts in decision-making and other issues that could affect the institutions and the lecturers. Significantly they indicated that in the preparation for the two institutions to be autonomous, participative democracy was used. The lecturers were actively involved in almost all issues that affected their well-being. However, most changes were autocratically announced and implemented like in any other government department.

Since change affects people in different ways, it is concluded that in the two institutions handling changes difficult under the cumbersome government structure. As Barker (1987:209) explains, change affects the institution, that is, the people, structure, norms and environment. The change process should involve human beings because some are comfortable to continue in the old ways of doing things while others see that as stagnation. This latter category of people wants new experiences. Involving every lecturer in the change process will result in the feeling of ownership of

whatever outcome that may result.

6.2 Recommendations

There are four management tasks, namely, planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. This study focused on leading which has sub-tasks of decision-making, communicating, motivating, choosing staff, and in-service training (Van der Westhuizen 1991:45). A leader should be good at these sub-tasks as they are executed to achieve institutional and personal goals and objectives. Leading, therefore, in this study, is concerned with interaction with lecturers and ensuring a smooth relationship among all, and leading the lecturers to achieve goals and objectives.



The leaders are individuals holding official positions. In this study they are directors and assistant directors. This categorization excludes other leaders of official structures like departments and committees. The leaders of the two institutions studied are vested with legal and administrative powers to supervise staff and execute all managerial tasks in their institution. Based on the conclusions drawn from the analysed data, the study makes four recommendations that contribute towards the academic, professional and sustainable development of tertiary institutions and the lecturers.

- **The leadership styles practised at the Lesotho tertiary institutions should respond to situations that emerge in them.**

Although the lecturers have listed the leadership styles in order of preference, they still maintain that the leader should apply particular leadership styles for particular

incidents. However, they see the participative and consultative leadership styles building and sustaining good interpersonal relationship. These styles show trust and encourage self-disclosure. Everybody in the institutions knows what is needed and valued for the benefit of the individuals and the institutions as there is sharing of ideas and activities. The lecturers, under these leadership styles, operate in a relaxed and conducive working atmosphere because the institutional tasks and the lecturers' needs are intertwined. The two styles also promote mutual understanding between the leaders and the lecturers. This results in team building and ownership of tasks.

The consultative and the participative leadership styles are old practices in Lesotho. As was indicated in the first chapter, Moshoeshoe I founded the Basotho nation during the hard times of war by welcoming and accommodating the remnants of the wars. He further realized that some tribes were more powerful than his and resorted to inviting the white missionaries to preach peace to his nation and act as intermediaries between the nation and the British Government seeking protection. This he did through consulting his people and asking them to participate in reaching the decision. Many small tribes joined his nation because he was democratic and peaceful, knowing that disputes are settled through peace talks. He is today, globally known for his Moshoeshoeism style of leadership that was diplomatic, democratic, consultative, and participative. In essence, Moshoeshoe I showed humanity in all issues that affected the nation. As Murithi (1994), Ramose (1999) and Magagula & Mazibuko (2004) humanity has a power of peace making. Members of a community with humanity work together cooperatively and have a bond of sharing. This practice lays down the ground rules for cooperation. The leaders in Lesotho tertiary institutions,

although there is no war today, should adopt the Moshoeshoism leadership styles especially when there are misunderstandings in the institutions. However the autocratic leadership style should sometimes be used. As the Northwest Leadership (2002) states, when the lecturers challenge the leadership authority, the leader should give instructions to calm down the situation. This will remind the lecturers that the leader is in authority and that the leader is the one who makes the final decision. The autocratic leadership style can also be used when there is limited time to complete a certain task. The leader should tell the lecturers what should be done, when and how it should be done without asking for their input. This will save time.

The McGregor's Theory X states that the average human beings have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible. This is a situation that calls for autocratic leadership style that includes direct supervision, imposed work procedures, and close supervision and monitoring. The lecturers from both institutions indicated that the laissez-faire leadership style is also effective when the lecturers are responsible and accountable. These are lecturers who abide by their professional ethics, have high integrity, and can work independently. However, there should be a system of checking work production to avoid a carefree attitude.

