CHAPTER – FOUR

DISCUSSION
Based on the trivariate factorial constitution of the research design, the results are first condensed in the form of a grand summary. They are thereafter elaborated upon to form a basis for discussion in terms of pertinent findings of the study in order to seek a relationship and meaningful linkage with available literature. The views and observations are amalgamated and presented in this chapter in terms of self-regulation for performance; organisational ethos, climate and culture; subordinate-centered leadership and empowerment; structural embeddedness and interactions; opinion leadership and its domain of influence.

4.1 LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND SELF-REGULATION

As locus of control is a state of mind, leaders who are internals are more likely to reach the potential effectiveness of their roles because internality, as an attribute, tends to be a contributor to performance, which in turn, is not an unadulterated measure of ability (Bandura, 1990; Sternberg and Kolligian, 1990). Performance is heavily infused with many motivational and self-regulatory determinants, and unmeasured factors such as perceived self-efficacy at that time. Efficacy beliefs are auto-correlated, and affect both prior and later performance. Leader effectiveness is perceived in terms of the achievement of desired results, and therefore, leadership tends to be judged as a goal-centric process. Bhattacharya (2002) stated that the most important facet of effective leadership was a clear definition and understanding of goals and objectives. Unless he is clear about his objectives, all his efforts, however well intentioned they may be, would be directionless and fruitless. In the development of a model of corporate excellence, Pattanayak et al. (2002) extracted ten factors viz. organisation culture, customer satisfaction, goal setting, team work, planning system and procedure, superior-subordinate relationship, role designing, product innovation, inter-intra organisational fit, and target-technology interface.

The focus on goals is a vital component of the leadership process, and the present study showed that goal orientation could be achieved by internals in private universities. The goal-striving process refers to the manner in which people manage their thoughts and actions while working toward an outcome. Such self-regulation efforts are continually required in the workplace, as employees attempt to accomplish various goals and assignments, and reflect an internality orientation by the leader.
VandeWalle et al (1999) found that a learning goal orientation (but not a performance goal orientation) predicted an emphasis on skill building, which in turn predicted better sales performance. Lee et al (2003) found that mental focus was significantly and positively related to enjoyment and performance, and goal level was significantly and positively related to performance. They suggested that effective leaders would shape the self-regulation behaviours associated with them.

Internal locus of control substituted for low emotional intelligence to facilitate goal orientation factor of leader effectiveness in both types of universities. Goal orientation refers to two types of superordinate goals that people can hold during task performance (Nicholls, 1984). Goal orientation in a performance domain has been classified along two dimensions. Learning goal orientation is characterised by a desire for challenge and learning opportunities in that domain. Performance goal orientation is characterised by a desire for easy success or to gain praise in that domain (Chen et al, 2000). They found that both learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation were related to task-specific self-efficacy through different variables. A learning goal orientation cues an individual to believe that competence can be improved, to evaluate competence in relation to previous competence, and to choose and persist on a challenging task (Dweck, 1986; Harackiewicz and Elliot, 1993). In contrast, a performance goal orientation cues an individual to believe that competence is not likely to change, to evaluate his competence in relation to others’, and to choose a task in which he can prove his competence and avoid failure.

Steele-Johnson et al (2000) found that individuals with a learning goal motivation reported higher levels of motivation in terms of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation, and individuals with a performance goal motivation reported higher levels of self-efficacy on a consistent task. Their results indicated that individuals with a performance learning goal orientation were more satisfied with their performance on a simple task than on a difficult task, and those with learning goal orientation were unaffected by task difficulty. Thus, while learning goal orientation can be viewed along a strategic path, performance goal orientation is rooted in the present, and has a sense of urgency for the leader and for the organisation. If emotions are poorly understood, internals are more effective, when focussed on their goals. Goal orientation has been found to predict performance (Dweck, 1991), and has important implications for training and motivation in organisational contexts (Fisher and Ford,
referred to three important self-regulatory processes, which are relevant to goal orientation effects: self-monitoring, self-efficacy and self-evaluation. A goal orientation sharpens the focus of efforts and resources around a theme, and enables the leader to align his organisation towards the collective vision. The focus diminishes the wastage of resources, and directs efforts towards the desired targets. Positive mood has been linked to a range of performance-linked behaviours such as greater helping behaviour, enhanced creativity, more efficient decision making, greater cooperation, and the use of more successful negotiation strategies (Baron, 1990; Forgas, 1998; Staw and Barsade, 1993).

When employees help each other complete a task, cooperate with their supervisors, or suggest ways to improve organisational processes, they engage in contextual performance (Van Scotter et al, 2000). Internals encourage supportive systems within both universities, even when emotional intelligence is low. Both internals and externals use high emotional intelligence to achieve helping relationship aspect of role efficacy in both types of universities, under certain conditions. Studies have shown that people often become defensive in reaction to help, and therefore, reject or devalue help that is offered to them (Searcy and Eisenberg, 1992). Recipients with low self-esteem may overutilise helping sources, thus creating a vicious cycle in which they label themselves as dependent, rely less on their own resources, and validate their behaviour by using external resources (Nadler, 1991). Recipients feel indebted to their helpers, have a lower level of self-esteem, and experience an increased level of stress (Midlarsky, 1991). Higgins (2001) argued that in addition to the evaluative nature of a helping relationship, individual reactions to helping interventions may vary as a function of the timing of the help that is given.

According to Cooper and Marshall (1978), locus of control and role efficacy are two of the individual factors causing role stress. Job stress can have consequences for the individual as well as for his organisation in the form of increased turnover intentions, reduced job satisfaction and reduced self-esteem (Beehr, 1985). As leadership is a vital process, stakeholders make many demands on his finite time and limited resources. Tasks have to be performed in less time than usual, and within tight deadlines, which is more prevalent in private universities. As the spokesman of the organisation, he may have to admit to failure, and yet, remain hopeful and confident.
of winning in a difficult situation. The leader with internality is emotionally prepared
to take on the tough responsibilities of his position, in part due to his high self-
efficacy. His role efficacy is facilitated when he is an internal, and when supported by
his high emotional intelligence. Even in the absence of high emotional intelligence,
internality had a positive effect on role efficacy, in both types of universities. Role
efficacy has been found to have therapeutic effects on emotions in the workplace, and
therefore, on performance. Das (1984)\(^{29}\) found that role efficacy had an important
moderating effect on role stress and organisational climate. Pestonjee (1992)\(^{30}\)
observed that role efficacy reduced role stress.

