

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AMONGST S.A.
HUMAN RESOURCES SPECIALISTS, AND THE EFFECT THEREOF ON
SUBORDINATE PERFORMANCE AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE LEADER**

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**THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE M.SOC.SCI. DEGREE IN
INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

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DECEMBER 1993

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***T**he source of good management is found in the imagination of leaders, persons who form new visions and manifest them with a high degree of craft.*

***T**he blending of vision and craft communicates the purpose.*

***I**n the arts, people who do that well are masters.*

***I**n business, they are leaders.*

(Source: Boettinger in Eigen & Siegel, 1989, p.216)

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to examine whether transformational and transactional leadership would be identifiable amongst a diverse sample of HR specialists. Furthermore, the effects of these leadership styles on subordinates' perceptions, viz., willingness to exert extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness, and subordinates' performance ratings were investigated. Both self and subordinate ratings of leadership were obtained (n = 330) in order to overcome single-rater error and enhance rater accuracy.

Self-rating and rater forms of Bass and Avolio's (1990b) MLQ (Form 5) were used to collect leadership data. The results of principal components factor analyses partially supported the factor structure identified in previous research. However, the four component factors comprising transformational leadership did not emerge.

Descriptive analyses of composite leader and subordinate ratings showed that transformational leadership was more prevalent amongst HR specialists than transactional leadership. As found in previous research, self-ratings were inflated relative to subordinate ratings.

Transformational factors of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration were found to be significantly and positively correlated with the perceptual outcomes, as was the transactional factor of contingent reward. No similar relatedness was found between the transactional factor of management-by-

exception and these outcomes. Nonleadership, or laissez-faire leadership, was found to be negatively correlated with all these measures. Charisma and contingent reward were found to be significantly related to subordinates' performance ratings in a positive direction.

Stepwise regression analyses were conducted to examine whether the constituent constructs of transformational and transactional leadership predicted these outcomes. The transformational dimensions of charisma, inspiration and individualised consideration significantly predicted subordinates' perceptual measures, whilst laissez-faire leadership negatively predicted subordinates' satisfaction with their leader. No significant variance in subordinates' performance could be predicted by these dimensions.

Hierarchical regression analyses of composite transactional and transformational variables against the outcome measures found strong support for the augmentation effect of transformational leadership, confirming that the latter is a higher form of leadership.

The primary implication is that leadership development programmes for HR specialists should promote transformational behaviours and skills in light of the discontinuous environmental changes and changing HR paradigm. Additional methodological implications and directions for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

A voluminous body of research indicates that leadership efficacy in business organizations is related positively to employee and wider organizational performance (Jain, 1990; Kotter, 1988; Peters & Austin, 1985; Thomas, 1988) and functional workplace attitudes (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1990a; Singer & Singer, 1990). Hersey and Blanchard (1993, p. 93) maintained, "The successful organization has one major attribute that sets it apart from unsuccessful organizations: dynamic and effective leadership".

The recent globalisation of world markets (McGrath & Hoole, 1992; Taylor, 1991) with the resultant paradigmatic shift in how organizations organise and manage people (Beer & Walton, 1990) has accentuated the importance of leadership research and practice. This is particularly the case in South Africa with its unacceptably low GDP growth rate (-0.6% in 1991, compared with -0.5% in 1990; Cooper, Hamilton, Mashabela, Mackay, Sidivopolous, Gordon-Brown, Murphy & Markham, 1993) and poor, deteriorating ratio of managers to non-managers. Statistics in 1985 indicate that this ratio was 1:42 in 1985; 1:56 in 1988 and forecasts are that it is likely to reach 1:100 by the year 2000 (Manning, 1988). (Comparative 1989 ratios for benchmark industrialised countries were 1 to 16 in the United States, 1 to 14 in Australia and 1 to

12 in Japan (Cooper, McCaul, Hamilton, Delvore, Moonsamy & Mueller, 1990). The problem is further compounded in this country since about 95% of all managerial jobs are currently occupied by whites, who comprise less than 20% of the economically active population (Manning, 1988). The future leaders of this country will therefore have to be drawn primarily from a socially, politically and economically disadvantaged pool of Blacks, "Coloureds" and Asians.

Though substantial progress has been made in leadership research, particularly regarding the role of followers, disparate anomalies still remain in the literature, providing little direction to South African organizations seeking to develop leadership efficacy.

A leadership theory, initially posited by Downton (1973) and Burns (1978), and subsequently developed by Bass (1985), arguably adds meaning to this enigmatic construct.

In terms of this theory, Bass (1985) described two types of leadership - transformational and transactional.

The transactional leadership approach is based on social exchange theory and emphasises the implicit transactions which exist between leader and follower. The extent to which the follower is influenced to achieve a particular objective can be simplistically defined as the nature of the benefit(s) offered to the follower (e.g., direction, description of compensation, work context, etc.), together with the valence which the individual

attributes to these benefits. This is a multiplicative process. Therefore, a follower afforded a particular benefit will not necessarily be motivated toward goal achievement. This will occur only where the recipient ascribes a high value to the benefit(s) offered. According to Bass (1985), transactional leaders are effective at obtaining basic levels of compliance from followers through behaviours such as contingent reward and management by exception.

Bass (1985) proposed that a more effective type of leadership, in a transforming, competitive environment, is transformational leadership. A plethora of recent research by Bass and others, corroborates this assertion. Transformational leaders are able to inspire followers to perform at levels beyond mere compliance. They do this by: modelling a vision of the organization; intellectually stimulating individuals, thus enabling them to provide new ideas; and showing concern for the development of individuals and their well-being (Bass, 1985).

Through this process, transformational leaders are able to help followers make sense of both the internal and external environment, enabling them to develop and facilitating the alignment of their needs and aspirations with the objectives of the organization.

Bass (1985) emphasised that transformational and transactional leadership should not be regarded as two extreme poles on a leadership continuum. Rather than being mutually exclusive patterns of leadership, the

suitability of each is situationally dependant, with most leadership behaviour being a combination of the two types.

The transformational leadership construct has doubtless received more interest currently as a result of the rapidly changing environment. Bass and Avolio (1991) noted that transformational and transactional leadership have been researched and observed at disparate organizational levels in the health, industrial, educational, governmental, religious, and military sectors.

Nonetheless, to date, no known comprehensive study has investigated the leadership styles of Human Resource (HR) specialists - those typically responsible for facilitating strategic and cultural change and organizational development in the face of discontinuous environmental change. It is clear that these individuals are typically the nexus of leadership development in South African organizations. One of the key performance areas of most HR specialists is developing leadership skills in line management/supervision at all levels, particularly transformational behaviours. In addition to modelling effective leadership behaviours for line management, HR specialists are required to heighten follower effort and motivation in order to enable their departments to stay abreast of contextual changes, including new technologies in the HR discipline. For these reasons, the researcher believes it imperative that transformational and

transactional leadership patterns and the effects thereof, amongst this population are researched.

This research aims to:

1. Determine whether the transformational and transactional leadership constructs found by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b), are identifiable amongst South African HR specialists.
2. Ascertain whether transformational leadership is more strongly associated with subordinates' positive perceptual outcomes, viz., willingness to exert extra effort, leadership effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader than transactional leadership.
3. Determine whether transformational leadership is more positively and strongly associated with subordinates' performance ratings than transactional leadership.
4. Examine whether transformational leadership adds to the prediction of (a) subordinates' perceptions of willingness to exert extra effort, leadership effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader and (b) subordinates' performance ratings, beyond that of transformational leadership.

Review of Literature

Leadership versus management

Although the distinction between leadership and management is commonly blurred in everyday usage, in leadership literature the nature of this difference remains an area of substantial controversy. The debate surrounding the difference in conceptions appears to be one of degree - no one has proposed that the two are equivalent (Yukl, 1989).

An increasing volume of sociological, psychological and management literature and empirical research indicates a significant qualitative difference between the two constructs. This distinction is important for the purpose of this research only in so far as it highlights the differences between transformational and transactional leadership. In current leadership/managership literature, leadership is typically equated with transformational characteristics whilst transactional leadership is more analogous to conceptions of managership.

Kotter (1990a, p. 103) stated, "leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activities". Whilst good management controls and directs complexity within an existing institutional framework, leadership efficacy produces systems change.

The idea that leadership is revolutionary rather than evolutionary can be traced back to sociologist, Max Weber.

Weber (1947) posited that charismatic leaders launch organizations, only to be replaced by bureaucrats who take over the running thereof. Kotter (1990a) stated that both leadership and managership involve deciding on what needs to be accomplished, creating the networks and relationships to achieve these goals and ensuring that people perform the activities necessary for goal accomplishment. Leaders and managers fulfil these tasks in distinctive ways.

According to Kotter (1990a), management first plans and budgets, whilst leaders develop a vision of the future, taking cognisance of environmental constraints and opportunities and develop strategies necessary to effect that vision. Next, management operationalises its business plans by organizing and staffing. The equivalent leadership activity is aligning people. This involves communicating the organization's vision to stakeholders and eliciting commitment to the attainment of that vision. The final activity of management is ensuring plan accomplishment by controlling and problem solving. However, leaders harness human energies by motivating and inspiring individuals to achieve plans, thus ensuring plan fulfillment. This is done by appealing to individuals' needs, values, aspirations and emotions.

Kotter (1990b) summarised the leadership process as follows:

Leadership is the process of figuring out
the right thing to do, the right direction

to go, the vision for the future; then, of getting all the relevant parties lined up and energised to make it happen (p. 30).

Consistent with Kotter (1990a & b), Manning (1988) claimed that the strategic role of the leader differs from that of the manager in that leaders must promote change while managers maintain an established system.

Zaleznik (1977) defined leadership as the process whereby power is used to influence the thoughts and actions of others. He viewed leadership as an affective process, involving "substance, humanity and morality" (Zaleznik, 1990, p. 7).

Harvey-Jones' (1988) synoptic view of the leadership-managership dichotomy is instructive. He proposed that managership involves the ability to direct organizational incumbents towards a common goal. However, leadership is the ability to enable incumbents to perform far better than they thought they were capable of. He claimed that whilst the science of management could be taught through human-relations skills training, industrial leadership is an art, resulting from both an individual's inherent traits moderated by life experience and empathic behavioural style.

Bennis (1988), UCLA professor and leadership specialist, offered another perspective of this dichotomy. He identified the following distinctions:

1. The manager is an administrator whilst the leader innovates.

2. The manager facilitates the maintenance of institutions whilst the leader plays a developmental role.
3. The managers relies on systems but the leader on people.
4. The manager relies on control, the leader builds relationships of trust.
5. The manager does things right, the leader does the right thing.

Nicholls (1993) contended that leadership is a necessary and integral part of effective management. Contrary to most current leadership specialists, he maintained:

Managers who do not lead are failing to fulfil their function as managers. When lacking its leadership dimensions, management is reduced to mere administration (p. 1).

It is apparent that leadership and management, whilst having different causes, moderating influences and outcomes, complement one another. The primary distinction appears to be that while leaders influence followers' commitment and needs, managers are concerned with position responsibilities and exercising authority (Yukl, 1989).

Kotter (1988) indicated that strong management with little leadership tends to result in bureaucratic,

mechanistic organizations which become less creative and innovative over time and rule-bound. Conversely, strong leadership with little management to control things and provide rational, analytical decision-making tends to result in an organization which may be too volatile. He concluded that though both are probably always needed to some degree, in a relatively predictable and prosperous environment, limited leadership with strong management appears to be appropriate. However, in times of chaos and discontinuous environmental flux, strong leadership with limited management may be conducive to organizational success.