- **The Lesotho tertiary institutions should have policy that guides them.**

If there is policy that guides the institutions, it means that there are rules and regulations by which all the lecturers and the leaders will abide. Rules and regulations are weapons used to achieve the lecturers' and the institutions' goals and objectives. They also provide criteria for promotion, transfer, evaluation, development, demotion,

and dismissal. Generally, there will be guidance for team building.

- **The Lesotho tertiary institutions should have their own bureaucratic structure independent from the cumbersome government bureaucracy.**

The people in the bureaucracy of the Lesotho government bureaucracy are not part of the two institutions investigated. They are therefore not acquainted with life in them. They may know about them through reading reports or by being told about them. Their involvement in the decision-making for the institutions delays the results. The delayed decision ends up in the use of the autocratic leadership style.

The institutions' bureaucratic structures should comprise the departments, committees, and leadership positions like heads of departments, directors, deputy directors, and chairs of committees. This will encourage communication that results in prompt feedback. The lecturers will feel part of the made decisions, as they will contribute in the development of self and the institutions.

- **Regular development planning for individual lecturers and the institutions be made; hence the recommendation of Self and Institution Improvement Model.**

This recommendation is in line with the Department for Education and Employment (DFEE 1997) that suggests regular development planning for individuals, teams, and the institution. The development plans run in a cyclical form that touches at four points of commitment, planning, action, and evaluation. From evaluation, it starts at

commitment. The questions of this study clearly wanted to find out the leadership styles actually used (practice) for achievement of goals and objectives. Good leaders, as George (1985:26) asserts, "...know where they are going and persuade others to join them. They are out front leading rather than staying behind pushing." The suggested appraisal activity will result in the leader being in a position to assess which physical and human resources are needed, what work to assign to whom, and which lecturer to remove from one job to another. Since team discussions are held, the decisions will be made based on them. If the appraisal process is followed, high concern for lecturers and production will be sustainable.

To implement the Self and Institution Improvement Model (SIIM) effectively and efficiently, it is recommended that when lecturers take their first appointment, they should be interviewed on their own vision on the development of the institution. This is the entry interview that forms part of the model. It is the starting point of commitment and planning. The lecturers should state their personal plans and how they think those plans would contribute to the development of the institution. This would help the leaders to know how much each lecturer knows about the institution and where the self is placed within institutional activities. The entry interview should lead to individual lecturers intertwining their own plans with the institutional plans. This is important because it would help in the achievement of individuals' goals and objectives concurrently with those of the institution. Each lecturer will be talking face-to-face with his own leader, studying the job description and deciding on the plan of action, the sequence in which to achieve objectives, and the timeframes for achieving the objectives. Then implementation follows.

Fullan & Stiegebauer (1991:4) explain implementation as putting ideas into practice. In the context of the model implementation connotes putting plans into actions. During implementation, there should be checking times and points on how much work have been done. This is followed by evaluation. The evaluation includes appraisal. Evaluation and appraisal should be used concurrently in Lesotho tertiary education institutions. Quinlan & Davidoff (1997:8) cite MacColl's explanation of the concepts. Evaluation is summative while appraisal is formative. Evaluation grades for career reasons. It involves inspection that results in reporting on one's performance to the employer for confirmation, promotion, salary increase, transfer or dismissal. Appraisal is a helping relationship that identifies strengths and weaknesses. It rectifies weaknesses and sets targets to aim at improvement to better achieve goals and objectives.