Pandey (1997)\(^{31}\) found a negative relationship between each dimension of role
efficacy and each dimension of role stress. Studies by Mohan and Chauhan (1999a\(^{32}\)
and 1999b\(^{33}\)) in three industrial sectors found that there was a positive correlation
between motives and role efficacy, with significant negative correlation in the case of
achievement motive. They concluded that persons with high role efficacy tended to
use their motives more effectively in the organisation, and therefore, showed less
dysfunctional behaviour. Using emotional intelligence, effective leaders would show
consistent behaviour, whatsoever the provocation, enabling them to influence people,
more easily. Individuals low on emotional stability are often described as frustrated,
hopeless, dependent, and socially anxious (Barrick and Mount, 1991;\(^{34}\) Costa and
McCrae, 1992;\(^{35}\) Mount and Barrick, 1995)\(^{36}\). Costa and McCrae (1992)\(^{37}\) suggested
that the disruptive emotions of such individuals would often interfere with their ability
to adapt to stressful situations, causing them to cope poorly with stress and high levels
of task demands. Emotional exhaustion closely resembles traditional stress reactions
such as fatigue, job-related depression, psychosomatic complaints, and anxiety
(Demerouti et al, 2001)\(^{38}\). Maslach (1992)\(^{39}\) defined it as a chronic state of emotional
and physical depletion. It is a type of strain, which is a result of workplace stressors.

Cropanzano et al (2003)\(^{40}\) found that it predicted turnover intentions,
organisational commitment and job performance across the effects of age, gender and
ethnicity. Such incidents and examples may be symptomatic of low emotional
intelligence, but the confidence of internals in private universities could facilitate a
variety of role efficacy aspects. Kedarnath (1988)\(^{41}\) demonstrated that internals were
far less likely to be affected by role stress than externals. His study of universitising
professionals found that the negative relationship between organisational role stress
and job involvement was reported to be higher for the high locus of control group as compared to the low locus of control group. He also found that role stress was inversely associated with job involvement in that sample. Locus of control has a moderating influence on both stress and role efficacy (Chauhan, 2002). The very nature of the role causes inherent problems in the performance of that role. Role stress was therefore inevitable for managers as their job involves problem solving and decision-making, and interaction with people and resources for the achievement of personal and organizational goals. Findings by Mohan et al. (2002a and 2002b) again confirmed that internal locus of control had a negative correlation with role stress, while external locus of control had a positive correlation. Role efficacy had a positive relationship with internal locus of control and negative relationship with external locus of control.

Leaders with high emotional intelligence would control their moods and feelings, so that their attentional resources are not lost or diverted, elsewhere. George and Brief’s (1996) model of the effects of feelings on work motivation proposed that people use their moods to focus their attention on particular motivational agendas at work. When the employee is focused on job performance, positive mood produces greater effort on work tasks, due to mood-congruent effects on judgement, recall and attributions, and enhances persistence on work tasks. Negative mood shifts his attention away from the job performance, and reduces the resources available for producing high performance. Luthans (2002) identified emotional intelligence as the fifth of five key elements of his CHOSE model for the positive approach in organisation behaviour, the first four elements being confidence, hope, optimism, and subjective well-being. He included self-efficacy within the element of confidence. Optimism and emotional intelligence have been found to offer a positive relationship to the effectiveness of individuals and groups. Even externals using high emotional intelligence achieved role efficacy in State universities. The effective leader does not allow his moods and those of the people around him in State universities to interfere with his decision making and other workplace functions. An understanding and application of emotions at work therefore offsets any lack of internality to facilitate role efficacy. Mood affects a range of processes, including perception, reasoning, memory and behaviour, all of which may be involved in determining performance outcomes (Parkinson et al, 1996).
Mathews (1992)\textsuperscript{48} identified three main types of mechanisms to account for the effects of mood on performance. Mood diverts attentional resources when it interferes with processing; it alters resource availability and resource allocation strategy when it affects processing efficiency; and it selects particular processes when it biases processing. Barrick and Mount (1991)\textsuperscript{49} found strong evidence that consciousness was the most valid and reliable predictor of job performance across a range of occupations. Individuals who were high on conscientiousness are typically dependable, hard working and achievement-oriented, and possess high levels of self-discipline and deliberateness in their actions. In team settings, they have been found to strive for successful task performance, irrespective of their roles or responsibilities (Zander and Forward, 1968)\textsuperscript{50}. Such behaviour is indicative of internals confronting the expectations and needs of their position with focus, dedication and energy. High emotional intelligence and internality substituted for each other’s absence to facilitate confrontation aspect of role efficacy in private universities. Internality also covered up for low emotional intelligence to enable internals to succeed in confronting problems to achieve role efficacy in both types of universities.

Sen (1982)\textsuperscript{51} reported negative and significant correlation between role efficacy and role stressors and total role stress, in a study of universities employees. He found high and positive correlation between role efficacy and internality, and negative and significant correlation between role efficacy and externality. Surti (1983)\textsuperscript{52} found a negative correlation between role efficacy and externality (others), in a study of working women in various vocational categories. Sayeed (1985)\textsuperscript{53} showed a negative correlation between role efficacy and role stress. Persons with high role efficacy seemed to experience less role stress, anxiety and work-related tension (Deo, 1993)\textsuperscript{54}. Surti (2000)\textsuperscript{55} found that there were significant differences amongst the role efficacies of eight professional groups covered in his study. Amongst them, the universities employees felt the least efficacious in their roles. He attributed their low scores to their (self-perceived) relatively low position as clerks in the hierarchy of the universities. It did not permit them to make decisions or give them any freedom or flexibility to affect their workplace, due to the routine nature of their jobs.

Hierarchical position affected self-role integration, which could be facilitated in private universities by internals with high emotional intelligence. In State universities, internals could achieve self-role integration aspect of role efficacy, even
with low emotional intelligence. The use of creativity at the workplace substantially enhances leader effectiveness. Contextual factors in organisations have substantially influenced the degree to which employees perform creatively, and the impact of these factors and practices may vary as a function of the employees’ creative personalities (Amabile, 1988\textsuperscript{56} and 1996;\textsuperscript{57} Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Woodman et al, 1993)\textsuperscript{58}. Amabile (1988)\textsuperscript{59} identified a climate where innovation was prized to promote creativity among R&D scientists. Dhar and Sayeed (2000)\textsuperscript{60} concluded that centrality, proactivity and creativity appeared to be the most relevant role efficacy aspects in the context of organisational values. Their study covered a sample of 88 supervisors and managers from a cross-section of business and industry. They found that age and length of service had no correlation with role efficacy.

Farmer et al (2003)\textsuperscript{61} found in a Taiwanese study that when employees perceived that their co-workers expected them to be creative, their role identities as creative employees were stronger. Practicing managers should be sensitive to the impact that work peers may have on employees formulating a sense of identity, and that the communication of positive peer creativity should be the norm. They recommended that an organisation that valued creativity should provide an atmosphere in which demonstrations of creativity affirmed the self, and this would allow for role performance aligned with a meaningful identity. Zhou (2003)\textsuperscript{62} showed that when creative co-workers were present and supervisors gave developmental feedback, employees displayed more creativity. It also confirmed that both creativity-relevant skills and strategies and motivation were necessary conditions for creativity. Shin and Zhou (2003)\textsuperscript{63} found in a Korean study that subordinate creativity was significantly and positively correlated with transformational leadership and intrinsic motivation.