Consistent with those writers who see little purpose in distinguishing between managership and leadership, since these roles are typically assumed simultaneously, this research draws no distinction between these concepts. It is assumed that the sample included in the study have both managerial and leadership competencies in varying quantities. We will see later that this is consistent with the augmentation effect of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

An operational definition of leadership

There is no one generally accepted definition of leadership. Notwithstanding, on the basis of the extensive literature on leadership, it is possible to develop an operational definition of leadership. Yukl (1989) advised that any attempt to resolve the controversy

regarding the construct's definition may be premature; this, he claimed, would impede research and theorising to concretise the construct. Though there is validity in this argument, the converse is also true. That is, without theoretical definitions, empirical research cannot be promoted.

The researcher accepts that any definition needs to take account of the multi-faceted nature of the construct; the behaviours, characteristics, roles and relationships, attitudes and environmental framework - internal and external - within which each leader operates.

Kotter (1988), drawing on the work of Burns (1978) and Jennings (1960) defined leadership as

the process of moving a group (or groups) in some direction through mostly noncoercive means. Effective leadership is defined as leadership that produces movement in the long-term best interest of the group(s) (p. 5).

While this definition incorporates the influential role that leaders play, it ignores important dimensions of the leadership process, particularly that of leader-follower relationships. Stewart (1982) conceptualised leadership as a system of relationships with both constraints and opportunities. He defined constraints as, inter alia, expectations and commitments of followers, in addition to task demands.

By marrying the two principal dimensions of task influence and relationships with other aspects of leadership, the following multifactor definition is proposed for this research:

Leadership is the dynamic process of employing personal characteristics and environmental constraints or opportunities to influence an individual, group or organization, through a system of relationships, towards a common, defined goal.

Therefore, effective leadership is where this goal or common purpose reflects the needs, interests and aspirations of the majority of followers. Consistent with Schein's (1985) contention, this definition recognises leadership as a function within the organization rather than simply the personality of an individual. Also, it incorporates the assumption that "the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables - $L = f(l, f, s)$ " (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 94).

Major theoretical approaches to leadership

The field of leadership is currently unclear, with numerous inconsistencies and misconceptions characterising literature, research and development. Yukl (1989) revealed that most theories have conceptual weaknesses and lack convincing empirical support.

Lau, Atwater, Avolio and Bass (1993) pointed out that leadership has been conceived in the following twelve ways:

1. The central element in group change.
2. A type of personality.
3. The induction of compliance.
4. Influence.
5. A specific set of behaviours.
6. A form of persuasion.
7. A power relation.
8. An instrument of goal achievement.
9. The consequence of an interaction.
10. A differentiated role.
11. The balance between initiation of structure and consideration (or person vs. task-oriented).
12. A position of administration, management or political appointment in an organizational hierarchy. (p. 8)

The researcher will propose that the transactional and transformational constructs are a promising direction out of this confusion, but are far-off a panacea. Since these constructs are products of disparate approaches to leadership, the most relevant leadership theories, and resultant research, require brief examination.

Power - Influence approach

The concepts of power and influence are central to the leadership process. Influence embodies changing

followers' beliefs, values, needs, attitudes, opinions and/or behaviours through goal-directed action. Power may be defined as "a leader's influence potential. It is the resource that enables a leader to induce compliance from or to influence others" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 221).

Research on the power construct, like that on influence and leadership, has produced equivocal results. Power has been conceptualised as both potential influence and enacted or realised influence (Yukl, 1989). Moreover, power has been defined as influence over attitudes and behaviour of people and sometimes as influence over events (Yukl, 1989).

Hollander and Offermann (1990, p. 179) identified three forms of organizational power: "power over", "power to" and "power from". Power over is clearly the most familiar form and involves explicit or implicit dominance. Leadership in organizations will always involve this type of power in varying degrees. Power to gives followers the ability to influence some aspects of their work environment by accepting greater responsibility and/or participating in decision making. It involves empowering followers through a sharing of power, information, rewards, and knowledge. Power from is the ability to gain power by resisting the unwanted demands of others. Hollander and Offermann proposed that these power forms are distributed skewly in the organization; high status

incumbents have a degree of all three, whilst low status participants typically have only one or two forms.

French and Raven (1959) identified five power bases through which leaders exercise influence: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent and expert. Though this typology offers useful insight into the power-influence process, most research thereon has been criticised widely on the issue of measurement, largely as a result of it relying on perceptual indicators of power (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985; Yukl, 1989). French and Raven's classification can be broadly clustered into two power sources - that stemming from the attributes of the person (i.e., personal power) and that from the attributes of the situation (i.e., position power). Recent research has indicated that a multiplicative (person x position) rather than an additive model (person + position) is more valid in explaining why some leaders hold more power than others (Yukl, 1989).

Research by Mulder, Koppelaar, de Jong and Verhage (1986), concerning the prevalence and effectiveness of eight influence types in noncrisis and crisis situations offers useful insight into how power is linked to leadership efficacy. The researchers found that effective leaders used open consultation more often in noncrisis than in crisis situations. Formal power, sanction power (i.e., reward and coercive power) and expert power were more prevalent in crisis situations. Moreover, it was found that more formal power was ascribed to effective

leaders in crisis circumstances than in noncrisis circumstances; for less effective leaders, no difference was observed across situations. Research indicates that effective leaders rely on a number of power sources in order to stimulate high effort, initiative, and persistence across situations (Yukl, 1989).

Yukl (1989) proposed that the amount of position power necessary for leadership effectiveness is dependent on the nature of the organization, task and subordinates. Leaders require some position power to enable them to bring about change, reward high performing employees and correct dysfunctional conduct. However, Hersey and Blanchard (1993) cautioned that it is not sufficient for leaders to have only position power or authority; to be effective, they also require personal power. Too much authority may cause leaders to rely on it too heavily at the expense of other forms of influence such as persuasion, participation and inspirational appeals (Yukl, 1989). Therefore, the optimum amount of position power, although largely contingent on situational variables, may be a moderate amount, regulated by organizational limitations in the form of upward assertion, top-down authority, a culture and management style that favours empowerment and participation.

Long term leadership efficacy requires that power be oriented not towards personal aggrandisement (i.e., personalised power), but towards organizational interests and objectives (i.e., socialised power) (McClelland &

Burnham, 1976). Maritz (1991), in researching the relationship between the power motive, leadership style and management efficiency amongst 351 South African industrial managers, found a significant relationship between the socialised power motive and the considerate leadership style (i.e., a leader who shows concern for followers' interests, needs and general well-being). Moreover, a significant positive relationship was found between the personalised power motive and the structure-initiating leadership style (i.e., a leader who emphasises formal roles, structures and definite standards in the search for goal attainment).

In a study of the role of power in strategic decision making, Finkelstein (1992) found that structural, ownership and prestige power determined the ability of top managers to affect firm strategy. It would appear that genuine attempts at developing followership need to encourage followers' responsibility in decision-making (i.e., distributing power), rather than simply enabling them to influence aspects of the decision making process (i.e., sharing power). A lack of autonomy and participation amongst followers can give rise to perceptions of powerlessness which, in turn, may lead to reactance, helplessness and work alienation (Ashforth, 1989). According to Conger (1989), rapidly changing circumstances, such as a major reorganization, will increase the incidence of powerlessness amongst followers. In such situations, leaders should apply empowering

practices tailored to the particular situation. Hollander and Offermann (1990) proposed that delegation is probably superior to participation in that it truly empowers followers. Delegation involves allowing individual followers to make decisions which the leader would otherwise make (Heller & Yukl, 1969). It removes the locus of decision making from leader-follower dyads or follower groups and stresses individual autonomy. Though delegation emphasises individual development and cognitive growth through expanded use of skills, autonomy and responsibility, it has received far less research attention than participation (Hollander & Offermann, 1990). Leana (1987) found that delegation was correlated with higher subordinate performance, whilst participation was correlated with lower performance. This difference was explained in terms of the discriminate devolvement of authority. Capable, high performers are delegated more responsibility, whilst low performers are given less. Hollander and Offermann (1990, p. 184) submitted "although delegation distributes power, it does so selectively rather than equally". They pointed out that delegation will place new demands on leaders; controlling and directing the behaviour of followers becomes unimportant, whilst facilitation and consultation are essential. Despite the proven positive outcomes associated with delegation, leaders will frequently resist it primarily as a result of fear of unit performance deteriorating and misconceptions of power as a zero-sum commodity.

Trait Theories

Early leadership theories stressed the primacy of universal qualities such as tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight and irresistible persuasive powers in explaining leaders' success (Yukl, 1989). In terms of these theories, leader characteristics were regarded as "fixed, largely inborn, and applicable across situations" (Hollander Offermann, 1990, p. 179). These "great man theories" of leadership yielded discouraging results. Notwithstanding, they motivated the emergence of theories explaining leadership in terms of traits of personality and character (Stogdill, 1974).

Research to pinpoint common leadership traits yielded poor statistical correlations. Stogdill (1948), on reviewing trait research, found that those abilities consistently but weakly related to leadership effectiveness were capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation and status. Also, Ghiselli (1963) identified several traits including initiative, the ability to act and initiate action independently and hierarchical level, which were related to leader effectiveness.

Despite this weak empirical support, recent literature on leadership is replete with assertions of distinguishing leadership traits or areas of competence (e.g., Bennis, 1984; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Kotter, 1990b; Kouzes & Posner 1990; Zaleznik, 1977). Zaleznik (1977) cited several traits associated with effective leadership, including honesty, integrity, charisma,

empathy, a good self esteem and sense of identity. Kotter (1990b) maintained that leaders require moderate amounts of intelligence, internal drive, emotional stability and integrity. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) presented a strong argument that key leadership traits including drive, cognitive ability, leadership motivation, honesty, integrity and self-confidence, help the leader to acquire necessary skills, formulate an organizational vision and take the necessary steps to implement the vision in reality. On the basis of a five year study of 90 leaders and their followers, Bennis (1984), cited the following four traits as characteristic of effective leaders: "management of attention", "management of meaning", "management of trust" and "management of self".

Whilst a resurgence in trait research is evident, the focus has shifted from personality traits and general intelligence to specific competencies and motivation (Yukl, 1989). Interest has developed in the qualities required to perform well as a leader, rather than those necessary to become one. Also, through improved research methods and better designed research, trait research is revealing how leader traits are related to leadership behaviour and effectiveness (Yukl, 1989)

It would appear that effective leadership requires the appropriate mix of technical, conceptual and interpersonal skills, in a particular context. The researcher submits that, taking motivation into account, this congruence may be explained by the following

interactive model: leadership effectiveness = f (abilities x motivation x situation). One implication of this theory is that leaders are not born, but made (Bennis, 1989). Their capacities and competencies are moulded by motivation, business and non-business experiences and formal training and must be applied appropriately if they are to result in positive organizational outcomes. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) concluded that whilst traits may facilitate or impede leadership in a given situation, there is no universal set of traits that will ensure leadership efficacy.

Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) estimated that between 49% and 82% of leadership variance can be attributed to some stable characteristic. They attributed this to the successful leader's ability to modify his/her style in accordance with group needs, rather than to traditional personality traits. They concluded that the failure to identify universal leadership traits may indicate a deficiency in research and measurement methodologies, rather than the absence of generic qualities.

Feldberg (1975) offered the following critique of trait approaches:

The trait approach seems to overlook the fact that leadership is dynamic and that people function as leaders in a particular time and place. Leadership does not operate in a vacuum. It is exercised in a social

context which is itself dynamic and changing (p. 100).

Other limitations of trait theories include a lack of concern with leader-follower relationships (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1982; Hollander & Offermann, 1990; Robbins, 1986; Stogdill, 1974); ambiguity regarding the relative importance of traits (Robbins, 1986); an inability to separate cause from effect (Robbins, 1986); measurement problems (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983); lack of consideration of situational variables (Gibson et al., 1982; Hollander & Offermann; Stogdill, 1974) and the quality of the leaders' performance (Hollander & Offermann, 1990).