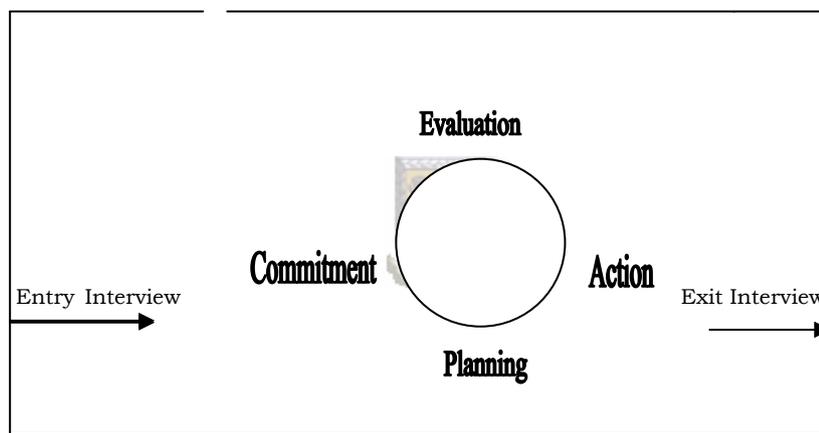


This reflection would help to come with achievements, implications, and future plans. These reviews might be done twice or thrice a year. Each time they are done, individual lecturers expertise would be known and tapped accordingly. Areas in which each lecturer needs training would be identified. As George (1985:334) explains, evaluation of performance has elements of appraisal of the lecturer's performance of his own potential for development and training. The immediate leader or top leader depending on the institutional agreement or policy does this. The appraisal is used to determine the lecturers' level of competence, pointing out strengths and weaknesses and making suggestions for improvement.

As the interview proceeds, the leader and the lecturer open up and reflect on the work done and the way forward. They look deeper into how goals and objectives of the lecturer and the institution have contributed in the development of the lecturer and the institution. As commitment and plans are restated, the cyclical process begins again.

The cyclical model is shown below.

Figure 4: Self and Institution Improvement Model



The Model (Adopted from DFEE 1997: 20-21)

The above model encompasses a variety of leadership styles and appraisal systems. The leadership styles are the participative, the democratic, the consultative; the middle-of-the-road, and the laissez-faire. The model includes the participative and the democratic leadership styles because the lecturers are well informed about what is happening at their institutions. There is delegation of responsibilities and duties, and teamwork leading to positive results. It is a team leadership style because it integrates concern for production and concern for the welfare of the lecturers at a high level. It is also consultative and middle-of-the-road because a rapport is established with every lecturer, planning work with each of them; rules and regulations are established for the purpose of following them. The leader supervises and supports, making each lecturer aware of own strengths and weaknesses and emphasizing improvement. As there is consultation, trust and confidence are built into the lecturers. It is laissez-faire because the presence of the leader is felt but individual lecturers are free to make decisions. The leader makes an appeal to personal integrity, motivating them to work as individuals and as teams. They are conscious about their responsibilities. This develops into a country club leadership style in that good social relations develop with the purpose of achieving the same goals and objectives for individuals and institutions respectively.

Some of the appraisal systems that the model incorporates are the traditional model, the human relations model, the human resource model, the Herzberg Two-Factor Theory, management by objectives, and clinical supervision. The traditional model assumes that the lecturers are lazy and that the leaders understand how work should be done more than the lecturers do. It also postulates that financial rewards are

appropriate for those who do good work and are productive, which in the olden days was favoured by those doing the work. The human relations model maintains that the lecturers have some influence on the standards and the results of the work. The human resource model maintains that the lecturers are already motivated to work. The need for achievement and meaningful work contribute to their satisfaction. They are not only motivated by the job and money. The Herzberg Two-Factor Theory shows that in a work situation, there are satisfiers and dissatisfiers. The satisfiers are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The dissatisfiers are policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. The satisfiers are positive elements while dissatisfiers are negative elements. According to Hoy & Miskel (1987:184), the motivators lead to positive job attitudes because of their potential to satisfy the individual lecturer's needs for self-actualisation. On the contrary, the hygienic factors must meet the individual lecturer's needs for job security, good interpersonal relations, fair treatment, and good working conditions. Dissatisfaction increases when job surroundings are not conducive to these needs. However, they are not opposites but two interdependent dimensions. Workers are motivated by elements in the work itself and are demotivated by factors outside the job.