Staw and Barsade (1993)\textsuperscript{64} found evidence that individuals with high levels of positive affectivity (such as a positive mood state, energy and drive) tended to be more competent interpersonally, to contribute more to group activities, and are able to function more effectively in their leadership role. Their energetic personalities infuse excitement and energy into group activity. A five-year study of 200 well-established practices employed over a ten-year period of 160 companies revealed that there was no correlation between the personal characteristics of the CEO (leader) and the success of his company (Nohria et al, 2003)\textsuperscript{65}. It mattered little whether the leader
made his decisions independently or in collaboration with the top management team. What mattered was the interpersonal skill of the CEO to build relationships and to inspire the rest of the management team to emulate his efforts.

4.2 LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Managerial behaviour and outcomes at the workplace depend on the nature of the environment. An organisation can be distinguished by its ethos, climate or culture (Pareek, 2004). Ethos is the fundamental character or spirit of a culture and dominant set of assumptions of the people or period, consisting of values that provide a distinct identity to a group. Climate refers to the set of perceived attitudes in an organisation and its sub-systems, and is reflected in the way the organisation deals with its members, associated groups and issues. Culture is the accumulated beliefs and values that are seen in the organisation’s response to basic phenomena. The environment in a private universities therefore differs from that of a State universities in terms of values, attitudes and behaviour, and is conducive for leader effectiveness. Public sector universities are better endowed in terms of their capital base, share capital and shareholders’ equity than most other types of universities in India (Qamar, 2003). Foreign and old private sector universities have much lower owners’ equity and operate at a very high capitalisation ratio. Given their small equity base, they pose a risk to the deposits of investors. Contrary to public opinion, all foreign and new private sector universities may not always be more profitable than the old one. Much of the difference in the profitability performance of the universities is caused due to the human resources efficiency as measured by business per employee.

In a study of work culture, Singh (2002) found that commitment management, a dimension of work culture, was significantly related to leadership and helpful mechanisms, and that consensus was significantly related to structure. Customer focus was significantly related to structure, relationship, leadership and helpful mechanisms. Team work was significantly related to structure, relationship, leadership and helpful mechanisms. State universities may be a better proxy for Indian traditions than the private universities, and tend to display - what may be
perceived to be - typical Indian culture. Pareek (2004)\textsuperscript{69} cites narcissism, power concentration and attributional thinking as three weaknesses of Indian culture. Narcissism is reflected in self-seeking behaviour and a tendency to look within. These translate to behaviours such as non-involvement and oral culture. Indians come to the workplace with a strong need to relate to others, as they are exposed to long family and close relationships with parents and other family members. Therefore, they appreciate the values of empathy, intimacy, togetherness, concern for one another, mutual understanding and respect in the workplace (Ramachandran, 2003)\textsuperscript{70}.

As State universities are older than the private universities, they may be deemed to be steeped in an inflexible culture, leading to higher role centering behavioural dimension of role efficacy. Empathy is more visible and applicable in some cultures than in others. High context cultures develop more insight into social complexities and have higher empathy for others who may differ in their behaviour from the known norms (Pareek, 2004)\textsuperscript{71}. Contextualism is an aspect of the culture of organisations. Persons in high-empathy cultures are more sensitive to other persons and groups. In such societies and organisations, common norms and procedures take time to develop. In terms of internationally measurable characteristics, India tends to have high power distance with the characteristics of hierarchical orientation, critical orientation, non-confrontation, and a non-work culture (Hofstede, 1980\textsuperscript{72} and 1981)\textsuperscript{73}. India ranks as, perhaps, the most high-power-distance society in the world (Triandis, 1998)\textsuperscript{74}. Chhokar (2007)\textsuperscript{75} cited data that ranked India as high in power distance, collectivism, and autocratic attribute of leadership style. Sivasubramaniam and Ratnam (1998)\textsuperscript{76} observed that the hierarchical character of Indian society made the implementation of high-performance work systems difficult to achieve.

Lawler et al (1995)\textsuperscript{77} suggested that such hierarchical relationships tend to be supported and reinforced both by the caste system and by the extensive bureaucratic traditions of India linked to its colonial past. It can be reasonable to assume that high power distance and hierarchical relationships are abundant in State universities, where relatively better job security conditions encourage role centering behaviour. Proactiveness is a core value and component of the ethos of the organisation (Pareek, 2002a)\textsuperscript{78}. It implies taking initiative, planning well in advance of action, taking preventive action, and calculating pay-offs of an alternative course of action before taking action, and shows a high degree of maturity. High proactiveness results in early
problem detection, detailed planning, reduction of surprises, and timely curtailment of unprofitable businesses. Kotter (1982)\textsuperscript{79} saw leadership as an activity or process, that also studied what leaders do and how they did it, including their personal styles and attributes. He viewed the general management process as the development of a strategic agenda over time and the development of the strategic network of supporting relationships needed to implement that agenda. In perspective, the leader’s business specific knowledge and connections were seen as assets that could be leveraged, but not transferable across contexts or situations.

High emotional intelligence enabled externals to be proactive in State universities. Using high emotional intelligence, internals in both types of universities excelled in pre-empting problems, future-gazing and planning for action. Role efficacy aspects may be appropriate and effective only to particular situations and professions. According to the revised situational theory of leadership, leadership is a function of the situation (Hersey-Blanchard, 1982)\textsuperscript{80}. The effective leader is one who assesses the situation accurately, uses a style appropriate to the situation, is flexible, and is able to influence and alter the situation. This implies that the effective leader must understand his self and his emotions, and regulate his behaviour with his peers and subordinates, according to the demands of his environment. Role efficacy was found to be related to the quality of work life measured by influence, amenities at the workplace, nature of the job and supervisory behaviour (Gupta and Khandelwal, 1988)\textsuperscript{81} and to the type of roles, location of the workplace, the length of employment and individual’s age (Moran, 1986;\textsuperscript{82} Surti, 1983)\textsuperscript{83}. The management philosophy, organisational climate and industrial relations climate also affect the actual role that a job holder is likely to perform (Ratnam and Srivastava, 1991)\textsuperscript{84}.

Organisation climate induces employees to protect their roles, and seek a better importance for their role. Crozier’s (1964)\textsuperscript{85} study reported how maintenance workers who felt central to the manufacturing process were reluctant to share critical information with regard to the maintenance of their equipment. The workers deliberately hid or destroyed the explicit knowledge in manuals for the machines they maintained, and thereby, gained job security because they were the only ones who had the critical information. In a role efficacy study conducted amongst two levels of universities management, it was found that role efficacy was higher in senior management than in the lower management (Pestonjee, 1985)\textsuperscript{86}. Superordination
claimed the lowest ranking in both levels, which was attributed to the lack of teamwork and social welfare programs. To increase proactivity amongst the junior management, the researchers recommended that specific schemes be launched to recognise and reward their initiatives. Factor analysis reduced the role efficacy data for both levels into two factors, general efficacy and importance.