Behavioural theories

In view of the lack of consistency and significance inherent in trait theories, the emphasis of research turned to particular behaviours and skills which differentiated effective from ineffective leaders; "what leaders and managers actually do on the job" (Yukl, 1989, p. 257). The main impetus behind this research was the viewpoint that people could be trained to be leaders, rather than being born into leadership.

On the basis of the Ohio State Studies, Stogdill and his colleagues identified two clear dimensions of leadership behaviour - "initiating structure" and "consideration" (Stogdill & Coons, 1957). The former entailed setting goals, giving direction, providing

resources and organizing the work setting. Consideration comprised providing psychological support, guiding the work teams interactions, etc. Research indicated that these dimensions were separate and distinct. Leaders high on both dimensions simultaneously were more effective than leaders who rated low on one or both dimensions.

Leadership studies undertaken at the University of Michigan at about the same time corroborated these findings. The following two dimensions were identified as important in determining leadership efficacy - "employee orientation" and "production orientation" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Robbins, 1986). These dimensions were similar to Stogdill and Coons' (1957) initiating structure and consideration. Studies showed that leaders who were employee-oriented realised higher group productivity and job satisfaction whilst production-oriented leadership was correlated with low group performance and low satisfaction.

Blake and Mouton (1964), using the above two studies as a basis, developed the "managerial grid"; a two dimensional view of the two central leadership styles emergent from the Ohio and Michigan studies, in addition to variations thereof. Blake and Mouton's grid consists of 81 varying combinations of production-oriented and people-oriented styles. The researchers found that managers perform best when they have a high level of concern for people and production simultaneously. They called this "team management" - characterised by mutually accepted

and understood performance objectives and a committed and involved followership. They maintained that this would lead to the development of a relationship of trust and collaboration. Conversely, it was proposed that a low concern for both production and employees is associated with inferior performance. This was termed "impoverished management" - creating low commitment amongst followers, resulting in performance levels being below standard. Though the grid is a useful integrative model insofar as behavioural theories of leadership are concerned, it offers little empirical evidence concerning the observed effectiveness of leadership styles across situations. Rather, it measures attitudinal predisposition towards production and people.

More recently, research has focused on the content of leader/manager activities rather than observed or predisposed behaviour patterns (Yukl, 1989). This has revealed a wide, complex array of taxonomies and behaviour constructs (e.g., Luthans & Lockwood, 1984), offering little clarity regarding leader behaviour and how it relates to effectiveness. Nonetheless, empirical evidence indicates that networking, motivating, problem-solving, planning, monitoring and clarifying behaviours are related to managerial/leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1989).

Situational models

The search by behavioural theorists for the "best" leadership style across situations was unsuccessful

(Gibson et al., 1982), although several behavioural dimension were found to be significant predictors of leader effectiveness. Consequently, the focus of research turned to situational variables. Theorists such as Fielder (1967), House (1971) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) regarded leadership effectiveness as a joint function of leader qualities and situational variables.

Although there are many situational models and theories, only the following four have been outlined as a result of their relevance to the current research:

- Leadership Contingency Model
- Path-Goal Theory
- Normative Contingency Model
- Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Fielder's Leadership Contingency Model

The contingency approach to leadership was initiated by Fielder (1967) with his Leadership Contingency Model. He affirmed the contribution that traits play in leadership effectiveness. However, he proposed that three situational variables: leader-member relations, task structure and position power moderate the relationship between leader traits and leader effectiveness. These contingency factors determine the "favourableness of the situation" (Fielder, 1967, p. 13), or the degree to which the leader is able to influence his/her group.

Research by Fielder (1972) revealed the following:

- Task-oriented leaders tend to perform better than relationship-oriented leaders in situations that are very favourable or unfavourable.
- Relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform better than task-oriented leaders in situations that are intermediate in favourableness.
- The performance of the leader depends as much on situational variables as it does on the individual in the leadership position.

Fielder (1967) claimed that leadership efficacy could be achieved through matching leadership style with situational variables, either by changing the leader's behaviour or by changing the leader's situation. However, he contended that changing a leader's behaviour through training is extremely difficult.

The model has given risen to widespread criticism (Graen, Orris & Alvares, 1971; Sashkin, 1991; Schriesheim, Bannister & Money, 1979) Notwithstanding, Robbins (1986) and Gibbons (1982) alleged that Fielder's contribution to leadership lies in the direction in which he has taken leadership research and application, rather than the answers provided by his model and consonant research.

Path-Goal theory

Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974) is a situational model based on the leader's success in influencing followers' motivation towards personal

goals and goal attainment along a path. The model is closely linked to the expectancy model of motivation which holds that people are satisfied with their job if they believe it will lead to outcomes that are highly valued (House & Mitchell, 1974).

The three situational variables impacting on leader style are the task, subordinates' characteristics and the nature of the subordinates' group. The theory emphasises the impact of leadership behaviours on job satisfaction for any given situation. House and Mitchell (1974) contended, *inter alia*, the following:

- Job satisfaction will be low where leader directiveness is low in an unstructured task situation and vice versa.
- Job satisfaction will be high where leader directiveness is low in a structured task situational and vice versa.

They explained these effects as follows. Highly structured tasks are inherently less satisfying and will therefore result in frustration and stress on the part of followers. However, the leader can reduce these negative effects by using supportive, relationship-oriented behaviour. In such situations, required activities are clear to followers and leader task-oriented behaviour is not required. Conversely, if followers are performing unstructured tasks, Path-Goal Theory proposes that the

leader should exhibit high task-oriented behaviour and low relationship-oriented behaviour.

Normative Contingency Model

Vroom and Yetton (1973) developed a model - the Normative Contingency Model - which specifies leader decision-making procedures most effective in specific situations.

Situational variables influencing leaders' decision quality and acceptance include importance of decision quality, availability of sufficient information to the leader and followers, clarity of the problem, the degree to which the commitment of followers is necessary in implementing the decision and the likelihood of conflict among followers over the preferred outcome.

The model has a number of limitations, including its complexity (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991) and narrow focus of leadership behaviour (Yukl, 1989). However, both Yukl and Gibson et al. maintained that it is one of the best situational theories and offers valuable insight into leaders' cognitive decision-making processes.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Another situational theory, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975), describes how leaders develop different exchange relationships with subordinates over time. Some subordinates are given greater rewards (e.g., tangible benefits, recognition,

autonomy, influence, etc.) for greater loyalty, effort and commitment in performing their duties. Yukl (1989) pointed out that this model is only situational in that subordinates are treated differentially depending on whether they are members of the in-group or out-group. The leader's effectiveness is determined by the nature of his/her relationship with followers and superiors. It is proposed that a manager who has a favourable relationship with his/her manager will be better equip to develop sound exchange relationships with subordinates.

Dienesch and Liden (1986), in a comprehensive review of LMX literature and research, identified LMX as a multidimensional construct. They proposed the following three primary dimensions constituting the relationship between superior and subordinate:

- perceived contribution to the exchange,
- loyalty, and
- affect.

They pointed out that the degrees or levels of the above clearly and differentially influence the behaviour of dyadic members. Though the model has substantial measurement and conceptual problems (Yukl, 1989), it provides us with a valuable framework for examining downward and upward leader-follower exchange relationships. It also incorporates the principle of reciprocal causation, whereby leader behaviour causes follower behaviour and vice versa (Gibson et al., 1991).

Conclusion

In conclusion, all the models and theories presented above fall short of offering an integrated framework for leadership research and application taking account of traits, specific behaviours and situational variables.

A new leadership paradigm - transformational and transactional leadership - arguably overcomes many of the limitations of previous approaches.

CHAPTER TWO

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Burns' New Leadership Paradigm

A integrative theory of leadership, incorporating facets of most earlier leadership models, evolved primarily as a result of the writings of Burns (1978), which in turn was based on the work of Downton (1973). Burns claimed that leadership theorists had concentrated primarily on how leaders wield power at the expense of researching leaders' tasks of instilling purpose and mobilising followers by arousal, engagement and need satisfaction.

In his seminal analysis of political leadership, he distinguished between transformational and transactional patterns of leadership. [He viewed transformational leadership as both a micro-level influence process between individuals and as a macro-level process of mobilising power to change social systems and reform institutions. Burns (1978) proposed that transformational leaders seek to raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and values such as liberty, justice, peace and humanitarianism as opposed to dysfunctional emotions such as fear, greed, jealousy and hatred. Using this premise, he distinguished transformational leadership as moral leadership, as distinct from political leadership.

In his definition of transformational leadership he proposed:

transforming leadership becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both the leader and the led, and thus has a transforming effect on both (p. 20)

Burns (1978) claimed that transformational leadership can be exhibited towards peers and superiors, in addition to subordinates. He proposed that transactional leadership, unlike transformational, is characterised by the leader appealing to followers' self-interest and exchanging valued rewards for services rendered, e.g., "jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions" (p. 3). He proposed that this would result in increased performance, together with higher levels of change and development.

Bass' Application of Burns' Model to Organizational Leadership

Bass (1985) applied Burns' (1978) concept of the leader as a transforming agent to organizational leadership, particularly for understanding how leaders engage the "full" person and elicit performance beyond expectations.

He characterised the transactional leader as follows:

1. Identifies what rewards, both intrinsic and extrinsic, followers want from their work and tries to satisfy these needs provided their performance is acceptable.
2. Exchanges rewards and promises of rewards for appropriate levels of effort.
3. Responds to the self-interests of followers as long as they are getting the job done.

Transformational leaders differ from transactional in that they not only identify and address the needs of followers, but also endeavour to raise these to higher levels of maturity (Avolio & Gibbons, 1988; Bass, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Transformational leadership emphasises the "strong forces" of leadership - those which motivate followers to perform to their full potential over time (Bass & Avolio, 1990b).

The transactional leader was characterised as exhibiting the following behaviours:

1. Raises the level of awareness of followers about the importance of achieving valued outcomes, a vision and the organization's strategy.
2. Inspires followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team, organization or larger collectivity.

3. Expands followers' portfolio of needs by raising their awareness to improve themselves and what they are attempting to accomplish.

Nicholls (1988), distinguished two differing perspectives from which transformational leadership may be viewed: the "mover and shaker" and the "noncoercive influence - on individuals".

He proposed that the former achieves a transformation in respect of the effectiveness of the organization through successful performance of the macro leadership roles of "path-finding" (i.e., optimising environmental opportunities) and "culture-building" (i.e., creating a common system of meaning for stakeholders).

The latter 'engages' the full person of the followers, raising their self-esteem, motivation and morality. This is done through the meta and micro leadership process of exerting democratic influence on individuals needs, aspirations and motivations. Although this type of transformational leadership is regarded by Nicholls (1988) as being more consistent with Burns' (1978) and Bass' (1985) conception of transformational leadership, the differentiation appears to be of academic importance only. In practice, transformational leaders appear to initiate fundamental change at the individual, group and organizational levels.

Bass' (1985) model of transformational leadership differs from Burns' (1978) in three respects:

1. Bass' model recognises the role the transformational leader plays in expanding the followers portfolio of needs and wants.
2. Burns viewed the transformation as one which is necessarily elevating. One of the premises of his model is that leadership can only occur where a mutuality of interests between leader and followers exists. This assumption precludes dictatorship as a manifestation of transformational leadership. Burns claimed, "a leader and tyrant are polar opposites" (p. 2). Conversely, Bass and Nicholls (1988) contended that transformational leadership is not necessarily functional leadership, as perceived from an ethnocentric perspective.
3. Burns viewed transformational leadership and transactional leadership at opposite ends of a single continuum, whilst Bass conceived transformational leadership as augmenting transactional leadership.

Transactional Leadership

Introduction

The most common variety of leadership exercised in today's organizations would appear to be transactional leadership (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991; Peters & Waterman, 1982). This type of leadership has developed out of the social exchange perspective (Hollander & Offermann, 1990). It is similar to Blanchard and Johnson's (1982)

conception of managerial effectiveness in their book "One Minute Manager".

