### Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans in Indonesian Universities

Jenny Ngo, Harry De Boer, Jürgen Enders

Abstract—Indonesian higher education has experienced significant changes over the last decade. In 1999, the government published an overall strategy for decentralisation and enhancement of local autonomy in many sectors, including (higher) education. Indonesian higher education reforms have forced universities to restructure their internal university governance to become more entrepreneurial. These new types of internal university governance are likely to affect the institutions' leadership and management. This paper discusses the approach and findings of a study on the managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities. The study aims to get a better understanding of styles exhibited by deans manifested in their behaviours. Using the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour, in combination with the competing values framework, a large-scale survey was conducted to gather information on the deans' behaviours, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Based on the responses of a sample of 218 deans, the study identifies a number of leadership styles: the Master, the Competitive Consultant, the Consensual Goal-Setter, the Focused Team Captain, and the Informed Trust-Builder style. The study demonstrates that attitudes are the primary determinant of the styles that were found. Perceived behavioural control is a factor that explains some managerial leadership styles. By understanding the attitudes of deans in Indonesian universities, and their leadership styles, universities can strengthen their management and governance, and thus improve their effectiveness.

*Keywords*—Deans, Indonesian higher education, leadership and management, style.

### I. INTRODUCTION

Leadership and management studies usually concentrate on those at the top, such as chief executive officers or presidents. Few studies focus on leaders and managers at the middle level, although their impact on organisational performance is acknowledged [1]. Also, in higher education studies, the deanship is an under-investigated topic, although the number of deanship studies is growing [2]-[7]. This is somewhat surprising, given the key role of deans in higher education institutions [8]. Deans have been described as the "unsung professionals of the academy" because their contributions were "rarely recognized" [3]. The studies that have been carried out so far are mainly from Anglo-Saxon or West European countries. With some exceptions [7], studies on middle management in higher education elsewhere are rare.

Jenny Ngo is with Sekolah Tinggi Teknik Surabaya, Surabaya 60284, Indonesia (corresponding author, phone: +6281238706035; fax: +62315041509; e-mail: jennyngo@stts.edu).

Harry De Boer is with the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies, University of Twente, 7500 AE Enschede, the Netherlands (e-mail: h.f.deboer@utwente.nl).

Jürgen Enders is with the Southampton Education School, University of Southampton, Southampton, United Kingdom (e-mail: j.enders@soton.ac.uk).

This is regrettable, as higher education systems in Asia, Africa and Latin America are rapidly changing and are providing interesting cases of the dynamics in higher education, including academic middle management. Therefore, it makes sense to study how deans in a non-Western setting run their faculties. This paper intends to contribute to filling this gap by presenting the results of a study on the deanship in Indonesian universities.

### A. Higher Education Policy Reform

The Asian financial crisis in the middle of 1997 and the fall of the Suharto government in 1998 generated a new context for universities to define their role in society. The government's centralised approach to steer the public sector was becoming obsolete [8]. In 1999, the government published an overall strategy for the enhancement of local autonomy in many sectors, including (higher) education [10]. In line with these new policies, public higher education institutions have been restructured. They were granted more institutional autonomy, funding mechanisms were changed, and market-driven approaches were introduced [11]. The public institutions are expected to become more entrepreneurial and innovative. They are supposed to create new fund-raising systems, to improve their services in order to successfully compete in education markets, to be more accountable to the public at large, and are encouraged to establish corporate-style governance structures [9], [11].

Private universities that are run as business institutions and subject to government regulation and policy [12] have also had to improve their management in order to better compete in higher education markets [11]. The reforms encouraged them to strengthen their strategic planning capacity (e.g. increasing the number of undergraduate and graduate programmes) and their human resources (e.g. recruiting qualified academics and skilled administrative staff) [9], [12]. They have had to work more intensively to find external funding sources and diversify their existing income streams.