The model also incorporates management by objectives (MBO) and clinical supervision that are mostly used nowadays. It is MBO because it avoids the top-down approach involving the lecturers in setting their own objectives based on institutional goals and objectives. It is also clinical supervision because it is face-to-face talk and two-way communication with lecturers analysing their own performance. The lecturers identify their own strengths and weaknesses and make

suggestions for improvement. Therefore, it is significant that MBO and clinical supervision have concern for production and lecturers in a participative, democratic and consultative manner.

It would be most fruitful if after each cycle is completed with individuals, a general meeting that involves all lecturers be held to discuss salient points emerging from the discussions with individuals. The discussion in a team may even be more fruitful than discussions with individual lecturers. Team discussions would result in sound decisions as strengths of the team are harnessed. The model brings out what Bush (1995:52) terms a collegial model that assumes that institutions should establish a policy and reach decisions through discussion process leading to consensus. In the collegial model, power is shared among members of the institution especially those who have mutual understanding about goals and objectives of the institution. This model is based on democratic principles and is very relevant for schools and colleges because they have professional staff. The leaders of the institutions should hold exit interviews. These are included in the proposed cyclical model. In any institution, the lecturers enter into service and at some stage resign. Exit interviews are a way of tapping information on the practices of the institution. The leaving lecturers would reveal positive and negative practices that they have experienced during their term of employment in the institutions. They would even be freer than when they were still employed by the institution. The revealed practices should be used to improve the general management of the institution. The strengths raised should be developed and the weaknesses should be remedied through implementing suggestions that would be raised. Having made the recommendations, the study then looks into the future research.

6.3 Future research

The conclusions and recommendations drawn are based on the data contributed by the lecturers in the two institutions. Studying tertiary institutions should involve as many parties as they are in a particular institution. In the two institutions studied, the learners, the lecturers, the support staff, and the leaders constitute the population. Research done in the future should involve them, funds permitting. This study was one-sided because it only involved the lecturers in raising their views on the leadership styles used. However, the suggested model of working between the lecturers and the leaders should be put into practice, monitored, and assessed to judge its efficiency and effectiveness.