The transactional approach uses path-goal concepts (House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974) as its framework. Transactional leaders influence and clarify followers' task objectives, personal objectives and paths to goal accomplishment. Yukl's (1981) concept of goal setting, which he defined as the degree to which the leader emphasises performance goals for each key performance area, measures performance against these objectives and provides concrete feedback, parallels this. As a result of this process, followers have a clear understanding of their task roles and expectations of the leader, work unit and organization. Followers reciprocate with increased esteem and responsiveness towards the leader (Hollander & Offermann, 1990).

In accordance with the expectancy model of motivation (House & Mitchell, 1974), followers are motivated to achieve expected standards of performance if the rewards on offer are salient to the individual and if they believe their effort will lead to these valued outcomes. Rewards may include satisfactory performance ratings, pay increases, positive feedback and recognition, better work assignments, etc. (Avolio et al., 1991).

Hollander and Offermann (1990) pointed out that this leadership approach emphasises the use of persuasive influence rather than coercive power and compliance.

However, Bass' (1985) conception of transactional leadership does incorporate coercive elements.

The transactional approach stresses followers' perceptions of the leader (Hollander & Offermann, 1990). In line with the LMX leadership model, followers in the in-group (i.e., closer to the leader), will have a higher quality relationship with the leader. At the same time, the leader will have higher expectations of performance and commitment from these individuals and they will get more rewards for goal accomplishment. Conversely, followers in the out-group will have a less favourable relationship, get fewer benefits and the leader will make fewer personal demands. Liden and Graen (1980) found that followers who perceived their relationships with their supervisors as favourable assumed more job responsibility, contributed more and were rated as higher performers than those who reported less favourable relationships.

The specific skills and behaviours exercised by transactional leaders in influencing followers' expectancies and efforts have been categorised as contingent reward and management-by-exception (Bass, 1985).

Transactional Leadership Behaviours

Contingent Reward

Bass (1985) compared contingent reward to the signing of a contract:

Leader and subordinate accept interconnected roles and responsibilities to reach designated goals. Directly or indirectly, leaders can provide rewards for progress towards such goals or for reaching them (p. 122).

Contingent reward behaviour incorporates a degree of individualised consideration, a transformational construct, as leaders attempt to reward subordinates for task accomplishment in accordance with their individual needs and aspirations (Bass, 1985).

Bass (1985) differentiated between contingent reward and non-contingent reward. The former arises where followers are rewarded for the attainment of a predetermined goal. The latter occurs where followers receive valued rewards regardless of whether established goals are achieved. He also differentiated between contingent reward (e.g., praise, recognition, recommendations for pay increases, bonuses, promotion, etc.) and contingent punishment (e.g., negative feedback, disciplinary action, performance counselling and less frequently used sanctions such as fines, suspension without pay, loss of leader support, etc.). Like non-contingent reward, punishment may be non-contingent on task performance.

Research has shown that contingent reward behaviours have differing, but primarily positive, effects on subordinate effort and performance by clarifying

followers' expectations that desired rewards will accrue to them as a result of their efforts (Oldham, 1976; Podsakoff, Todor & Skov, 1982). Also, contingent reward behaviours contribute indirectly to enhanced performance and satisfaction with the leader by reducing role ambiguities and conflicts (Bass, 1985) and increase leader influence (Sims, 1977). Podsakoff et al., (1982) found that non-contingent reward and contingent punishment had less positive effects and no effect on followers' effort and performance, respectively. Moreover, loss of a leader's ability to provide followers with rewards contingent on performance resulted in a decline in followers' desire to identify with the leader and loss of leader legitimacy and influence (Greene & Podsakoff, 1981). The effects of non-contingent punishment were generally dysfunctional, resulting in dissatisfaction, conflict and an overall decrease in performance (Podsakoff et al., 1982).

Bass (1985) pointed out that contingent reward is moderated by situational factors and subordinate motivations, skills and abilities. If the work unit, organization or situation provides goal clarity, guidance and contingent reinforcements, contingent reward behaviours of leaders will be of less importance to followers. Additionally, if the follower attaches no valence to the rewards being offered, the importance of contingent reward behaviours declines. Self-reinforcement may also substitute for contingent reward

when a subordinate is experienced and has a high self-confidence.

Yukl (1981) identified several conditions which facilitate the effectiveness of contingent reward behaviours. These include:

1. When the leader has control over the allocation of rewards.
2. When performance outcomes are dependant upon the efforts of subordinates rather than extraneous conditions.
3. When it is possible to measure follower performance objectively.
4. When the nature of the work is repetitive and boring rather than meaningful, varied and interesting.

Bass (1985) noted that situational variables also influence the frequency of contingent and noncontingent negative reinforcement. Organizational factors such as a mechanistic structure or top-management control over issuing rewards may impede supervisors from providing and/or recommending rewards. This has been found to increase the use of punishment as a mechanism to achieve production demands (Greene & Podsakoff, 1981). Also, Bass proposed that the use of contingent punishment, rather than reward, may be a product of the leader's values.

Management-by-Exception

Bass (1985) maintained that a leader who elects to intervene and correct performance only when performance standards are deviated from is practising management-by-exception. The rationale underlying this leadership form is "if it ain't broke, don't fix it" (p. 122).

Management-by-exception can be split into an active and passive component (Yammarino & Bass, 1990a). Leaders practising active management-by-exception are proactive in that they monitor and correct deviations before they arise. On the other hand, the passive leader is reactive, waiting for problems to occur before to taking corrective action.

Specific behaviours associated with this type of leadership include monitoring to check whether tasks are completed to the required standards, remaining alert to deviations from established norms and taking corrective action where such deviations occur (Bass, 1985).

Bass (1985) proposed that management-by-exception is less successful than both transformational leadership and contingent reward in motivating followers towards increased performance. If practised continuously, it has been found to be counterproductive. Active management-by-exception has been found to have a negligible or low impact on effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1991).

Shortcomings of Transactional Leadership

Research indicates that transactional leadership, comprising the two dimensions described above, may be an effective means of maintaining acceptable standards of behaviour in times of limited environmental change (Avolio et al., 1991; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). However, it is only able to predict expected levels of effort and performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990a). It does not explain why followers are willing to sacrifice self-interest and exert effort beyond that which is expected from them in terms of the transaction. It also falls short of explaining the processes whereby leaders are able to transform followers' values, attitudes, needs and aspirations; elicit and mobilise their commitment to a vision and optimise their motivation and performance without offering any new rewards.

Despite these weaknesses, Nicholls (1993) emphasised that most successful transformational leaders are able to exercise effective transactional leadership in respect of day-to-day routine requirements and actions. The researcher therefore proposes, in line with Bass (1985), that transactional leadership should be viewed as complementary to transformational leadership. Hollander and Offermann (1990, p. 182) maintained, "transformational leadership can be seen as an extension of transactional leadership, but with greater rewards in leader intensity and follower arousal".

Transformational Leadership

Leadership and the Transformational Process

The concept of system-wide, strategic change is central to transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Roberts, 1984; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Tichy & Ulrich, 1984). As noted by Gibson et al. (1991, p. 422), "the transformational leader will overhaul the entire philosophy, system and culture of an organization".

Avolio et al. (1991) maintained that organizations have to become increasingly responsive to discontinuous change and environmental turmoil in order to remain competitive and prosper. Consequently, organizational leaders should proactively promote change, particularly that of a revolutionary nature. Relatedly, Bass (1985) proposed that revolutionary, transformational leadership is most effective in bringing about strategic redirection.

Nadler and Tushman (1990) emphasised the importance of charismatic and instrumental leadership (closely resembling transformational and transactional leadership, respectively) in effecting strategic change, whether reactive or anticipatory.

Tichy and Ulrich (1984), expanding on the work of Burns (1978) developed a framework of transformational leadership, incorporating individual and organizational dynamics of change. They maintained that organizational revitalisation requires that leaders overcome individual

and organizational resistance in three interrelated systems, viz., technical, political and cultural. They added that these resistances are most prevalent during the early stages of organizational transformation. Whether these forces result in inadequate change and decline, or transformation, depends on the type of leadership exercised. Tichy and Ulrich claimed that, "defensive transactional leadership will not rechannel the resistant forces ... revitalisation requires transformational leadership" (p. 63).

Tichy and Ulrich (1984) noted that in order to successfully transform the organization, the leader is required to manage three distinct phases:

1. Creation of a vision reflecting a desired future state.
2. Mobilisation of commitment around the vision to operationalise it.
3. Institutionalising change by transmitting vision into reality, mission into action and philosophy into practice.

Also, transformational leaders are required to simultaneously understand and manage individual psychodynamics of change amongst followers including anxiety, fear and hope, pressure and stimulation, loss of meaning and new meaning.

These phases of transformational are similar to Roberts' (1985, p. 1034) phases of "alignment" (i.e., followers regard the organization's purpose as an extension of their own and are deeply committed to this common mission), "attunement" (i.e., strong emotional attachment amongst organizational members based on mutual respect and understanding) and "energy" (i.e., followers become excited about the potential for change and are willing to participate).

Relatedly, Kiefer and Senge (1986, p. 70), in their analysis of transforming organizations, described the following five dimensions comprising the philosophy of "metanoic organizations": a deep sense of vision or purposefulness; alignment around that vision; empowering people; structural integrity and the balance of reason and intuition. They pointed out that leaders in metanoic organizations are required to sustain vision, promote alignment, and facilitate policy and structure emergence.

One of the primary objectives of the transformational leader is effecting fundamental culture change in organizations (Bass, 1985; Schmikl, 1990). According to Bass, the transformational leader "invents, introduces, and advances the cultural forms" (p. 24). Conversely, transactional leaders work within the existing culture, reinforcing it. A transformational leader will change more than the organizational culture. Systems, policies, structures and processes may all be influenced by the

transformational leader. Correspondingly, Burke and Litwin (1988) advanced that climate results from organizational transactions whereas culture change requires transformational experiences or events such as critical environmental change and/or new leadership.

The specific competencies required by leaders managing organizational transformation, in addition to situational moderators thereof, are reviewed below.

Transformational Leadership Behaviours

Charisma

Based on the trait-based leadership model of Weber (1947), a new paradigm of leadership emerged in the 1970's developed by theorists such as House (1977), Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Sashkin (1988). This emphasised inspirational, symbolic and visionary behaviour and became collectively termed charismatic leadership.

Charisma has been defined as a relationship between leader and followers, a personality characteristic and a social structure (Bradley, 1987). A distinction has been drawn between "pure charisma", arising from the behaviour of the leader, and "routinised charisma", arising from the leader occupying a formal or hereditary position (Weber, 1946). Etzioni (1975) claimed that pure charisma is acquired through ongoing achievement by the leader as a result of his/her actual or perceived behaviour. Conger and Kanungo (1987) proposed that charismatic leaders' influence stems from the use of their personal power

(expert and referent) as opposed to the use of their position power (legal, coercive and reward).

Willner (1984) claimed that followers perceive the charismatic leader as one who possesses supernatural qualities and powers. They accept unconditionally the leader's mission and call for action. House, Spangler and Woycke (1991) defined charisma as

...the ability of a leader to exercise diffuse and intense influence over the beliefs, values, behaviour and performance of others through his or her own behaviour, beliefs and personal example (p. 366).

According to Kets de Vries' (1988) psychoanalytic perspective of leadership, elements of charisma are present in all forms of leadership. They stem from psychodynamic processes inherent in leader-follower behaviour, inter alia, intrapsychic conflicts, projection and transference. However, to date, no definitive answer has been found in respect of the nature of this type of leadership (Gibson et al., 1991).