The present study showed the impact of internality on the centrality aspect of role efficacy. The supportive climate and the ‘national’ character at State universities enabled leaders therein to achieve importance in their roles, unlike the leaders in private universities. The findings of Pandey (2000) in the study of supervisors and safety counsellors of the Indian Railways are comparable to the findings for any public sector enterprise such as the State universities. He stated that the Railways employees were required to think about their role in the broader context of social and national development. The importance of the superordination of the Railways must be perceived in the larger scope of their national operations. State universities are charged with major social responsibilities through its lending schemes which are part of the larger national development plans of the government and its agencies. This explains the finding that State universities scored higher than private universities in the superordination aspect of role efficacy.

Even externals in State universities achieved superordination aspect of role efficacy by engaging in citizenship behaviours. Such behaviours refer to three types of acts that managers may perform beyond what is expected of them (Coleman and Borman, 2000), viz. interpersonal acts, organisational acts and job task conscientiousness. Interpersonal acts include assisting, supporting, developing and cooperating, all collectively referred to as interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). Organisational acts involve the demonstration of commitment, loyalty, allegiance and compliance. Job task conscientiousness refers to persistence, dedication to one’s job, and desire to perform well. In private universities, internals accomplished the superordination aspect of role efficacy, sometimes with low emotional intelligence. State universities differ from private universities in India in terms of age, size, degree of technological adaptation, number of customers, regional origin and focus, and the degree and range of regulations exercised over them by statutory authorities. This presents a tremendous range of complexity and diversity between the two types of universities in terms of their cultural, business and other
operating environments. The construct of organisational climate is the set of shared perceptions among the members of the organisation with regard to its policies, procedures and practices (Reichers and Schneider, 1990; Rentsch, 1990).

As organisations have multiple goals and means of reaching those goals, senior managers must develop an array of policies and procedures, and supervisors must develop corresponding practices for each organisational facet. This results in the formation of multiple climates in organisations, with employees concurrently on different facets, such as climates for service, innovation and safety (Zohar, 2000). Internal locus of control facilitates role linking dimension of role efficacy, independently and in combination with high emotional intelligence and State universities. Formalisation describes the extent to which rules, procedures, instructions and communications are written down (Pugh et al., 1968). Srivastava (2001) found that the structural variable of formalisation was significantly and positively related to organisational adaptability, and that external locus of control facilitated adaptability. External locus of control facilitates the coping ability of persons, and prepares them to accept uncertain situations in life. Formalisation was found to provide direction to the employees, and provided two outcomes, administrative efficiency and influence. Clarity in rules and procedures tend to facilitate the implementation of decisions and therefore, generating a positive relationship between formalisation and the implementation of innovation programmes (Zaltman et al., 1973).

Excessive formalisation could result in a legalistic organisation, where managerial discretion in decision making, which is driven by efficiency, profitability, or employee relations) is largely supplanted by procedures that are legally acceptable, but preclude process and decision control (Bies and Tyler, 1993). While State universities are more centralised in terms of formal authority, private universities have empowered their customers to deposit and withdraw funds, and conduct other transact transactions without coming to the universities branches through the use of automatic teller machines (ATMs), debit and credit cards, tele-universities, e-universities and other forms of 24x7 universities. This demonstrated that internality facilitated the role linking dimension of role efficacy, despite the leaders’ low emotional intelligence, in both types of universities. Progressive organisations like private universities enjoy a conducive climate and therefore, engage in elaborate subordinate
development initiatives such as multi-source feedback or 360-degree feedback. This is a widely used developmental method for managers and other professional employees, where they get information about how they are perceived by their subordinates, peers, bosses and clients. The report usually consists of ratings on specific types of behaviour or skill. The popularity of this method reflects the assumption that it is an effective development method (Ashford and Cummings, 1983; Ashford and Tsui, 1991). The effectiveness of such feedback depends partially on facilitating conditions during and after the feedback process in the form of skill training, incentives for behaviour change and a supportive climate (Antonioni, 1996; Kluger and DeNisi, 1996; London and Smither, 1995).

Some organisational conditions may weaken or replace leader effects. Kerr and Jermier (1978) described certain characteristics of the subordinate, the task and the organisation as ‘substitutes’ that rendered relationship and/or task-oriented leadership not only impossible but also unnecessary. Such characteristics of the subordinate were his ability, experience, training and knowledge; his need for independence; his professional orientation; and indifference towards organisational rewards. With respect to the task, such characteristics could be its lack of ambiguity and routine nature, its unvarying methodology, built-in provision for its own feedback concerning accomplishment, and ability to offer intrinsic satisfaction. Organisational characteristics include its level of formalisation (with respect to explicit plans, goals and areas of responsibility), inflexibility (rigid rules and procedures), highly-specified and active advisory staff functions, closely-knit and cohesive work groups, organisational rewards not within the leader’s control, and the spatial distance between superior and subordinates (Dewor and Walsh, 1987). These are conditions typical of private universities. When emotional intelligence was low, internals succeeded in achieving the role centering dimension in both types of universities. Centralisation refers to the concentration of power or authority in an organisation. It can be surmised that this would enable the leader to achieve levels of centrality, influence and personal growth in positions of relatively higher authority.

Hage and Aiken (1967) identified two components of centralisation viz. participation in decision making and hierarchy of authority. Teams in organisational systems develop habitual patterns of behaviour called routines (Gersick and Hackman, 1990; Weiss and Ilgen, 1985). These routines provide a functional
mechanism where members can anticipate other members’ actions. They allow for increased efficiency, and avoid the need for active management of the transformation of inputs into outputs. The routines reduce the uncertainty that members have regarding their role responsibilities. State universities may be expected to have more and older routines, and have a more centralised structure than the private universities, making the former less responsive to external forces of change. Economic, technological and social developments have fundamentally changed the nature of work. With the shift from manufacturing to services, manual labour has seen a transition to work that relies on cognitive and interpersonal skills (Howard, 1995)\textsuperscript{107}.

Computer systems and equipment have transformed work activities and enabled employees to physically remove themselves from traditional workplaces (Feldman and Gainey, 1997)\textsuperscript{108}. Relationships between employer and employees have been redefined, and long-term employment has been replaced by frequent job changes and transient contractual relationships (Hall, 1996)\textsuperscript{109}. Within private universities, short career spans weakens the role linking aspect of role efficacy, if not for the emotional intelligence of the internal leader. The changing nature of work needs to be studied from an inter-disciplinary framework that integrates work-design approaches from disciplines as diverse as organisational psychology, industrial engineering, biomechanics and ergonomics (Campion and Thayer, 1985)\textsuperscript{110}. This framework recognises tensions in the workplace such as those that emerge from efficient work designs that reduce employee satisfaction and motivation. The younger private universities have adopted speedier and more reliable technological inputs, with the result that their leaders and other employees behave, appropriately but differently. On the contrary, this may not be true of many State universities, which are yet to catch up with the market-oriented demands of the present.