### B. Roles of Middle Managers in Higher Education

The higher education policy reforms have forced both the public and private universities to restructure their internal university governance [9], [11]. One of the changes is influencing the functioning of academic leaders and managers. However, not much is known about how Indonesian deans run their faculties. Our objective is to better understand the Indonesian deanship so we investigated the managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities. The key questions of our study are: What managerial leadership styles

do deans in Indonesian universities exhibit? How can the styles be explained?

As the head of a faculty, deans are expected to provide administrative as well as academic leadership, including financial, personnel, services and facilities management. These roles of deans in Indonesian universities are similar to the roles of deans elsewhere, i.e. a role of manager (an administrator), (strategic) leader and scholar [3], [13], [14], [15]. As a manager, a dean is expected to focus on the detail of daily operations (e.g. budgets, administrative records). As a (strategic) leader, a dean is supposed to act as a visionary by setting long-term goals and plans for the faculty. As a scholar, a dean should be engaged in both research and teaching. These multiple roles have been reported in several studies from various countries [4]. Yet, since higher education systems, universities, and their constituencies are expressions of a nation's historic memory and culture, it should be no surprise that structures, practices and procedures within universities might differ. Therefore, we assume that the Indonesian traditional culture which emphasises mutual assistance (gotong royong), consensus for decision-making (musyawarah), assertiveness and collective well-being will make the Indonesian deanship different from the leadership elsewhere in certain respects [16], [17].

### II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### A. Understanding the Dean's Behaviours

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) [18] and the reasoned action approach (RAA) [19] have been used to understand why deans act in a particular way. The TRA assumes that behaviour is a function of two basic determinants, one personal and the other reflecting social influence. The first determinant is a person's attitude towards a behaviour. The TRA defines an attitude as a person's evaluation of a particular behaviour along dimensions of favour or disfavour, good or bad, or like or dislike [18]. Attitudes are formed by a person's thinking about the consequences of a behaviour. For instance, after an evaluation of various effects of the behaviour 'building consensus', a dean who believes that adopting this behaviour will lead to mostly positive outcomes will have a favourable attitude towards 'building consensus'. The second determinant of behaviour is the subjective norm. This is a belief that others who are important to a person think that this person should or should not adopt a particular behaviour. It is the outcome of a person's thinking about others' approval or disapproval of a behaviour [18]. For example, if a dean believes that the university president thinks that consensus building is important in policy making and values the president's opinion, then this may influence the dean's attitude towards consensus building. According to the TRA, a positive attitude and a positive subjective norm lead to the adoption of a behaviour. The relative importance of attitudes and subjective norms in explaining behaviour differs between persons and situations and can only be determined empirically [18].

The TRA has been used in many empirical studies in various fields [20] including in education [21], [22] and in various cultural settings [23] who apply the TRA to Korea, Hawaii and the United States to investigate cultural effects. Apart from appreciation, the TRA has attracted criticism [6]. It has been criticised because of its focus on volitional behaviours (behaviours under a person's control). Not all behaviours however are under volitional control (for a discussion see [19]). Having a positive attitude and positive subjective norms may not be sufficient to adopt a behaviour. Information, skills, opportunities, and other resources can be required. Moreover, the TRA has been criticised for its simplicity and robustness, i.e. the limited number of variables used in the model [24]. For example, moral obligations [25] and past behaviour [26] have been mentioned as additional variables to explain behaviour.

Hence, Fishbein and Ajzen [19] extended the original model by adding perceived behavioural control as a third determinant for behaviour. Perceived behavioural control is the extent to which a person believes that he/she has the capacity to adopt a behaviour. If a person thinks that such a capacity is absent, a person will probably not adopt the behaviour, even if this person has positive attitudes and subjective norms towards it. For example, if a dean believes that taking decisions decisively is good (attitude) and that the university president would like a dean to act that way (social norm) but lacks the formal powers to act decisively, the dean can decide not to act in such a way. While there is an on-going debate about the (dis)advantages of the extended model compared to the original one [27], [28], we have included perceived behavioural control in our theoretical reasoning as the third factor to explain leadership behaviour. We will, therefore, use three determinants (i.e. attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) to explain the deanship styles. Because the reasoned action approach does not say anything about the kind of behaviour that we are interested in, the approach is "coloured in" by using a sophisticated framework on managerial leadership (the competing values framework, see next section) which forms the conceptual framework of our study. As far as we know, it is the first time that such a conceptual framework that integrates the reasoned action approach and the competing values framework has been established.