Transformational leadership has frequently been equated with charismatic leadership (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Considerable debate still exists as to whether there is an empirical and conceptual distinction between the two concepts (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988). However, Yukl (1989) proposed that charismatic leadership is generally defined more narrowly than transformational leadership. For the purposes of this

research, charismatic leadership will be identified as only one aspect of transformational leadership, being a necessary but not sufficient ingredient of it (Bass, 1985).

According to House (1977), charismatic leadership is characterised by nine charismatic effects, inter alia, follower trust in the correctness of the leader's beliefs; unquestioning acceptance of the leader; affection for the leader and willing obedience to the leader. Other outcomes of charismatic leadership identified through theory and research, include changes in the values and beliefs of followers (Etzioni, 1975); performance beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; House, 1977) and a willingness by followers to sacrifice personal interests in favour of a collective goal (Bass, 1985). Leader behaviours (e.g., articulation, role modelling and visioning) and leader characteristics (e.g., dominance, expertise, self-confidence) interact to produce these outcomes (House, 1977).

Despite studies using House's (1977) and other conceptual frameworks of charismatic leadership, no universally accepted pattern of leadership behaviours and characteristics has emerged (Gibson et al., 1991). A shortage of empirical research in this area aggravates the problem.

Conger and Kanungo (1987) viewed charisma as an attributional phenomenon. Followers attribute charismatic qualities to leaders based on the leader's behaviour and perceived outcomes associated with it. The relative

importance of each behaviour for attribution of charisma is contingent upon the situation. Further, behaviours are seen to be exhibited by leaders in varying quantities. Specific charismatic behaviours include: enthusiastically advocating an appealing vision that is acceptable to the follower; making self-sacrifices and risking personal loss of status, money or organizational membership in pursuit of the espoused vision; acting in unconventional ways to achieve the espoused vision. Distinguishing characteristics of charismatic leaders include, inter alia: vision; emotional expressiveness; articulation skills; high activity level; high self-confidence and self-determination and a high need for power.

Conger and Kanungo (1987; 1988) proposed that charismatic leadership would be more prevalent in crisis situations. They maintained that charisma would decline as soon as radical changes cease and either an administrator ("caretaker") or managerial ("nudging") role is assumed. Empirically supporting this, House et al. (1991), in a study of personality and charisma amongst 31 U.S. Presidents, found that charismatic leadership seemed most likely to emerge under conditions of crisis; in organic and decentralised, rather than mechanistic and bureaucratic structures; and in the context of value systems which allows the emergence of personal power. They held that charismatic leadership is less likely to be required, and may even be dysfunctional, in contexts

requiring reliable and routine performance in pursuit of pragmatic goals.

Notwithstanding, Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Bass (1985) found that charismatic leadership may emerge without contextual crisis, particularly in high opportunity, entrepreneurial environments. This is exemplified by recent management literature which advises management to embark on a process of "organizational self-renewal" (Hughes, 1990, p. 44) and to "create a crises" (Dumaine, 1993, p. 80) Pepsi Cola's leadership has recently facilitated a transformation in this manner to improve market positioning and profitability (Dumaine, 1993). It may be concluded that "both deficiencies and opportunities in the context can account for charismatic leadership phenomena" (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, p. 329). In line with this deduction, Gibson et al. (1991, p. 417) distinguished between the "visionary, charismatic leader" and "crises - based charismatic leaders".

Howell and Avolio (1992) distinguished between "ethical" and "unethical" charismatic leaders, the former achieving functional organizational outcomes such as turnarounds, launching new enterprises, engaging in organizational change or renewal and obtaining exceptional performance from subordinates. Howell and Avolio proposed that ethical charismatic leaders develop followers into leaders by making them feel "independent, confident, powerful and capable" (p. 49). Conversely, unethical charismatic leaders may be destructive to individuals,

organizations or entire societies. The behaviour of followers may, under dysfunctional charisma, be characterised by submission, obedience, enrapturement and blind loyalty (e.g., Hitler, Jim Jones and David Koresh). Since the leader's values are unquestioned, followers can rationalise even the most destructive actions and behaviours. Gibson et al. (1991) maintained that such behaviour is more likely under crisis-based charismatic leadership since a crisis allows the leader to encourage actions by followers outside the norms. Conger and Kanungo (1988) pointed out that this dichotomy may not withstand empirical validation, albeit providing conceptual clarity. They argued that "good" and "bad" charismatic leadership is simply a product of the value system one holds.

Bass (1985) proposed that charisma by itself does not result in leadership efficacy in periods of discontinuous change. Rather, the ability of a leader to transform followers will depend on how the leader combines his/her charisma with considerate behaviours and intellectual stimulation. He indicated that the difference between the actual and perceived competence of the charismatic leader is likely to be greater if that individual does not display transformational leadership. Such a person will assume the role of "celebrity, shaman, miracle worker, or mystic" (p. 52).

Lee Iacocca of Chrysler; Steven Jobs, founder of Apple Computers and Jan Carlzon of Scandinavian Airlines System, have been identified as charismatic leaders who

contributed greatly to the success of their organization's transformation (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gibson et al., 1991).

In summary, charisma is strongly associated with transformational leadership. However, it is only one aspect thereof. Charismatics have to exhibit individualised consideration and/or intellectual stimulation in order that their followers may be elevated to a higher level of need and exert extra effort for the organization.

Inspirational Leadership

Bass (1985) proposed that inspirational leadership is a subfactor of charisma. The inspirational process involves heightening the emotional arousal and levels of motivation of followers and arises primarily from charismatic leadership. However, Bass pointed out that leaders are not necessarily required to be charismatic in order to be inspirational, albeit that the incidence of this behaviour appears directly related to charisma.

Bass (1985, p. 66) explained the follower arousal process as the leader "influencing subordinates to exert themselves beyond their own expectations and self-interest". The increased effort is attained through the leader exercising inspirational leadership behaviours such as instilling pride in followers; using inspirational talks to build morale; setting an example of behaviour expected of followers; providing personal encouragement to

followers to build their esteem, etc. (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1982). According to Bass, these behaviours result in increased feelings of identity with the leader and consequently, the leader's goals (Bass, 1985). This process may be reinforced by other factors such as peer pressure or company policies and practices. Bass identified the following four primary inspirational behaviours which are frequently used by charismatics:

1. Developing an action orientation amongst followers that favours opportunities, flexibility, problem solving and finding and creativity.
2. Building followers' self-confidence.
3. Inspiring belief in the 'greater purpose' of followers objectives.
4. Making use of the "pygmalion effect" in order to raise followers' performance.

The process of "visioning", involving the creation of enthused followers through effective perception, articulation, conviction and empathy, is widely recognised as a vitally important condition for transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1989; Collins & Porras, 1991; Peters, 1988; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Sashkin, 1986; Senge, 1990; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Tichy & Ulrich, 1984). Collins and Porras (1991, p. 51) noted "without vision, organizations have no chance of creating their future, they can only react to it".

They defined an organizational vision as consisting of two elements: "guiding philosophy" (i.e., purpose and core beliefs and values) and "tangible image" (i.e., mission and vivid description of desired state) and emphasised the importance of vision setting throughout the organization. It is towards this vision that the leader mobilises the commitment of the critical mass within the work unit/organization in order that they work towards the realisation thereof (Bass, 1985; Gluck, 1984; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). In order for followers to be motivated towards a vision, their values should be consistent with those implied by the vision (Berlew, 1974).

Conger (1991) pointed out that commitment and confidence in this vision can be developed through the use of a "language of leadership" by the leader. This involves the leader adopting relevant words, values and beliefs and also using appropriate rhetorical techniques such as stories, metaphors, repetition and rhythm to generate excitement amongst followers. Carlzon (1987), President of Scandinavian Airlines and transformational leader, claimed that communication through symbolic behaviour is just as important as verbal and written communication.

Beer and Walton (1990, p. 157) stated that the development of a shared vision involves defining "the structure, systems, management processes, and skills required in the future". It is important that all stakeholders participate in the development of this vision

if it is to be accepted (Beer & Walton, 1990; Binedell, 1991; Sashkin, 1986).

Research into the pygmalion effect, where the performance of followers is directly related to leader expectations (Eden, 1984; Livingston, 1988), further supports aspects of this factor. Bass (1985) proffered that this is a performance enhancing process where followers' self confidence is raised through positive leader expectations.

Bass (1985) proposed that inspirational behaviour will have varying success in transforming followers, depending on receptivity and the relevance of the situation. Receptivity is likely to be increased where fundamental beliefs and values are fairly congruent with those of the leader. Moreover, where peer pressure and inspirational supports are present to reinforce the appeals, the success of inspirational behaviour is likely to be greater. Yukl (1981) identified particular situations where inspirational behaviour may be of particular importance and hence, more successful:

1. When subordinate commitment is essential for effective performance.
2. When the work is difficult, frustrating and followers are likely to become discouraged by setbacks and lack of/slow progress.
3. When the work is dangerous and subordinates are tense and fearful.

4. When subordinates have objectives and values that are relevant to the activities of the group and can serve as the basis for emotional appeals.
5. When work units are in competition with one another.

In sum, inspirational behaviour may increase the performance of followers by elevating their level of motivation and causing them to transcend self-interest.

Individualised Consideration

Bass (1985) pointed out that consideration has been identified as a consistently important predictor of effective leadership behaviour. It has been found to be correlated with subordinate satisfaction with the leader and performance. Conversely, lack of such consideration was found by Fielder and Leister (1977) to impair the utility of subordinates' intelligence in work performance.

Bass (1985) indicated that consideration may be broken into two elements. The first type arises out of the relationship between the leader and work team. This behavior includes ongoing consultation with the team, treating all followers equitably and reasonably and consensual problem-solving and decision-making. Participatory systems, entailing power sharing and empowerment, are important for such consideration. A lack of transformational leadership has been cited as one of

the reasons for the slow implementation of such systems (Collins, Ross & Ross, 1989).

The second type stems from the dyadic relationship between leader and follower and can be explained in terms of leader-member exchange theory. Individualised consideration takes the unique needs and capabilities of followers into account. It is an interactive process whereby the leader empathises with, listens to and assists followers achieve their aspirations and overcome concerns. Behaviours such as providing constructive feedback to a subordinate regarding task performance; increasing subordinate responsibilities by assigning special projects that will promote subordinate esteem and providing opportunities for learning are examples of such consideration.

Carlzon (1987) proposed that companies can maximise their "moments of truth", or functional contact between organizational incumbents and clients, by management reapportioning responsibility through delegation and supporting the needs of employees.

Zaleznik (1977) stressed the importance of individualised attention for subordinate development. He stated that personal influence and one-to-one leader-follower interaction are of crucial importance for the development of leaders.

Avolio et al. (1991) equated individualised consideration to mentoring. A mentor has a developmental orientation towards proteges. (S)he takes time to learn

the competencies and deficiencies of each protege while at the same time developing esteem and abilities. "Modeling" has been identified as part of the mentoring process (Hunt & Michael, 1983). Bass (1985) stated that transformational leaders use role modelling, either consciously or unconsciously, to develop subordinates. "Coaching" was identified by Peters and Austin (1985) and Roberts (1985) as a crucial element of effective leadership. According to Roberts, it involves helping followers identify their skills and abilities, encouraging them to take risks and to apply their competencies in unfamiliar areas. Coaching unifies people with diverse backgrounds, abilities and interests, increases follower responsibility and achievement and develops a participative culture (Peters & Austin, 1985).

In line with the above, Manz and Sims (1991) defined effective leadership not as the ability to influence followers towards a particular goal, but rather, to lead them to discover and optimise leadership competencies within themselves ("self-leadership"). The researcher regards the development of self-leadership amongst followers as an integral component of individualised consideration.

Avolio et al. (1991) indicated that the practice of individualised consideration at higher levels of management is frequently symbolic in nature. For example, the practice of "management by wandering around" (Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982). However, according

to Peters and Austin, such consideration can transform followers as easily as more concrete behaviours. According to Bass (1985) an organizational culture which supports empathy, individualism, individual contact and communication is likely to facilitate the development of leaders who are individually considerate.