4.3 LEADERSHIP AND EMPOWERMENT

Likert (1961)\textsuperscript{111} had contended that employee-centred supervisors in comparison to job-centred supervisors were high on effectiveness. Private universities make bigger performance demands, than State universities, on their employees as they have a smaller workforce and larger business ratio per employee. Therefore, they are more considerate towards their workforce in terms of rewards, recognitions and
development for a variety of performances. In merger situations, considerable attention must be paid to issues of intergroup relations (Alderfer, 1987)\textsuperscript{112}. In general terms, the employees’ fears can be reduced by senior managers who demonstrate an active involvement with, and concern for, employees, for example, by engaging in unambiguous communications and allowing employees to have some influence over events (Gaertner et al., 2001)\textsuperscript{113}. Job performance involves more than just task performance, which involves patterns of behaviour that are directly involved in the production of goods and services, or in activities that provide indirect support for the organisation’s core technical processes. In turn, contextual performance involves behaviours that support the psychological and social context in which task activities are performed.

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996)\textsuperscript{114} tested and confirmed the usefulness of two facets of contextual performance, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. If such organisations must function effectively, their supervisors must recognise and reward behaviours that support the achievement of organisational goals (Kerr, 1975)\textsuperscript{115}. Empathy is (the process and attitude of) seeing the issues from the others’ point of view, especially of the role sender’s (Pareek, 2002\textsuperscript{b})\textsuperscript{116}. The person breaches the role boundary by transcending his own emotions and personal considerations, and reaches into the other person’s feelings. He may progress beyond the immediate present and look into the future to interpret long-term implications. Goleman (1998)\textsuperscript{117} operationalised empathy (expertise in building and retaining talent, cross-cultural sensitivity, and service to clients and customers) as one of the five core dimensions of the construct of emotional intelligence. Within private universities, internals with high emotional intelligence are empathic, and extend themselves to understand and solve colleagues’ and customers’ problems, confirming the validity of his observation.

Empathetic leaders are also successful and effective in the changing and varied environments such as in the private universities, because they are adaptable, versatile and tolerant of diversity and uncertainty. Adaptive performance has been variously described as role flexibility (Murphy and Jackson, 1999)\textsuperscript{118} and proficiency of the self-management of new learning experiences (London and Mone, 1999)\textsuperscript{119}. Pulakos’ et al (2000)\textsuperscript{120} taxonomy of adaptive performance has eight dimensions that closely resemble some of the aspects of role efficacy, and emotional intelligence.
These dimensions are: (a) handling emergencies or crisis (b) handling work stress (c) solving problems creatively (d) dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations (e) learning work tasks, technologies and procedures (f) demonstrating cultural adaptability (g) demonstrating physically oriented adaptability. Lord and Maher (1991)\textsuperscript{121} have suggested that the perception of leadership (and therefore, of leader effectiveness) reflected an attributional process that resulted from performance. Respect for the leader can be posited as an appreciation of his extraordinary ability to perform under difficult conditions, consistently. When subordinates offer him that respect, it may also be augmented by feelings of trust and charisma. Charismatic leaders are seen to be active innovators and consensual leaders, not just as group facilitators (Conger and Kanungo, 1987)\textsuperscript{122}. Student participants under charismatic leaders showed higher task performance than those working under considerate leaders (Howell and Frost, 1989)\textsuperscript{123}.

Niehoff et al (1990)\textsuperscript{124} documented that top management behaviour inculcated performance value, which produced desired results in employees’ role behaviour. Employees tended to show greater commitment and show lower ambiguity (indicative of positive aspects of role behaviour) in behaviour. Writings in the popular press have implied that a higher level of trust in the leader results in higher team or organisational performance (Fairholm, 1994;\textsuperscript{125} McGregor, 1967)\textsuperscript{126}. Dirks (2000)\textsuperscript{127} empirically examined and found evidence that there are substantial and practical effects of trust on team performance. According to Bryman (1993)\textsuperscript{128}, charismatic leaders have at least three notable characteristics: they are regarded as exceptional, they have a vision or mission that elicits followships, and they enjoy great personal and high levels of commitment from their followers. One of the key sources of his charisma is his willingness to pursue the shared vision in a disinterested manner, at great personal risk and sacrifice. He argues that the loyal followers of Bill Gates of Microsoft competed for his respect, because he was incredibly important and was one of the smartest people with a historical level of genius.

After a training program in transformational leadership, Barling et al (1996)\textsuperscript{129} found that the participants who were perceived to be more charismatic after the programme showed significant effects on 2 aspects of financial performance of the business units that the participants headed as managers. High emotional intelligence enables internals to make tough demands and unquestioned responses from his
subordinates, even in times of crises. This is possible only in private universities, and not in State universities, because the latter are constrained by their internal inflexibility. A classic study by Likert and Willits (1940)\textsuperscript{130} showed that the primary difference between high and low-performing salespeople was the degree of trust they had in their immediate supervisor. If leaders want to reap the benefits of empowered staff, they must be willing to trust in their staff to get the job done. To develop a sound trust in staff, leaders must actively help develop staff capabilities to the point that the leader can delegate with comfort. Kouzes and Posner (1995)\textsuperscript{131} argue that the leader's behaviour determines the level of trust that exists within a group. When leaders do not show trust in followers – when they monitor too closely, or fail to delegate significant work, for example - followers will not trust them either. Lack of follower trust in a leader in turn can have important ramifications. Hogan and Holland (2003)\textsuperscript{132} found that reputation provided the conceptual link between personality and job performance. When the leader in private universities is unable to understand and use the emotional issues concerning his employees and peers, he extracts reputation from his role senders by curtailing his demands for exceptional performance.

The desire of the internals to control the external environment must extend to fair transactions with people in their work environment. Research has often shown how fair treatment of subordinates is beneficial to both the individual and the organisation. Simons and Parks (2000)\textsuperscript{133} showed that fair treatment of employees translated into both employee retention and enhanced customer service, as employees are more committed to their organisation and its goals, and because employee retention and customer service satisfaction affect profitability. Research in organisational justice, which focuses on the role of fairness as a consideration in the workplace, has demonstrated that fair treatment has important effects on individual employee attitudes such as satisfaction and commitment, and their behaviours such as absenteeism and citizenship behaviour (Colquitt et al, 2001)\textsuperscript{134}. Even when the leader’s emotional intelligence was low, his internality enabled him to be fair in his role. Colquitt (2001)\textsuperscript{135} found clear association between interpersonal justice and leader evaluation. Blau and Boal (1987)\textsuperscript{136} and Barling and Phillips (1993)\textsuperscript{137} found interactional justice to affect organisational commitment. As most employees view their immediate supervisor as the key representative of the organisation, Simons and Roberson (2003)\textsuperscript{138} argued that interpersonal justice would be associated with
organisational commitment, and that this association would be mediated by employee attitudes about their supervisor.