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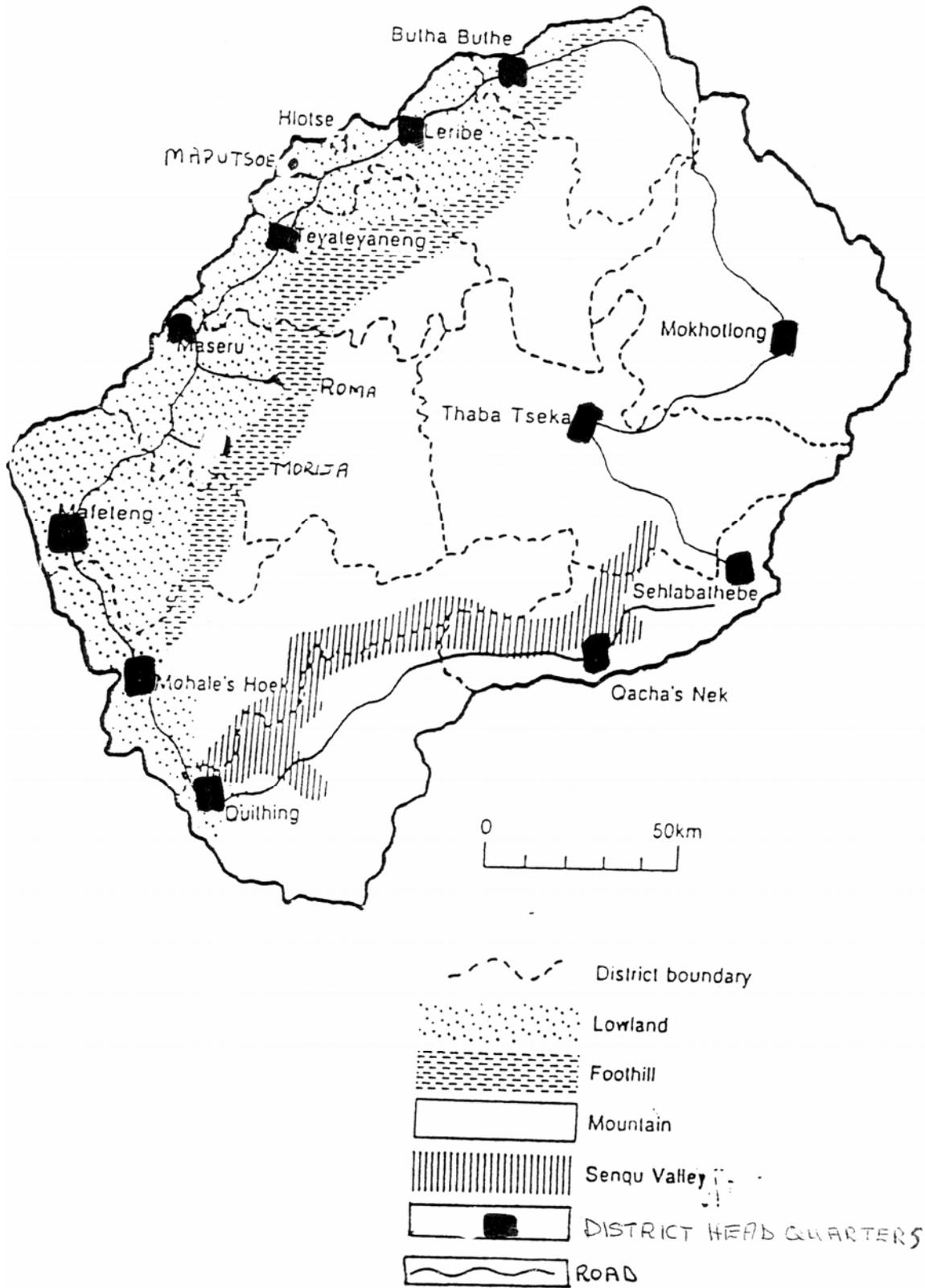
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APPENDIX A: MAP OF LESOTHO



APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

TOPIC

Investigating leadership styles in tertiary institutions in Lesotho: Comparing and contrasting practices.

A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Name institution...NTTC.....

(i) Are you trained in educational management? (a) yes-x

(b) no

(ii) If no, do you have any intention to train? (a) yes-X

(b) no

(iii) Why do you think training in educational management is necessary for all lecturers in your institution?...*Everyone has to have management skills for he/she is a manager even in a smallest organization such as a family*.....



B. LEADERSHIP STYLES

Instruction: Tick (X) one appropriate response and further explain in the space provided below from item 7 – 15

2. The College/ Polytechnic departments seem to be doing well. Their need for direction and close supervision is diminishing. Does your boss

- Stop directing and overseeing performance unless there is a problem?
- Spend time getting to know members personally, but make sure they maintain performance level?
- Make sure things keep going well, continue to direct and oversee closely?
- Begin to discuss new tasks of interest to them?

Explain further *The failure of the department will be blamed on him, therefore he has to continue to direct and oversee closely*.....

3. Thabo is one of the lecturers in your institution. He deliberately ignores directions and does things his own way. Then the job does not meet the expected standards. This is not the first problem with him. What does Thabo's leader do?

- Listens to Thabo's side, but be sure the job gets done right away.
- Tells Thabo to do it again the right way and closely supervises the job.
- Tells him the job will not be accept and lets him handle it his way.

- d. Discusses the problem and what can be done about it.

Give reason(s) for your response-**Thabo is an individual who has the right to do what he thinks is correct but since the job does not meet the expectations, the problem has to be discussed since training may be needed.**

- 4. Lisebo is a new lecturer. She is not performing at the level expected of her after one month. She is trying but she seems to be a slow learner. What does your leader do?
 - a. He clearly explains what needs to be done and he oversees her work. He discusses why the procedures are important. He also supports and encourages her.
 - b. He tells her that her time is over and it is time to pull her socks.
 - c. He reviews the task procedures and supervises her work closely.
 - d. He informs her that her training is over, but she should feel free to come to you if she has a problem.