The role of empathy in interpersonal and communication competence is well documented (Redmond, 1989). On reviewing literature and research on empathy, the former concluded "empathy enhances a person's understanding of others, and the ability to make predictions about others (p. 593). The implications of such understanding and prediction for influencing followers towards work unit/organizational objectives are clear.

Recognition, or expression of appreciation for good performance, has also been identified as a salient part of individualised consideration (Bass, 1985). Mary Kay's success in leading Mary Kay Cosmetics has been attributed to her ability to motivate her sales force through employee recognition (Farnham, 1993).

Bass and Avolio (1990a) emphasised that individualised consideration is a fundamental part of the transformational process since it is a method of communicating timeously and effectively whilst providing continuous follow-up and feedback with subordinates. Most importantly, it serves to establish congruence between the needs of followers and the vision of the organization.

Bass (1985) stressed that transformational leaders do not necessarily have to display individualised consideration in order to bring about strategic redirection and change. They can rely on their charisma and intellectual stimulation. However, individualised consideration appears to optimise the potential of followers thus enhancing the performance of the work unit. It does so by enhancing followers' esteem, desire for information, fulfillment of personal needs and involving followers in decision-making. Additionally, it promotes leadership continuity which, in turn, ensures organizational development and change is sustained (Beer & Walton, 1990).

Intellectual Stimulation

Bass (1985) proposed that transformational leaders change the way followers perceive and solve problems, including the values, beliefs and attitudes that have been developed over the follower's life span. He stressed that intellectual stimulation incorporates arousal and change in followers' cognitive and information structures rather than arousal and change in immediate behaviour.

Consciousness raising, study/thought revealing and self-criticism/ criticism used in "mass line leadership", which played a vital role in bringing about communist rule in China (Barlow, 1981), can be regarded as more coercive means of intellectual stimulation at a societal level.

Avolio et al. (1991) proposed:

an intellectually stimulating leader helps people to think about "old" problems in new ways and to use reasoning and evidence rather than unsupported opinion to solve such problems (p. 14).

Jolson, Dubinsky, Yammarino and Comer (1993, p. 102) cited that forms of intellectual stimulation include "rethinking, reorienting, discussing ways to avoid crises, proactively planning in anticipation of a crisis and reactively planning after a crisis". Intellectual stimulation enhances subordinate creativity and innovation, problem solving and finding abilities, decision making and judgement (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass, 1985).

Bass (1985) indicated that transformational leaders differ from transactional leaders in their thinking in that they are

more likely to be proactive than reactive in their thinking, novel and innovative in their ideas, more radical or reactionary than reforming or conservative in ideology, and less inhibited in their ideational search for solutions" (p. 105).

In contrast to transformational leaders, transactional leaders will focus their cognitive processes on how to retain the status quo of the system in the most risk averse, efficient manner.

The success of intellectual stimulation is contingent on various situational factors (Bass, 1985). Yukl (1981) provides several examples of when intellectual stimulation is important for transformation of an organization or work unit, inter alia, when the organization is faced with decline as a result of a hostile, competitive environment causing periodic crises; when problems reduce the unit's performance (e.g., inadequate equipment, inappropriate procedures or processes, etc.); when the leader has authority to make changes and initiate actions that will solve problems facing the unit. Avolio et al. (1991), proposed that a two-way intellectual stimulation process, involving the leader also being open to and stimulated by subordinates' reasoning and ideas, may be more appropriate than the top-down approach when task problems and decision-making are complex and difficult.

The intellectual capacity and orientation of leaders and followers will also impact on the effectiveness of intellectual stimulation. Bass (1985) pointed out that the degree of intellectual stimulation exercised by a leader will be moderated by personal experience, extent of conflict with superior(s) and willingness to delegate. The outcomes of the interaction between leaders' perceptions of problems, problem diagnoses and the generation of solutions are conveyed to followers expressly and symbolically by means of clear imagery and simplified, articulate language. This facilitates comprehension and heightens follower attention. Relatedly, Sackmann (1989)

emphasized the vital role metaphors play in transforming organizations. Such leader practices increase the role acceptance and role clarity of followers, resulting in enhanced performance.

Maslow's (1943) "hierarchy of needs" was regarded by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) as essential in the transformational leadership process. The elevation of follower needs towards higher levels of self-actualisation and growth will increase the receptivity of followers to intellectually stimulating practices.

The development of a plethora of leadership development programmes, for example, "action learning" (Marsick & Cederholm, 1988), emphasising new cognitive processes and methods of decision-making, demonstrates the importance of intellectual stimulation in helping companies improve competitiveness and profitability. At the macro level, organization-wide intellectual stimulation may be accomplished to create a "learning organization" (Senge, 1990). New skills such as "surfacing and testing mental models" and "systems thinking" are used by leaders, and cascaded down to their followers, in developing such organizations. However, Senge noted that learning organizations will be limited until the necessary leadership capabilities are developed.

Antecedents of Transformational Leadership

A number of antecedents have been identified as important in determining the emergence of transformational

leadership within organizations. Bass (1985) categorised these as follows:

1. The historical, social, economic and cultural conditions in which the leadership occurs.
2. The organizational context, including superiors, subordinates and peers of the leader, organizational processes, structures and policies, etc.
3. The personality and values of the leader.

External Environmental Factors

Transformational leadership is more likely to arise in times of distress and discontinuous institutional change (Bass, 1985). Conversely, transactional leadership will predominate in well-structured, stable environments where maintenance of established institutions is of primary importance. Bass and Avolio (1991) stressed that whilst crisis is important for the emergence of charismatic leadership, it does not predict the emergence of transformational leadership. These leaders are more likely to create quasi-crises in order to motivate follower support toward a communicated vision. Bass concluded that it is easier for transformational leadership to emerge where existing institutions are being weakened by fundamental contextual changes as outlined in Naisbett's (1982) "Megatrends".

Transformational behaviours appear particularly effective in complex organizations where strategic

redirection is being undertaken amidst doubt and uncertainty (Bass, 1985; Bennis, 1983; Nadler & Tushman, 1990; Tichy & Ulrich, 1984). John Welch at General Electric (Tichy, 1989) and Jan Carlzon at Scandinavian Airlines (Carlzon, 1987) are exemplars of transformational leadership created by a need for organizational revitalisation. During such periods managers need to create, articulate and communicate a compelling vision that induces commitment to the organization and requisite motivations to achieve it (Tichy & Ulrich, 1984).

Bass (1985) also indicated that transformational leadership is more likely to appear in times of tough market competition. The emergence of the global enterprise is therefore likely to increase the need for transformational-type leaders (Marsick & Cederholm, 1988; Rhinesmith, Williamson, Ehlen & Maxwell, 1989). Bass maintained that in times of general market downturns, transformational leadership is more likely to emerge since anxiety and uncertainty are high.

The changing norms of childrearing have also been cited as an important predictor of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

Internal Environmental Factors

The daily experiences which individuals have in organizations will influence the emergence of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Avolio et al. (1991) and Waldman (1987) identified two primary

situational factors - role modelling and the organization's structure and culture - which influence leadership style.

Evidence indicates that organizational members who have the opportunity to observe and model the behaviour of transformational leaders at a higher level are more likely to exhibit these behaviours themselves. This phenomenon was termed the "falling dominoes effect" of transformational leadership by Bass, Waldman and Avolio (1987). Therefore, transformational leadership may cascade from one organizational level to the next, depending on the norms and culture of the organization and leader and follower characteristics.

Organizational structure and culture will also predict the emergence of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Highly mechanistic organizations mitigate against the emergence of transformational leadership whilst organic organizations favour it (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass, 1985). Cultures that value and reward innovation, change, consideration and development are more likely to produce transformational leaders while organizational cultures which promote the importance of existing norms, policies and systems and where there is a lack of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards will encourage transactional leadership (Avolio et al., 1991). Organizational type, type of task (i.e., routine vs non-routine), extent of leader substitutes (e.g., stated policy, computerization) are further variables which have

been identified as affecting the emergence of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

Individual Factors

Recent literature suggests that the emergence of transformational leadership is dependent on individual skills and abilities which are moulded by work and nonwork crises and non-crisis events (Avolio & Gibbons, 1988; Avolio et al., 1991; Lau et al., 1993).

Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) proposed a constructive/developmental framework for explaining how salient personality differences result in either transactional or transformational leadership. It is therefore evident that traits are still an integral part of current leadership models, despite earlier criticisms outlined above.

Avolio and Gibbons (1988) advocated a developmental perspective for studying transformational leadership, taking account of innate individual differences and characteristics; experiences, events and meaning making systems; transformational leadership orientation and emotional and cognitive developmental effects.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) outlined some common characteristics of transformational leaders, including: courage, a belief in people, a learning orientation, self-learning and development, vision and the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty. Qualities such as a good self-concept, ability to accept and address personal weaknesses, the tendency to seek out challenges

and the ability to communicate clearly and powerfully were some of the antecedents of transformational leadership identified by Avolio et al. (1991). Tichy and Ulrich (1984) claimed that transformational leaders should have a deep understanding, either intuitive or learned, of the organization and its stakeholders; political dialogue; an understanding of cultural systems and how to realign these; the ability to make difficult decisions quickly and be inner directed and opportunistic.

Consistent with the lifespan approach to transformational leadership, these characteristics are moderated during the course of the leader's life through life events, experiences and self development. For example, a confident leader may be disillusioned when faced with failure which may decrease his esteem. Alternatively, such failure may be regarded as an opportunity to learn and grow, thus increasing esteem. How this situation is perceived will depend on, inter alia, the individual's personality, values, support structures and meaning making system.

An integrative, process model of transformational and transactional leadership, incorporating antecedents, moderating variables and outcomes is presented as Figure 1.

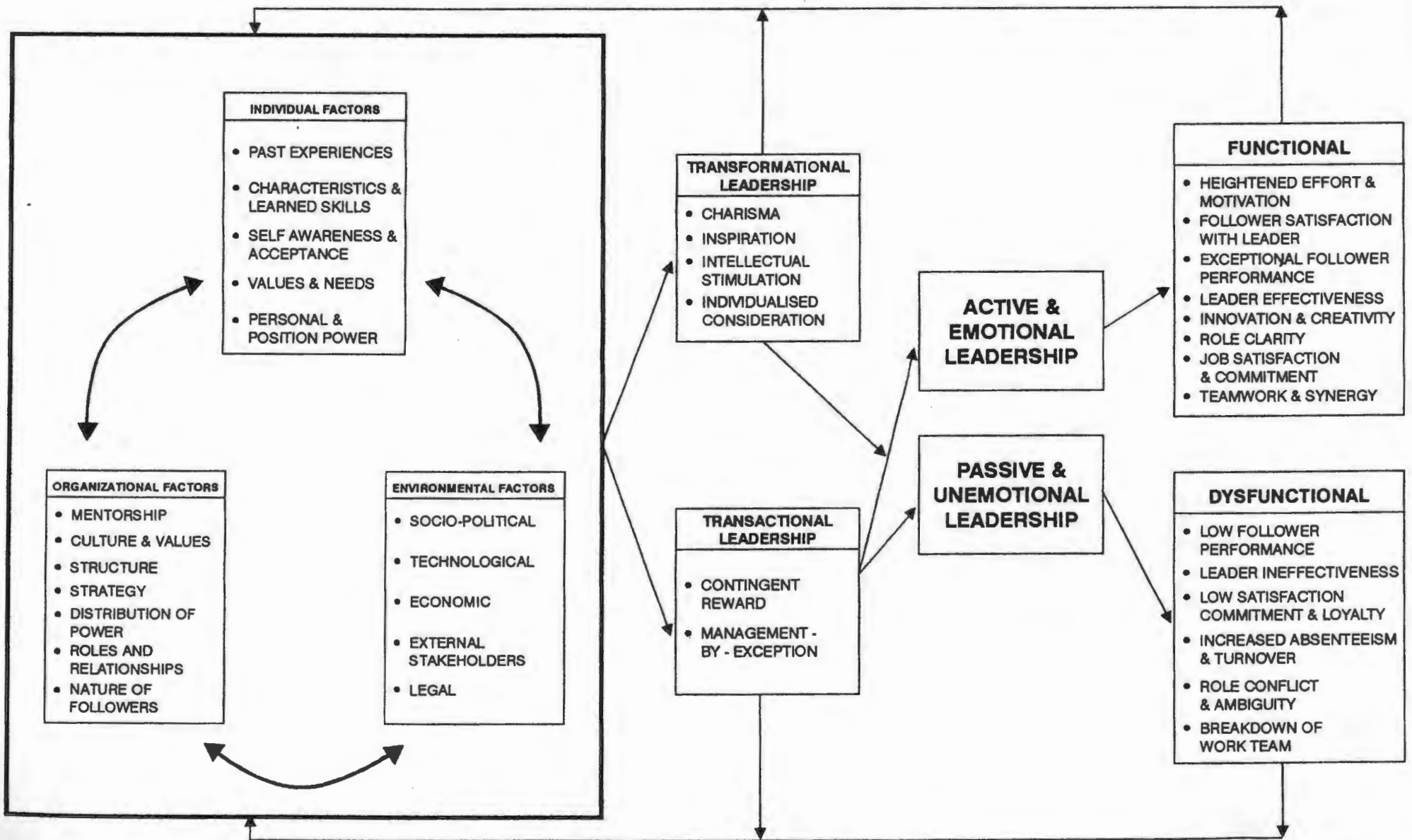
Figure 1 shows that, depending on the situation in which leadership occurs, individual characteristics and