Blau and Boal (1987) found locus of control to be a moderating variable in the relationship between two facets of satisfaction – promotion and pay – to organisational commitment in terms of withdrawal intentions and turnover. This means that the fairness of the treatment may lead to an increase or erosion of respect for the supervisor leading the employee. Unfair treatment has been counter-productive and, as evidence has shown, damaging to the organisation in many ways. There is considerable research that documents the ill effects of perceived unfairness. When individuals feel that they are unfairly treated, they show declines in job satisfaction (Folger and Konovsky, 1989), organisational commitment (Daly and Geyer, 1995) and job performance (Gilliland, 1994). Unfairly treated individuals show a greater propensity to turnover (Dailey and Kirk, 1992), steal (Greenberg, 1993) and engage in conflict (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Schminke et al (2001) found that both participation and hierarchy authority were significantly related to the perceptions of procedural justice, and the effect of hierarchy authority was stronger. Size affected interactional justice, but not procedural justice. Internals in private universities would avoid such situations that may compromise the loyalty of their subordinates, and be a potential cause of loss or danger for the organisation.

Effective leaders empower their subordinates so that they may be able to attend to non-routine and strategic tasks. In work organizations, empowerment incorporates strategies ranging from increasing worker participation in decisions surrounding their immediate job tasks (job content) up to and including full self-management both of job content and job context (Ford and Fottler, 1995). Although there are many possible forms of empowerment, all essentially involve the delegation of some degree of responsibility from leaders to their subordinates. In a very real sense, full empowerment distributes leadership throughout the organization, although those in different positions will be accountable for different leadership functions. Leaders need not fear any loss of work in an empowered system, but could look forward to work that would be vastly different and far more challenging. For any organization, the most effective empowerment strategy will depend on the particular situation, with one of the determining factors being the readiness of staff for empowerment. Only lasting leadership commitment to developing leadership in
followers will convince people that empowerment would be a regular feature (Russ, 1995).

Viewing empowerment as a perceptual frame of mind rather than a technique may help differentiate it from the numerous other organizational initiatives to which staff have been exposed. This frame of mind represents nothing less than a fundamental shift in attitudes toward how work should be accomplished. Their influence or power is in proportion to their ability to confer power on people. Leadership is therefore seen as an instrument of empowerment, where leaders are prepared to shed power for the larger benefit of the organisation. When they withdraw from controlling functions and routine tasks, it enhances their powers of influence and enables them to engage in more, purposeful transformational behaviour. Pareek (2002a) suggested that the development of employees and teams, clarifying role contents and boundaries, and initiating systems, rules and procedures would be some of the most significant power enhancers or empowerment actions for organisations to undertake. Hussein (1985) stated that the chief executive of a universities has the opportunity and responsibility to decide the direction in which his universities is to go and grow. To implement corporate strategy and ensure its success, he must select and develop a key management team of professionals with diverse expertise and experiences to lead and execute.

Noe (1986) proposed that individuals with an internal locus of control have more positive attitudes toward training opportunities because they are more likely to feel that training would result in tangible benefits, and confirmed it, later (Noe and Schmitt, 1986). Effective leaders recognise that the ultimate test of leadership is sustained success, which demands the constant cultivation of future leaders (Tichy, 1999). Winning leaders seem naturally to generate emotional energy in others. Leaders who invest personally in the process of developing future leaders are building the most precious of organisational assets. Within private universities, internals with high emotional intelligence ensure continuous development of their subordinates to ensure their readiness to meet their business challenges, effectively. The climatic factors in a group can foster learning-oriented goals and behaviours among its members. Research has demonstrated that classrooms, organisational units, and organisation work teams differ in the extent to which they foster a learning goal orientation and / or learning oriented behaviours among their members. These
differences have been attributed to factors such as leadership and authority relations, task characteristics, evaluation and recognition, openness and trust and social discourse (Ames, 1992; Nicholls, 1984). Therefore, Bunderson and Sutcliffe (2003) suggest that an understanding of team climates that encourage proactive learning would represent an important complement to existing findings on performance capabilities in teams.

Dukerich et al (1990) found that leaders who were high in moral reasoning were more likely to assume a coaching or teaching role than were leaders with less sophisticated moral reasoning, and in small group settings, the moral-reasoning level of the leader was positively associated with group performance. It was Senge (1990), who first popularised the concept of learning organisation with the features viz. development of personal mastery, using mental models, building a shared vision, understanding the power of team learning, and using systems thinking. Garvin (1993) defined the learning organisation as one that was skilled in creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge, and modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights. McGill et al (1992) suggested that the learning organisation was one that could respond to new information by altering the very programming by which information was processed and evaluated through internal reframing of process and managerial practices that put those ideas into action. They also suggested five management practices that could characterise learning organisations, viz. openness, systems thinking, creativity, personal efficacy and impartiality. Extension dominance denotes high concern to develop people and groups (Pareek, 1975). Such management would be concerned for the welfare of people at work. Supervisors take interest in the growth and development of their subordinates.

The study of Sayeed and Jain (2001) found significant relationships between role integration and growth with leadership, and between role efficacy aspects of inter-role linkages, growth, proactivity and superordination with teamwork. Dhar and Sayeed (2000) found that salary correlated significantly and positively with role efficacy and five aspects, while qualification correlated significantly and positively with growth aspect of role efficacy. Pestonjee’s (1985) study found that the main contributory factors for the higher role efficacy in the senior management level were growth, proactivity, helping relationship, and influence. Traditionally, organisation members were supported by hierarchical superiors,
mentors, and departmental co-workers who offered some support in the form of resources, protection and buffering, solutions, training, advice, and some assurance of successful outcomes (Kotter, 1995). It may be assumed that the personal growth aspect of role efficacy was more pronounced in State universities because of higher performance targets, shorter career tenures, job stress and rapid turnovers in private universities.

Internals with high emotional efficacy achieved personal growth aspect of role efficacy in private universities. Increasingly, organisational hierarchies – such as those in private universities – offer less security, and their environments are becoming less predictable. Members face problems that are less familiar and have a narrower range of known solutions (Heifetz, 1994). Leaders know as little as or less about daily operations than their subordinates (Hirschborn, 1990; Kram, 1996). Existing rules, goals, clear promotional ladders and protection may not be available, and when available, would be inadequate. Organisation members are therefore less likely to be able to either give or receive support to their co-workers. Workers are increasingly responsible for managing their own careers, and make efforts to ensure that they add enough value to justify their continued employment in organisations facing competition (Hakim, 1994; Mirvis and Hall, 1996). However, in conditions of low emotional intelligence, internality facilitated personal growth aspect of role efficacy. This means that leaders did not need to show or have much scope for the display and application of emotions in private universities in order to be successful in the pursuit of personal growth.