### B. Leadership Styles

To explore the deans' behaviours and their leadership styles, Quinn's [29] Competing Values Framework (CVF) provides a good fit for our study. The CVF is constructed around two dimensions that indicate the tensions or competing values that exist in every organization [29], [30]. The vertical dimension ranges from flexibility and adaptability to control and stability in organizational structure, and the horizontal dimension concerns organizational focus that ranges from internal to external [31]. These two dimensions form four quadrants, each representing a primary characteristic of an organisation: Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy [29]-[32]. Each quadrant defines two roles of leadership. Fig. 1

presents the eight leadership roles described in the CVF, representing opposite or competing assumptions; they are competing on the diagonal which is a continuum of the two opposite points.



Fig. 1 Eight leadership roles in the CVF (adapted from [29], [30])

Theoretically, the CVF convincingly integrates a number of traditions in organisation theory, such as human relations, open system, rational goal and internal process theories [31]. The integrated framework addresses the complex and paradoxical roles faced by leaders and managers [29], [31]. Leaders might focus on goal attainment and be task-oriented and at the same time may have concern for employees and be people-oriented. Such different concerns are potentially in conflict. The comprehensiveness of the CVF in which multiple and potentially competing concerns are integrated is its major strength.

Because of its conceptual strengths, the framework has been applied successfully in a variety of organisational studies, focusing on topics such as leadership roles and styles, organisational effectiveness, organisational culture, organisational communications, organisational development, change and transformations, human resource development, and strategy development [33]. The CVF has been studied and tested in organisations for "more than 25 years by a group of thought leaders from leading business schools and corporations" and "has been named as one of the 40 most important frameworks in the history of business" [32]. Many empirical studies have validated the CVF as a valuable and powerful instrument to assess leadership and organisational effectiveness [30], [34], [35].

Yet the CVF has its limitations. It is clearly leadership-focused, looking at roles, behaviours and styles. Arguably, leadership practice, in which practice is the result of interactions of leaders, followers and their situation [36] hardly gets any attention. According to the distributed leadership perspective, context and situation are critical factors in understanding leadership [37] and this perspective seems to be missing in the CVF. We would argue that the CVF and distributed leadership approaches share some common elements. The Clan quadrant in which the facilitator role in the CVF is defined (see Fig. 1) is related to the concept of distributed leadership. For example, the actions of facilitating consensus building in the faculty, encouraging

participative decision making in the faculty, encouraging subordinates to share ideas, and building teamwork among faculty members show the inclusion of followers in the decision-making process in the faculty. By the same token, the CVF's broker role provides information on the interaction among leaders. Moreover, we would argue that the subjective norm as one of the three determinants that explain behaviour partially reflects the context in which behaviour of deans is shaped. But it is clear that leadership styles can be studied from different angles. In our study, we decided to take the CVF approach, which has consequences, as we will argue in the discussion section, for the study's findings.

### C. Theoretical Framework of the Study

The CVF is used to operationalise the behavioural model and forms the basis of the theoretical framework, as shown in Fig. 2. To investigate the deanship styles, we used the '3-1 concept of assessment' based on the CVF: behaviours—roles—styles. Quinn's [29] leadership instrument lists 32 behaviours. Examples of such behaviours are 'setting clear objectives for the faculty', 'facilitating consensus building' or 'showing empathy and concern'. A number of behaviours constitute a particular role. In total, the 32 behaviours lead to eight leadership roles (see Fig. 1). Next, leadership styles are explored based on configurations of the eight leadership roles within the CVF. In this paper, a deanship style is defined as a configuration of eight CVF leadership roles that, in turn, are based on a set of particular behaviours.