FIGURE 1: A PROCESS MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

ANTECEDENTS / MODERATORS

STYLES OF LEADERSHIP

OUTCOMES



skills of the leader, organizational factors and environmental variables will act as either antecedents or moderators of transformational and transactional leadership. The resultant interaction of these variables will lead to transactional and/or transformational behaviours. The transactional constructs may interact to give rise to leadership which is passive and unemotional (i.e., passive management-by-exception and noncontingent reward and punishment). This style of leadership will result in dysfunctional outcomes which lead to work unit and organizational decline in the longer term. Where active transactional leadership (i.e., contingent reward and to a lesser extent, active management-by-exception) is augmented by transformational leadership, the resultant style is active and emotional and gives rise to functional outcomes at the individual, work unit and organizational levels.

Criticisms/Limitations of Transactional and Transformational Leadership

As outlined above, the transactional leadership approach has been criticised as being narrowly focused and "technique-oriented" (Joplin, 1993, p. 88).

Manz and Sims (1991) criticised charismatic and transformational leadership theories, whereby leaders influence followers to align themselves with and carry out the leaders' vision. They emphasized the importance of self-leadership in leadership efficacy and maintained that

the vision itself should reflect followers' interests and draw upon their competencies. This criticism appears to be directed at more traditional, "heroic" conceptions of charismatic leadership as opposed to Bass' (1985) model which incorporates this idea. Other critics have claimed that the elevation of leadership, as in transformational and charismatic theories, has resulted in leadership being afforded larger-than-life qualities. This has been referred to as the "romanticization of leadership" (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987, p. 107). Relatedly, some critics contend that leader-follower distinction in organizations should be avoided (Vanderslice, 1988). The former noted that "rather than being inspired by leaders to do their best, it is likely that followers will either limit themselves to status-appropriate behaviours or resist their low power roles" (p. 677). Advocates of leader substitutes theory (e.g., Howel, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr & Podsakoff, 1990) contend that supportive and instrumental leadership by designated hierarchical leaders is not necessary in certain situations where task clarity, opportunities for feedback, number of rules and procedures and group cohesion are high. These situational attributes 'substitute' more traditional forms of leadership.

Gibson et al. (1991) pointed out that attempts to understand and measure charismatic, transformational and transactional theories are impeded by a lack of scientific inquiry. He claimed that it is therefore premature to base training, selection and reward interventions thereon.

Other criticisms of transformational and transactional research identified and contended by Bass and Avolio (1991) include:

- Charisma and transformational leadership are synonymous.
- Transformational leadership is elitist and anti-democratic.
- Consideration and individualised consideration are parallel concepts.
- Psychometric limitations of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the instrument used to measure transformational and transactional behaviours.

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Bass (1985) identified a third type of leadership - laissez-faire or "hands off" leadership.

This type of leadership differs from transactional leadership in that the leader does not provide followers with task direction, avoids taking decisions, is likely to be absent, or difficult to locate, when required by followers, does not intervene in followers' performance and communicates with followers as infrequently as possible.

Leaders who adopt this type of approach tend to produce performance results which are below standard and

low follower motivation and innovation (Bass & Avolio, 1991). The former maintained that laissez-faire leadership is regarded uniformly as ineffective and highly dissatisfying for followers and is one of the more undesirable forms of leadership.

Empirical Research on Transformational and Transactional Leadership

General Research Findings

Empirical research by Bass (1985), using a sample of 176 senior U.S. military officers who were rated by their immediate subordinates on the MLQ, revealed the following three transformational factors outlined above, viz., charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Two transactional factors - contingent reward and management-by-exception - were identified. This factor structure has been confirmed in numerous subsequent studies (Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Hater & Bass, 1988; Waldman, Bass & Einstein, 1987). Research further revealed that charisma has two sub-factors, viz., idealised influence and inspirational motivation (Bass & Avolio, 1990b) and management-by-exception could be broken down into an active and passive dimension (Yammarino & Bass, 1990a).

Initial empirical evidence suggests the constructs underlying transformational and transactional leadership may vary across cultures (e.g., Bass & Yokochi, 1991; Visser, 1992). However, after reviewing cross-cultural

research on this leadership paradigm, Bass (1991) concluded that it has universal applicability. Research has further revealed that transformational leadership is common in diverse organizational settings and across hierarchical levels. Some degree of transformational leadership is being practised at the most senior levels down to first-level management. However, as predicted by Bass (1985) and Tichy and Devanna (1986), most has been observed at higher levels (Bass, et al., 1987; Yammarino & Bass, 1990b).

Transformational and transactional leadership has been found in industrial (Hater & Bass, 1988), educational (Avolio, Waldman & Einstein, 1988) military (Bass, 1985; Yammarino & Bass, 1990a & b), union (Spector, 1987) and other organizational settings.

In sum, Bass' (1985) leadership typology and constituent constructs would appear psychometrically sound.

Augmentation Effect

As outlined above, one of the primary assumptions of Bass' (1985) model is that transformational leadership will augment, or add to, transactional leadership in predicting individual, group and organizational effort and performance. Empirical evidence appears to support this "augmentation hypothesis" (Avolio & Howell, 1992; Hater & Bass, 1988; Waldman, Bass & Yammarino, 1990).

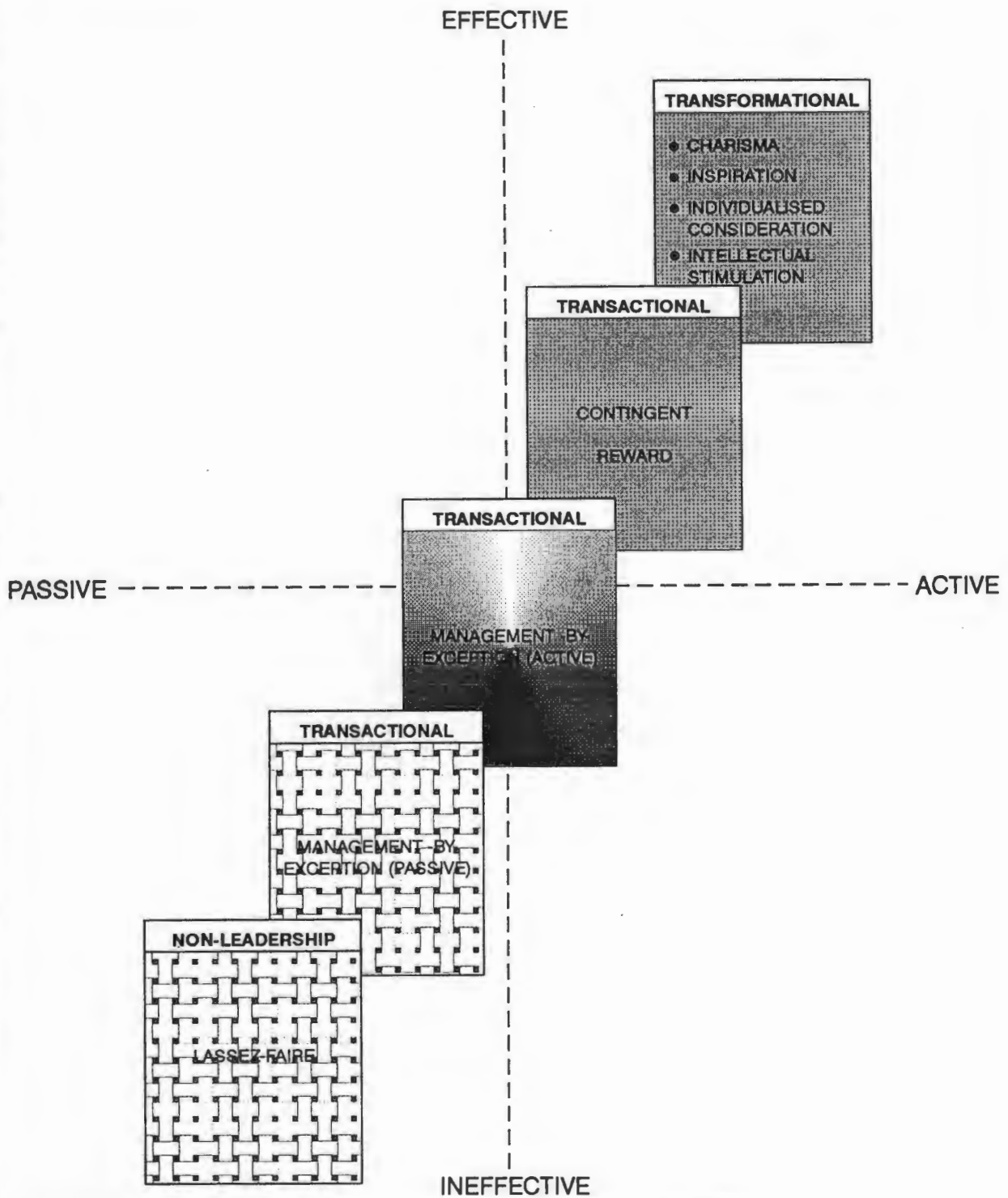
In the above three studies, different subjective and objective outcome measures were used (e.g., subordinates' perceptions of effectiveness, performance appraisal outcomes and business unit performance). Nonetheless, transformational leadership added to the prediction of the outcome measures, beyond that of transactional leadership, in all of these studies.

Seltzer and Bass (1990) confirmed this augmentation effect by substituting the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire's (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) initiation and consideration items for the MLQ's (Bass, 1985) transactional items.

In Avolio and Howell's (1992) research, the performance data were collected about a year after the collection of subordinate ratings of their leaders. This longitudinal research design still revealed the same effect.

In line with this augmentation effect, supporting the strong forces of transformational leadership, an optimal model of leadership was developed by Bass and Avolio (1991). In accordance with this model, leadership effectiveness is optimised where transformational and contingent reward behaviours are exhibited frequently, whilst management-by-exception behaviours are exhibited less frequently or rarely (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: OPTIMAL MODEL OF LEADERSHIP



KEY



FREQUENT BEHAVIOUR



LESS FREQUENT BEHAVIOUR



INFREQUENT / UNCOMMON BEHAVIOUR

Source: Bass & Avolio, 1991, p.64^a

^a source figure has been modified.