### 4.4 LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND CHANGE

Network theory suggests that organisational change agents trying to accomplish greater coordination across units can be understood as advocating dense connections and attempting to increase structural embeddedness. Structural embeddedness is defined as the dense ties between actors (role holders), and can affect the quality of relationships (Granovetter, 1985, 1992). Uzzi (1996, 1997) found that trust, information exchange, and joint problem solving were all facilitated by embedded relationships. Change agents would attempt to generate more structural holes or structural autonomy in a network of interaction in order to secure
more influence (Burt, 1992). Thus, they would attempt to increase the formal connections between workers in the organisation. Katz and Kahn (1978) stated that the nature of a group and, in particular, the degree of interdependence of the group members could inspire individual-level change by increasing a person’s learning and commitment to his learning. Groups could also cause pressure to conform to changes or to acquire new knowledge. Strong network ties show some key characteristics such as frequent interaction, an extended history, intimacy and sharing, and reciprocity in exchanges between the members that allow for mutually confiding, trust-based interactions (Granovetter, 1982; Krackhardt, 1992). They facilitate the flow of richer, detailed and redundant information and knowledge resources between individuals and groups.

Weak ties are characterised by distant and infrequent relationships that may be casual, less intimate and sharing, and reciprocal in nature (Granovetter, 1973; Hansen, 1999; Haythornthwaite, 2001). They are more important for they encourage the exchange of a wider variety and potentially new information between groups by drawing in peripheral communicators and extending access to a wider set of contacts and knowledge resources. Both strong and weak ties are critical for organisational functioning because they allow access to different kinds of resources. While weak inter-unit ties helped a project team’s search for useful knowledge that may lie in other units, but transfer of complex knowledge needed a strong tie for its transfer. Carley (1991) argued that bridging strong ties acts as cultural conduits, without which different parts of the network would not be in communication with each other. Organisations are social constructions that are built through networks of conversations (Ford, 1999) or dialogues (Rhodes, 2000) that maintain and objectify (sic) reality for its participants (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). This speaks of the indispensable value of interpersonal skills in any organisation.

Brown and Humphreys (2003) focused attention on the idea that successful leadership of change fundamentally required the molding and manipulation of others’ understanding rather than of material things. Senior managers must work at providing others with a narrative that contained explanations for current events and future projections. According to a study by Podsakoff et al (1993), substitutes such as subordinate, task and organisational characteristics were more important than leader behaviour in the determination of job satisfaction, commitment and role ambiguity.
Conversely, leader behaviour was more important than the substitutes in terms of employee performance. Successful leaders would be creative, work actively with teams, motivate their employees, listen and communicate, and be focused on the company strategy. Leadership effectiveness was found to be rooted in development over time in firm and industry specific knowledge and relationships, and generic competencies.

Homans (1950)\textsuperscript{186} credits the leader with originating the interaction in his group. Therefore, leadership effectiveness is located in his interaction with his organisation and the context over time. This means that the unique evolution of each industry and each organisation would create different types on informational and processing demands on those organisations. This was confirmed by the extensive study covering 300 chief executives by Shetty and Perry (1976)\textsuperscript{187} who found that leaders were unlikely to be equally effective across industries, companies or strategies. Leavy and Wilson (1994)\textsuperscript{188} examined leadership dynamics within the larger process of strategy formulation, and saw the legacy of the leader as the product of the leader, his organisation and the historical challenges facing both of them. Leavy (1995)\textsuperscript{189} went on to offer a dynamic and richly contextual ‘heroes for historical moments of truth’ perspective. He concluded that some leaders may not be given the opportunity to distinguish themselves fully, while others may not be up to the challenges faced by them.

Internal locus of control substituted for constant high emotional intelligence, and high emotional intelligence substituted for constant internal locus of control in the facilitation of leader effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness could vary over the tenure of the leader. Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991)\textsuperscript{190} found a curvilinear pattern between the tenure of long-serving chief executives in the USA and the performance of their organisations, with performance rising to a peak for some time, and then going into steady decline. Miller (1991)\textsuperscript{191} found that leaders grow ‘stale in the saddle’ and become victims of their own success. Success increased the credibility and independence of leaders, making them overconfident and complacent. As their power and reputations grew, they and their views were less likely to be challenged from within and without. Soon, they and their organisations would become less responsive to their environment, leading to the loss of contact between the organisation and its environment. Therefore, internality without a simultaneous and
supportive high emotional intelligence may fail to generate leader effectiveness, and the organisations could easily suffer due to the indifference of the leader. Despite low emotional intelligence, internal locus of control facilitated leader effectiveness, especially in private universities. The leader is expected to deal with difficult situations that result from past actions, and is required to live up to expectations of his organisation, his peers and subordinates, and other role senders.

Biggart and Hamilton (1987)\(^{192}\) found that the leadership role is heavily scripted by the historical legacy of role expectations and the interactional heritage of a specific heritage or society, and the social and cultural beliefs and values within which it is embedded. Leadership always involves creative performances, and is manifest only in interaction. Roles institutionalised these interactions and definitions that shaped the reality of organisational life (Schutz, 1967)\(^{193}\). In institutionalised leadership, authority relationships establish the hierarchical pattern of interaction in leading and following. This process raises the expectation of the rights and obligations of the leader to perform so much that the leader could be held accountable if he was not effective. Internals in private universities with high emotional intelligence would be more capable than the externals within to handle many frustrating moments of delays, failures and high expectations.

Leader effectiveness depends on the nature of the role generated from the interaction between the leader and his followers, and will need all his communications and interpersonal skills. Studies on the enhancement of organisational effectiveness invariably affect the role functioning of the individual. Cameron and Whetton (1983)\(^{194}\) identified several constituent elements of organisational effectiveness that place heavy demands on organisational roles. A clear role list helps managers define their tasks within their organisations, and this would build up the expectations for the performance of the self and others who are bestowed upon significant responsibilities in the role set (Sashkin and Morris, 1987)\(^{195}\). In a study conducted on 75 managers at a high reliability organisation, Sayeed and Jain (2001)\(^{196}\) found significant relationships between role efficacy aspects of creativity, influence and superordination with the organisational priority of clear aims, and between self-role integration with positive climate. Leadership is a collection of roles that emerges from an interactional process. In an empirical study that included more than 100 leaders and managers and 600 employees in Danish companies, eight leadership styles were
uncovered (Dahlgaard et al, 1997)\(^{197}\). Of them, only the captain, the creative, the strategist and the team-builder styles were found to have positive impact in terms of the total quality leadership criteria of quality, creativity, learning and matching.

Tichy and Devanna (1986)\(^ {198}\) stated that the transformational leader was not only skilled and driven by value, but also considerate, and was able to handle ambiguity and complexity. Effective leaders would display a range of role efficacy aspects to suit the needs of the organisation and its environment. Negative intergroup attitudes can be reduced through contacts between different groups (Allport, 1954)\(^ {199}\), as long as such contact promotes intimacy (Cook, 1962)\(^ {200}\) and has the support of the organisation (Brewer and Miller, 1984)\(^ {201}\). Private universities show extreme sensitivity to their employees and customers’ needs, and therefore, facilitate the consideration factor of leader effectiveness. Role occupants, who are high in superordination, contribute to systems, groups and entities beyond their immediate organisation. They are strongly motivated, and achieve their superordinate goals from collaborative effort. Collaboration is a shared effort by stakeholders, in combination, to solve problems, which none would have solved, individually (Gray, 1985)\(^ {202}\).