To examine why deans show a particular leadership style, we assume that this can be explained by the deans' attitudes, their subjective norms, and their perceived behavioural control. Deans will show a leadership style when they have a positive attitude towards the style, when they have a positive subjective norm for the style, and when they believe that they have control over the style (see Fig. 2).

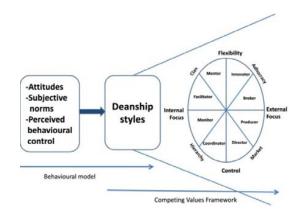


Fig. 2 The behavioural model and eight leadership roles in the CVF [6]

### III. METHODOLOGY

### A. Data collection, Population, and Sample

Two surveys were conducted to collect the data. In the first, we aimed to measure the deans' leadership styles from their

attitudes and their subjective norms. After having decided to extend the TRA model, a second survey was sent as a follow-up to the respondents of the first survey. Before conducting the first survey, we sent the questionnaire to 10 deans as a pilot to ensure that the questions were clear and understood by the deans [38].

The questionnaires were sent to deans only. Hence, we measured our key variables through self-reporting. We are aware of the potential disadvantages of this approach. Firstly, there may be a discrepancy between what deans say they do and what they actually do. Secondly, deans also may choose not to report their behaviour accurately because of issues of socially sensitive behaviours [19]. We believe that the way the questions were phrased did not result in socially desirable answers. In such a case, it is unlikely that self-reporting behaviours will differ from actual behaviours [39].

Determining the targeted population for the survey was a challenge because there were no data on the total number of deans in Indonesian universities. Data on higher education for the year 2006-2007 indicate that at the time there were 419 universities in Indonesia. The number of faculties at each of the 419 universities varies. If we assume that the average university has eight faculties, there are more than 3,330 deans. It would be preferable to have all deans participating in our research, but, for pragmatic reasons, this was considered not feasible (due to limitations of data accessibility, time and cost).

Of these 419 Indonesian universities, 120 are accredited [40]. These accredited universities include private and public, small and large, and suburban and urban universities. They were the starting point for our sampling. Assuming that these universities have, on average, eight faculties, there would be a total population of 960 deans. A stratified random sample was used to guarantee represented good geographical spread. Next, half of the 120 universities were selected via a random sampling.

The first survey was sent by post to 443 deans (the sample population) in these 60 universities. A total of 218 deans returned a completed questionnaire (almost 49%). The second survey, a one-page questionnaire, was sent by fax to these 218 deans. A total of 75 questionnaires were received in the second round, representing 34% of the respondents from the first survey. We compared the sample with the response based on the discipline of the faculty (i.e. technical vs. nontechnical). The results indicated that there were no differences [Chi-square (1, N = 218) = 1.15, p > 0.05]. Furthermore, in terms of geographical spread, we also compared the questionnaires returned with the questionnaire disseminated from each region. The results again indicated that there were no differences [Chi-square (7, N = 218) = 4.31, p > 0.05]. Therefore, we conclude that the response sample among deans from accredited Indonesian universities is representative as regards these two variables.

Of the 218 responding deans, 82% were men. On average, they were 52 years old and had served in their current positions for nearly two years. About 58% worked in public universities and 42% in private universities. Nearly two-thirds

came from non-technical faculties (64%); the remaining 36% came from technical faculties. Faculty size varied. The vast majority of the deans served a medium-sized faculty, which, in the Indonesian context, means between 1,000 and 5,000 students and between 100 and 500 faculty staff members.

### B. Measures

To measure the items Likert scales were used, in most cases ranging from 1 to 7. Dependent variable: deanship styles. To assess leadership styles, the deans were asked to indicate how often they engaged in 32 general managerial items derived from the leadership instruments [29]. Eight leadership roles, each based on the four items, were identified. For each role, the items were internally consistent (with Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.68 to 0.81).