Explain your response ***It is likely possible that Lisebo has not understood what is expected of her as she is a slow learner, supporting and encouraging will help her.***.....

- 5. Tebello has had an excellent performance record in the last five years. But of late there is a noticeable drop in the quantity and quality of her work. She has a family problem. You would like the leader of your institution to
 - a. tell her to get back on track and closely supervises her.
 - b. discuss the problem with her. Help her realize that her per problem is affecting her performance. Discuss ways and means to improve the situation. Be supportive and encourage her.
 - c. tell her that you are aware of her problem and that you are sure she will work it out.
 - d. Discuss the problem, solve it with her, and supervise her closely.

Give reason(s) for your response-**In discussing her problem, she will feel very much cared for. On the other hand the support will alleviate her problem**

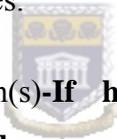
- 6. You have realized that the management team works well with little direction. But recently a conflict between Lineo and Joe, members of the management team, has caused problems. As a result of this, you would like to see the leader of your institution
 - a. call Lineo and Joe together and make them realize how their conflict is affecting the work. Discuss how to resolve it and how you will check to make sure the problem is solved.
 - b. let the group (team) solve the problem.

- c. ~~X~~have Lineo and Joe sit down and discuss their conflict and how to resolve it. Support their effort to implement a solution.
- d. Tell Lineo and Joe how to resolve their conflict and closely supervise them.

Give reason(s) for your response –**If these two discuss their problem it is better because if it is not discussed it may affect others in the manner that they may also pull to the other direction.....**

7. Teboho, the most experienced and productive lecturer, came to the leader of your institution with a detailed idea that could increase the institution’s or department’s productivity at a low cost. It is a new service. He can do his present job plus the new assignment. You think it is an excellent idea. What would you want the leader to do?

- a. ~~X~~Set some goals together. Encourage and support his effort.
- b. Set up goals for Teboho. Be sure he agrees with them and sees management being supportive of his efforts.
- c. Tell Teboho to keep you informed and to come to you if he needs help.
- d. Have him check in with you frequently so that you can direct and supervise his activities.



Support your response with reason(s)-**If he finds out that his efforts are supported/recognized, he will work harder.....**

8. Your boss asked you for a special report. You are a capable lecturer who usually needs no direction or support because you have all necessary skills to do the job. However, you are reluctant because you have never prepared a report before. What would you like your leader to do?

- a. Tell you, you have to do it. Give you direction and supervise you closely.
- b. Describe the project to you and let you do it your way.
- c. Describe the benefits to you. Get your ideas on how to do it and check your progress.
- d. ~~X~~Discuss possible ways of doing the job. Be supportive and encourage you.

Explain your response -**If the boss shows interest in an assistant performance, Tseliso would be motivated to get new experience**

9. Nthabiseng is a top productive person in your department. However, her monthly reports are constantly late and contain errors. Everyone is puzzled because she does everything with no direction or support. What would you like your leader to do?

- a. Go over past reports; explain exactly what is expected of her. Schedule a meeting so that the next report is reviewed with her.
- b. **X** Discuss the problem with her and ask her what can be done about it. Be supportive.
- c. Explain the importance of the report. Ask her what the problem is. Tell her that the report is expected to be on time and without errors.
- d. Remind Nthabiseng to get the report on time and without errors.

Explain your response- **If the problem is discussed, Nthabiseng will see her problem and the support of the boss will do well**

10. The lecturers in your institution are very effective and like to participate in decision making. A consultant was hired to develop a new method for your institution using the latest technology. What should your leader do?

- a. Explain the consultant's method and let the lecturers decide how to implement it.
- b. Teach the lecturers the new method and closely supervise them.
- c. **X** Explain the new method and why it is important. Then, teach them the method and make sure the procedure is followed. Answer the questions posed by the staff.
- d. Explain the new method and get the input of the staff on ways to improve and implement it.