Effective leadership will see the deployment of an array of interpersonal skills, especially in the core managerial function of decision making. March and Shapira (1982)\(^ {203}\) suggested that the decision making within most organisations is by individuals, not by organisations. The activity of political groups and cartels within and outside the organisation would make decision making a difficult process for the leader, forcing him to often consider issues that may not be always objective or relevant to the occasion. Katz (1988)\(^ {204}\), Zey (1992)\(^ {205}\) and Burk (1988)\(^ {206}\) demonstrated that organisational decision making was politically embedded by pointing out the role of electoral politics and the legal system in the complex phenomenon of organisational decision making. According to Fligstein (1990)\(^ {207}\), the motives of the managers of large groups in the economy of a country are driven by the control of competition through the creation of cartels. His political/institutional embedded theory proposed that organisational decisions are power blocks as well as the struggle for power.
4.5 LEADERSHIP AND ITS DOMAIN OF INFLUENCE

Opinion leaders can make or break organisational change efforts, and influential peers have been found to affect the attitudes and behaviour of others (Weiman, 1991). Research has shown that people are more prone to engage in behaviour when they believe that it would result in favourable outcomes for them, when that is the right thing to do, and when they believe that other persons that they respect would expect them to do it (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Successful opinion leaders strive to promote these beliefs. Successful leadership requires respect for the opinion’s leader’s views which must emphasise the rewards of engaging in desired behaviour or alternatively, the costs of engaging in undesired behaviour. Seto et al (1991) trained nurses to act as opinion leaders to provide tutorials about new guidelines among other nurses. Kelly et al (1991) trained men to serve as opinion leaders in a safe-sex public health campaign.

Lam and Schaubroeck (2000) used opinion leaders successfully in a service-quality training initiative in Hong Kong. Power is the potential ability to influence behaviour and to change the course of events by overcoming resistance and convincing people to do things that they would not otherwise do (Pfeffer, 1992). The structure of the leadership experience is the distinguishing feature in the formal organisation. Leadership emerges from expectations about the leader, and the surrender of power by the followers to enable the leader to define their reality (Smiricich and Morgan, 1982). When formal leadership roles emerge as a social process out of interaction, the rights and obligations of the group members to define the nature of experience are recognised and formalised. If an organisation is to see its strategies implemented, it must rely on leaders who understand the sources and uses of power, and act, accordingly. Power can emerge out of individual or institutional sources, and can be exercised through explicit and implicit means (Miller, 1998).

Neustadt (1960) concluded from his study of US Presidents that their (presidential) leadership stemmed from their power to persuade.

Cartwright (1965) equated leadership with the domain of influence. The concept of influence recognised the fact that individuals differed in the extent to which their behaviours affect the activities of the group. Hollander and Julian (1969) suggested that leadership in the broadest sense implied the presence of a
particular influence relationship between two or more persons. Katz and Kahn (1978) considered the essence of organisational leadership to be the influential increment over and above the mechanical compliance with routine directions of the organisation. Conger and Kanungo (1987) hypothesised that charismatic leaders articulate their motivation to lead through assertive behaviour and expression of self-confidence, expertise, unconventionality and concern for followers’ needs. Coleman and Voronov (2003) distinguished between primary power and secondary power. Primary power defined the domain, and referred to the socio-historic process of reality construction. Thus, a manager gave orders and expected them to be followed because his role was historically constructed to include notions of giving orders.

The various sources of power are not concrete, but socially constructed (French and Raven, 1959). Secondary power refers to the exercise of power in the conventional sense, for the express purpose of achieving goals. It could be either be coercive or in a positive form, and may involve working in a domain that has been largely defined. Therefore, strategies used to obtain employees’ compliance and commitment are constituents of secondary power. State universities cater to a wider audience in the form of employees, customers and other stakeholders than private universities, giving their leaders a larger sphere of business operations. Therefore, State universities have an enabling environment for the application of more influence. The leader’s results are largely due to the influence that he can exercise over his team. Bass (1974, 1981 and 1990) proposed that defining effective leadership as successful influence by the leader that resulted in the attainment of goals by the influenced followers was tantamount to defining leadership in terms of goal attainment. Power plays a role in the determination of the emergent leader and later, of his effectiveness.

For individuals not in positions of formal authority, Bellman (1992) suggested that they could influence their organisations by assuming the roles of administrator, problem solver, planner, strategist and transformer. People who lacked formal authority believed that the administrator and problem solver roles were less influential and therefore, within their reach, unlike the other roles. In State universities, while high emotional intelligence and internality facilitate the exercise of influence, each variable also substitutes for the weakness of the other for similar results. The degree and effect of influence exerted by the leader is affected by his
personal credibility. Similarly, the effect on attitude and behaviour change is due to the influence of credibility of information sources (Hovland and Weiss, 1951)\textsuperscript{225}. Source credibility is operationalised as the historical reliability of the source of information about matters related to the subject at hand. Source credibility effects are particularly strong when the target of the communication has direct experience with the topic (Wu and Schaffer, 1987)\textsuperscript{226} and when the topic was relevant to his life (McGinnies, 1973)\textsuperscript{227}. It has a significant influence on the response of the ratees to feedback about their feedback (Ilgen et al, 1979)\textsuperscript{228}, and has the strongest effect on ratees’ intentions to use suggestions provided by the source to improve their performance (Bannister, 1986)\textsuperscript{229}.

State universities enjoy high credibility due to their national ownership status, and this credibility contributes to their influence aspect of role efficacy. Internals also wield influence for effective leadership in private universities. Research reports and popular literature have agreed on the invaluable contribution of influence to the leadership process. According to his idiosyncrasy credit theory, Hollander (1961)\textsuperscript{230} suggested that group members evaluate each other in terms of the degree to which they conform to expectations and help their group to move towards goal attainment. The leader was expected to deviate away from expected member behaviour, and display unique behaviour that could move the group toward its goals. Leader effectiveness is therefore embedded in his non-routine behaviour, and the leader is expected to be the role model to influence followers’ actions. Smith (1935)\textsuperscript{231} viewed leadership not as a passive occupancy of a position or as acquisition of a role but as a process of originating and maintaining the role structure and the pattern of role relationships. He equated leadership as the management of social differentials through the process of giving stimuli that other people respond to, integratively. Hemphill (1949)\textsuperscript{232} suggested that attempted leadership was an individual’s effort to change the behaviour of others. When others actually changed their behaviour, that creation of change in others could be called successful leadership. If they are reinforced or rewarded for changing their behaviour, that achievement would be effective leadership.
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