Independent variable 1: attitudes. To assess attitudes, the deans were asked to rank the importance of the perceived consequences of their behaviour. The alpha coefficient for the eight items was 0.87. Independent variable 2: subjective norms. To assess subjective norms, the deans were also asked about important others' perceptions of faculty leadership, also based on the CVF. The alpha coefficient for the four items was 0.90. Independent variable 3: perceived behavioural controls. To determine the deans' perceived behavioural control, they were asked to rank the degree of control they had over relevant constraints regarding their leadership behaviours, for which three types of constraints were used: environmental control (5 items,  $\alpha = 0.70$ ), internal control (4 items,  $\alpha = 0.70$ ), and practical control (2 items,  $\alpha = 0.80$ ).

### C. Data Analysis

The quantitative data analysis was carried out in two steps. In the first step, we explored the kind of managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities, answering our first research question. In this part of the analysis, descriptive statistics were used. Then, a cluster analysis was carried out to classify and identify Indonesian deans who had similar patterns of leadership style based on the eight roles from the CVF. This analysis helped us to identify specific deanship styles. To prepare for a two-step cluster analysis, the eight leadership roles were divided into a dummy variable, indicating whether a leadership role was more ('value 1') or less ('value 0') important in the dean's leadership style. If all eight roles were equally important, each of them would represent 12.5% of the dean's leadership style. A leadership role measuring equal to or more than 12.5% means that this role is relatively important in a dean's leadership style; the opposite is true for percentages below 12.5%.

In the second step, we examined the path relationship of the models, dealing with the second research question: how these styles can be explained. In this part of the analysis, we used correlation and regression analyses to examine the influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on the deanship styles.

### IV. FINDINGS

### A. Deanship Styles

The deans were asked to indicate how frequently they adopted each of the 32 behaviours derived from the CVF. They reported that they generally adopted all the 32 behaviours when running their faculties. More than a third (37%) reported that they always adopted more than 24 of the 32 behaviours. Only 13% reported that they frequently adopted less than nine different behaviours. The high mean scores for each of the behaviours confirm this adoption of a broad range of behaviours (from 5.0 to 6.3 on a 7-point Likert scale).

The deans demonstrate a leadership style that embraces all eight leadership roles (to some extent). They act as facilitators, producers, directors, coordinators, mentors, monitors and, to a lesser extent, innovators and brokers. Based on Quinn's CVF [29], [31], deans in Indonesian universities seem to be masters of management. They report being able to cope with competing values and play various roles, showing behaviours that are related to these different roles. We appropriately called their managerial leadership style the Master style, which is predominant in Indonesian universities.

Next, we undertook a more sophisticated cluster analysis. This cluster analysis identified four clearly distinguished configurations. The leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities are: the Competitive Consultant, the Consensual Goal-Setter, the Focused Team Captain, and the Informed Trust-Builder. These four styles are outlined in Figs. 3-6, respectively. The figures represent the percentages of deans with this style who perceived each role as important.

### 1. The Competitive Consultant Style

A total of 37% of the deans adopt the Competitive Consultant style. It is the most frequently shown by Indonesian deans in this study. Like the Master style, it can be seen as a comprehensive style, as all the eight leadership roles are present. The Competitive Consultant is mainly represented by the director and producer roles, followed by the facilitator role.

### **Competitive Consultant Style**



Fig. 3 The competitive consultant style

### 2. The Consensual Goal-Setter Style

A total of 24% of the deans adopt the Consensual Goal-Setter style which is mainly characterised by the facilitator and director roles. The coordinator, mentor, and producer roles are found to a lesser extent. The broker, monitor and innovator roles are hardly found.

# Consensual Goal-Setter Style Innovator (0%) Mentor (50%) Facilitator (100%) Monitor (100%) Director (100%)

Fig. 4 The consensual goal-setter style

### 3. The Focused Team Captain Style

A total of 20% of the deans have the Focused Team Captain style. This style includes the facilitator and producer and, to some extent, a coordinator. Other roles such as mentor, broker, innovator, and monitor are limited, and the director role is absent.