Explain your response- **To brief or tell the subordinates new method gives them chance of comparing as a result the will grasp it easily**

C. MEETINGS

Instructions: You may tick (X) more than one response and write an explanation on the space provided below.

11. How does a leader go about planning meetings in your institution?

- a. He sits and considers if a meeting is necessary
- b. He plans the agenda on his own.
- c. He asks the staff to contribute items for the agenda.
- d. He allocates time for each item on the agenda.

Explain further.....

12. In meetings that your institution holds, how are the decisions reached?
- a. Decisions are well considered based on facts and reason and reached by consensus.
 - b. Decision are forced by individuals; not everyone's point of view receives equal attention.
 - c. Decisions are reached by majority vote.
 - d. Decisions are compromised rather than fully reasoned out. Often it is not clear whether or not decisions are to be made.

Explain-***Currently voting is the answer, the observation is that the authorities do not want to make a decision***

13. When you have to make (take) a decision in a meeting, how are the discussions handled?
- a. Consider ideas and base your conclusions on them.
 - b. Tell them at the start of the meeting that you want their contributions in order to take a decision.
 - c. Tell them your decision and convince them that it is a good decision.
 - d. Ask them to contribute but tell them your decision is final.

Explain...Any meeting in which subordinates are involved must a means to a decision.....

D. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT FOR ACHIEVEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

14. Does your organization/institution have an organizational structure known to you?
(Tick appropriately) a. yes

b. no *X*

15. Do you think everyone knows to whom he/she is responsible?
(Tick appropriately) a. yes

b. no *X*

16. How is performance of lecturers assessed in your institution?
The subordinates are doing their best to uplift their departments

17. What incentives are given if lecturers perform to the expected standard?
Nothing because authorities do not consider their services valuable

E. GENERAL DATA



18. Are you aware / made aware of related academic activities going on outside your institution? (tick appropriately) a. yes

b. no *X*

Explain-*I have no time to visit or read about them because of work overload*

19. What do you do with the information received?
I always do as expected even though the information is not enough.....

20. Generally, how do you relate with the public ie. Other educational institutions, business companies etc?
Department usually invites resource persons from other institutions to talk to students

21. How are the informal structures that exist in your institution handled?

The are not considered at all .The exist and are involved in their private activities

.....

22. How do informal structures relate to formal structures in your institution? How is their relationship handled?

.....*NA*.....

.....

.....

.....

23. What do your leaders do when the unexpected that requires prompt decision occurs in your institution?

Leaders look into the matter or a few individuals are copted.....



24. If change is to take place in your institution, how is it handled?

The leaders tap ideas and suggestions from the lecturers and other institutions.....

25. How do think the history of your institution affects the way it is managed?

It was political and church denomination –oriented, however individual leaders have an influence .

26. Generally, what is your observation on the leadership styles that prevail in your institution?

They vary from leader to leader. But it is generally management by crisis i.e. emergency meetings are the order of the day.

THANK YOU FOR FILLING IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX C: FOLLOW UP QUESTIONNAIRE

Research topic:

Investigating leadership styles in Lesotho Tertiary Institutions: comparing and contrasting practices

1. What actually happens in the planning of the faculty meeting?
Notices are made sometimes, having for the meeting.....

.....
.....
.....
.....



2. In your observation, how are meeting discussions handled in order to reach a decision?
...Sometime people are allowed to vote

3. Has the organizational structure influence on the leadership styles used in the institution?

...Yes. The Director delegates some powers to assistant directors.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

4. What do the leaders of your institution do to sustain good performance of the lecturers?

Nothing.....
.....

.....
.....
.....

5. What do leaders do to lecturers who do not perform to the expected standard?
Currently there is no instrument used for staff appraisal hence performance is often based on subjective judgment.....

6. What is your general observation on the leadership styles used in your institution?
Hard to describe – moving from authoritarian to democratic styles.....

.....
.....