## Facilitator Monitor Facilitator Monitor Facilitator Monitor Facilitator Monitor Facilitator Monitor Director (9%)

Fig. 5 The focused team captain style

### 4. The Informed Trust-Builder Style

A total of 18% of the deans adopt the Informed Trust-Builder style, which is also fairly comprehensive. Many roles are present, especially the mentor, while the roles from the adhocracy quadrant are totally absent (innovator and broker).

### B. Understanding the Deanship Styles in Indonesian Universities

To determine the impact of attitudes and subjective norms on the styles, both bivariate and multiple linear regression analyses were used. The results of the bivariate regression analysis (*N*=215) show that attitudes for the Master style as well as for the four specific styles positively influence the deanship styles, as expected. Subjective norms also positively influence all the styles, although not as strongly as attitudes.

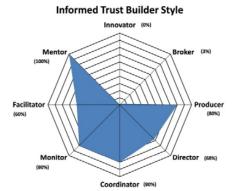


Fig. 6 The informed trust builder style

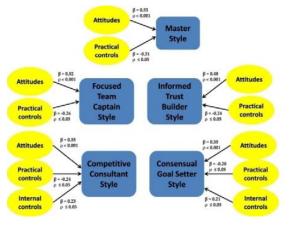


Fig. 7 The influence of attitudes, practical controls and internal controls on the deanship styles in Indonesian universities

The results of the multiple linear regression analysis (N=215) only partially confirm these outcomes. When both attitudes and subjective norms were entered into the regression model, attitudes significantly explained all the styles, whereas subjective norms were no longer significant. The results are indicated by the relatively high beta coefficients of attitudes, ranging from 0.53 to 0.57 (all p-values < 0.001). Further analysis demonstrates that attitudes and subjective norms appear to be intercorrelated (r coefficient = 0.55). However, there is no serious multicollinearity (Tol = 0.696, VIF = 1.436). Therefore, our expectation holds that attitudes greatly explain the leadership style of deans.

To determine the impact of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on the styles, a multiple linear regression analysis was carried out (*N*=73). The outcomes show that the deanship styles are strongly and positively influenced by attitudes and moderately and negatively influenced by practical controls (see Fig. 7). This holds true for the Master style, the Focused Team Captain, and the Informed Trust-Builder styles. The Competitive Consultant style and the Consensual Goal-Setter style are influenced by attitudes, practical controls, and internal controls (see Fig. 7). These confirm the theoretical assumption that the more favourable the deans' attitudes towards a style and the greater

their perceived behavioural control over this style, the more likely it is that the deans will adopt this particular style.

The negative relationship between practical controls and the deanship styles indicates that the greater the constraints related to workloads and complexity, the less likely the deans will demonstrate their styles. This suggests that not exhibiting a certain style is partially explained by practical controls. The effect of attitudes, practical controls, and to some extent internal controls in explaining the deanship styles was significantly greater for the Master style ( $R^2 = 0.35$ , F (5, 68) = 8.72, P< 0.001) followed by the Focused Team Captain style ( $R^2 = 0.33$ , F (5, 68) = 8.09, P< 0.001), and the Competitive Consultant style ( $R^2 = 0.33$ , F (5, 68) = 7.98, P< 0.001).

### V.DISCUSSION

This study has demonstrated that deans in Indonesian universities were engaged in the 32 behaviours of management, embracing the eight CVF managerial leadership roles that we derived from Quinn's Competing Values Framework Instrument [29]. Deans seem to understand that they need to strengthen the faculty missions, visions and strategic goals, and communicate these to the faculty members and other constituents. The many activities of deans at Indonesian universities reflect the greater responsibilities and multifaceted roles found worldwide [3], [8], [13]-[15]. This rise of the 'executive dean' or 'academic manager' is reported in various countries [3]. Although it was not the purpose of this study to examine the deanship transformation at Indonesian universities, we believe that the Master style contains elements of leading and managing in the Indonesian context that would have been less obvious in the past.

Indonesian deans being 'masters of management' seems a remarkable outcome, and to some extent unlikely, because exhibiting an array of behaviours and roles with contrasting underlying values is demanding. Arguably, the number of people with the skills and resources to perform such a variety of roles is likely to be small. This is exactly why the deanship is seen as such a challenging and crucial position in university management. One explanation for this outcome could be that the deans' behaviours are measured in this study through self-reporting, which might lead to a bias in overestimating one's capabilities or giving socially desirable answers. There could be aspects of wishful thinking ("This is the way I should run a faculty, and, therefore, I will report that I do run the faculty this way").

A 360-degree feedback approach would thus be an attractive add-on to the approach of our study. Feedback that comes from relevant others, such as academic staff, university boards, rectors, and administrative staff could provide more accuracy and reduce the halo effect [41]. This approach however also has downsides. People may inflate ratings to make someone look good or they may deflate ratings to make someone look bad [41]. In Indonesian culture, people "are concerned about the effect of their actions on the feelings of others and take care not to upset others" [17] and, therefore, the 360-degree feedback approach has its down-sides as well. Moreover, this approach is likely to face pragmatic problems.

Apart from low response rates, it would require a huge number of participants.

Nevertheless, we believe it would be worth conducting future research to determine whether the styles that we have discovered in this study are supported by the views of others such as institutional leaders and faculty staff. In such a follow-up study, one could stress interaction between institutional leaders and between leaders and followers by introducing the concept of distributed leadership [36]. A stronger focus on leadership practice in Indonesian universities would also offer the possibility to address our next points. The results of our study could be used to launch a more comprehensive, in-depth study.

In the study, the deans reported on how often they performed a particular activity. This reveals neither the intensity nor the effectiveness of a particular behaviour. The deans report that they set targets or build consensus, but we have not measured what this actually entails. Some behaviours may be superficial, in which case it becomes easier to perform a range of (contrasting) activities. Although Quinn assumes that such multi-facetedness contributes to the effectiveness of leadership, measuring the effectiveness of leadership was not part of this study. Whether or not the 'masters of management' in this study are effective leaders requires further research.

Apart from the Master style, this study has revealed the four distinguished styles of deanship in Indonesian universities: the Competitive Consultant, Consensual Goal-Setter, Focused Team Captain, and Informed Trust-Builder. With respect to these styles, the market and clan aspects seem particularly important, referring to director-producer and facilitator-mentor roles. The innovator and broker roles, in the adhocracy aspect, are the least important. This implies that the deans are less likely to perform activities associated with creativity, entrepreneurialism, innovation, risk, and external legitimacy [29], [32]. While government is expecting universities and deans to become more entrepreneurial and innovative, the results of our study show that deans are less likely to adopt such roles. Policy attention is thus needed to find means for developing managerial capacity in these areas, aligned with organisational policies that support the further development of middle managers. For example, governmental and organisational policies could be aligned to provide programmes for further leadership development and exchange on 'good practice' in management roles that are key to universities' development. Such initiatives also need to be sensitive to the political and cultural context of Indonesian leadership in general and of university leadership in particular.

Our findings are somewhat similar to that of Nguyen's research [7] which found that middle academic managers at Hanoi University of Industry in Vietnam were less likely to take risks and be creative. Nguyen's study indicates that the Vietnamese centralised planning approach limited the roles of the middle academic managers in entrepreneurial activities. In our case, traditional Indonesian values may prevent deans from being pro-active and entrepreneurial change agents. Traditional values seem to underline a family culture which emphasizes harmony, mutual respect and assistance,

collectivism and authority [16], [17]. Indonesia has a strong cultural tradition of communal living and collective actions, which seems to encourage people-oriented leadership.

Our findings are thus in line with the findings of House et al.'s [42] leadership study on Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) which analysed the interrelationships between societal culture, organisational culture and practices and organisational leadership in 62 countries, including Indonesia. House et al. [42] surveyed thousands of middle managers in food processing, finance and telecommunications and identified six global leadership dimensions (charismatic/value-based, teamoriented, self-protective, participative, humane-oriented, and autonomous). According to the outcomes of the GLOBE study, Indonesian middle managers are more likely to adopt a charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, and humane (caring) leadership style.

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