Correlations with Outcomes Measures

Transformational and transactional leadership has been found to be correlated with a variety of qualitative and quantitative outcomes. The correlations with perceived effectiveness and satisfaction typically range from .60 to .80 for transformational leadership (generally highest for charisma); .40 to .60 for contingent reward (depending on whether rewards or punishments are administered); -.30 to .30 for management-by-exception (depending whether this is active or passive) and -.30 for laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1991).

A study by Singer (1985) amongst 38 New Zealand company managers found that managers rated transformational leaders as more effective and resulting in more satisfaction than transactional leaders. Further, their conception of an ideal leader corresponded more closely with transformational than transactional leadership.

Hater and Bass (1988) confirmed the results of earlier studies (e.g. Bass, 1985; Waldman et al., 1987) that transformational leadership added to the prediction of subordinates' ratings of satisfaction and effectiveness beyond that of transactional leadership.

Singer and Singer (1990) hypothesised that subordinate preference and satisfaction for transformational leadership may be moderated by situational factors such as cultural background and organizational form. They found partial support for this

in their study of attitudes of Taiwanese and New Zealand subordinates toward transformational and transactional leadership styles. They found that, although both groups preferred transformational leadership, Taiwanese employees exhibited more positive attitudes towards transactional leaders than their New Zealand counterparts. Furthermore, the results indicated that mechanistic organizations, such as the police force, do not necessarily foster transactional leadership.

In a study of 87 undergraduates, Singer and Singer (1986) showed that aspects of subordinates' personality, measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, were also related to leadership preference. Of four personality variables examined, viz., affiliation, succourance, achievement and conformity, only affiliation showed a significant correlation with an aggregate measure of transformational leadership. Although conformity (high measures on this scale indicated nonconformity and autonomy) was significantly related to intellectual stimulation, it was not related significantly to transformational leadership. Subordinates exhibiting a higher need for achievement also appeared to prefer intellectual stimulation, although this relationship was not significant at the .05 level. Another finding was that student-subjects exhibited a preference for working with leaders who are more transformational than transactional.

Waldman, Atwater and Bass (1992), using a triangulation research design, studied the leadership

practices of 147 research and development project workers. They found that transformational leadership at higher organizational levels was related to project effectiveness, as measured by higher-level managers' ratings of technical quality, ability to stay on schedule and within budget, overall performance of the team and the potential of the project to make money for the organization.

MacMillan (1987) conducted an observational analysis of CEO behaviour in nine business enterprises. He concluded that successful CEO's were able to effect transformation and generate new business development by inspiring organization-wide commitment, building confidence in their subordinates' abilities and by applying effective disciplines to the process, particularly in managing failure.

Niehoff, Enz and Grover (1990), found that transformational behaviours exhibited by the top management of a large U.S. insurance company had a positive impact on subordinates' attitudes and perceptions. Managers who developed and shared a mission of the organization, modelled this vision, encouraged innovativeness, supported employees efforts and allowed employees input into decisions concerning their jobs significantly increased employee commitment and job satisfaction and decreased role ambiguity. Niehoff et al. claimed these actions should "improve productivity by

increasing positive attitudes and clarifying roles of the employees" (p. 337).

The effect of leadership style on audit committee effectiveness was researched by Spangler and Braiotta (1990). They found that transformational leadership factors and active management-by-exception, as measured by Bass' MLQ, contributed significantly to the appraised effectiveness of audit committees. Spangler and Braiotta (1990) proposed that the exceptional correlation of .85 between transformational leadership and active management-by-exception which emerged in the study could be explained in terms of the overlap in meaning and outcome of the two factors. The audit committee, whose job it is to become actively involved in identifying and rectifying deviations from standard accounting practices, is likely to rate as transformational a leader who behaves consistently with the training, experience and mission of the audit committee. This illustrates the importance of situational factors in moderating the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and effectiveness.

Hater and Bass (1988), researched superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership styles amongst 54 U.S. business managers. They divided their sample into two groups - ordinary performers and top performers - using superiors' ratings in the company's

performance review, level of experience and leadership ratings from the company's annual climate survey.

The findings of the study may be summarised as follows:

- Transformational leadership added to the prediction of subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness and satisfaction beyond that of transactional leadership.
- Top performing managers were significantly higher than ordinary performing managers on the transformational dimensions of charisma and individualised consideration. No significant differences were found between these two groups on the transactional dimensions.
- Amongst ordinary performers, transformational leadership factors were significantly correlated with ordinary managers' work group performance, as evaluated by superiors. Conversely, the correlation between transactional factors and work group performance were low and nonsignificant.
- Positive superior ratings of ordinary performing managers' overall performance were correlated moderately, but nonsignificantly, with transformational factors. This criterion was correlated negatively with the transactional factors, the

relationship being significant only for active management-by-exception.

- The above two findings were similar amongst top performing managers. However, only the correlation between charisma and individual performance was significant. This phenomenon is explained in terms the reliability of the performance ratings used to identify top performers.

Hater and Bass (1988) concluded that transformational leadership, as measured by subordinates' ratings, differentiated significantly between top performing managers, identified as such through performance criteria, and ordinary managers.

Waldman et al., (1987), in a study involving 256 business managers, found a significant relationship between the transformational leadership factors of charisma and individualised consideration and subordinates' performance appraisal scores. The latter were obtained from the company's most recent performance appraisal ratings. However, correlations with contingent reward and management-by-exception were not significant. Additionally, contingent reward and transformational leadership were found to predict equally well satisfaction with performance appraisal outcomes (e.g., allocation of rewards and development of potential and career paths) amongst subordinates. The transactional factor, management-by-exception, was found to be negatively

correlated with all satisfaction measures. Waldman et al., (1987) concluded that active rather than passive leadership is likely to result in employee satisfaction with performance appraisal outcomes. More importantly for this research, they found transformational leadership to be a superior predictor of performance appraisal ratings, particularly individualised consideration.

Despite the above evidence, criticism has been directed at the use of 'soft' outcome criteria since these are particularly susceptible to single source bias (Bass & Avolio, 1991). Correlations with objective measures of effectiveness have revealed the same pattern of results but are of a lower magnitude (Bass & Avolio, 1991). A wide range of outcome measures have been used.

Onnen (1987) found that transformational leadership significantly increased the prediction of church attendance beyond transactional leadership.

Transformational leaders surveyed produced significantly better financial performance (viz., market share, stock price, earnings per share, return on assets and debt-to-equity ratio) in a simulated management game than transactional leaders (Avolio et al., 1988).

In sum, the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and subordinates' performance has been inadequately researched, providing little support for the hypothesis that transformational leadership is able to contribute towards exceptional follower performance and hence, organizational revitalisation and effectiveness.

Also, research regarding followers' perceptions towards these styles of leadership is insufficient to draw any definite conclusions.

The Changing Leadership Paradigm and its Impact on
HR Specialists

The researcher chose to examine transformational and transactional leadership amongst HR specialists as they are increasingly being called on to exercise skillful leadership apropos HR and other operational and strategic issues in order to contribute to the effectiveness and efficiency of the enterprise. They are required to develop systems, structures, policies and procedures to increase labour value. Kotter (1988) summarised the changing role of HR specialists as follows:

Personnel administrators who twenty years ago were asked to administer the personnel system and help solve minor personnel problems, are now being asked to provide leadership on human resource issues (p. 10).

Allen and Cook (1993) maintained that managers are currently under greater pressure than ever before to provide leadership excellence as a result of our fast changing environment. Gathercole (1992, p. 9), on reviewing organizational and employment practices in South Africa commented, "the highly turbulent and complex environment in which organizations operate requires

continuous learning and adaptation in order to survive and grow". One of the primary roles of HR specialists in such periods of high uncertainty and discontinuous contextual change is to act as a catalyst for change. This requires new roles, competencies, relationships and ways of operating from HR specialists (Van Rooyen, 1991). Thornburg (1993) reviewed the role of four U.S. HR prototypical leaders, all of whom regarded one of their most essential roles as being that of a change agent.

Hattingh (1993), in her article of the changing role of HR personnel, maintained that HR specialists need to become business strategists. Van Breda and Donald (1991) contended that the HR function should be integrated into management strategy if organizations are to remain viable. Retief (1993) proffered that strategic HR, the paradigm for the future, should incorporate:

- Greater integration with the organization to enable enhanced responsiveness to a highly competitive marketplace and globalisation.
- Closer links to the organization's strategic plans.
- A move away from functional excellence and HR staff specialisation to empowerment of line managers and a synthesis of existing HR functions.
- Strategic career pathing and broader people development, as opposed to skills training.

- Performance management systems, incorporating motivational work design, and the 'humanisation' of the workplace.

This view is consonant with the Penezic's (1993) observations regarding changing line management expectations of HR executives:

The crossover between human resources and operational functions has expanded significantly in the last few years ... C.E.O.s need human resources executives who have a clear sense of strategic direction, know the services required by the business, and understand the initiatives it should be taking toward organizational change (p. 58).

The roles required of an HR specialist in future will consequently include being an ambassador, managing management and refurbishing and revitalising the workforce (Hattingh, 1993).

These roles are essential, not only for the preservation and development of the HR discipline, but also in contributing towards work unit, organizational, economic, social and political reform, particularly during periods of discontinuous environmental change.

At the organizational level, HR specialists will increasingly be called upon to facilitate managed change to ease transitions to fast changing environments. This could involve managing diversity, changing work values,

creating a new performance ethos, facilitating culture and climate change, etc. In order to achieve these objectives, HR specialists will be required to develop appropriate leadership competencies in line management, from C.E.O. to line supervision, as well as in their successors.

Lindeque (1993), HR Executive Director for Eskom S.A., pointed out that collectively, HR specialists are in a powerful position to influence the economic, social and political developments in South Africa. However, this requires of them to lead, be exemplary role models and manage change beyond their organizations.

Kochan and Dyer (1993) regarded HR specialists as potential change agents or facilitators in the shift towards strategic HR. They contended that, whilst top management may be supportive of such transformations, countervailing pressures and short-term demands of shareholders impede transformations necessary to sustain and develop the required HR principles. Consequently, HR specialists should influence stakeholders, including labour unions, line managers, employees and government, to play an active role in effecting the necessary changes.

In summary, widespread environmental changes are impacting on organizations currently and are resulting in a HR paradigmatic shift from an administrative orientation to strategic HR (Retief, 1993). Accordingly, it is necessary that HR managers, and their subordinates, exercise transformational leadership behaviours at all levels and across all functions in order to engender

positive employee perceptions and increase quantitative organizational outputs. Also, such leadership will be necessary for the HR profession to influence wider social, political, economic and other contextual outcomes.

Formulation of Research Hypotheses

On the basis of the literature reviewed, four hypotheses were developed for testing in the present study. The derivation of each is outlined below.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Constructs amongst HR Specialists

In all research on this leadership paradigm, no study has yet investigated transformational and transactional leadership amongst a population of HR specialists. Since the former are implicitly and explicitly expected to model and develop effective leadership behaviours, both amongst their own staff and in line management/supervision, it was hypothesised that the constructs elicited by the MLQ would be identifiable in this population. Further, it was predicted that the incidence of transformational leadership behaviours would be higher than transactional behaviours as a result of the nature of the typical HR specialists' job and discontinuous changes impacting on both profit and non-profit organizations.

Relationship of Transformational and Transactional
Leadership to Subordinates' Perceptions of Extra Effort,
Satisfaction with Leadership and Leaders'
Effectiveness.

On the basis of previous research (e.g., Singer, 1985; Waldman et al., 1987), it was hypothesised that transformational behaviours would give rise to positive follower perceptions in respect of three outcome measures, viz., willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the leader, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness. These outcomes were expected to flow from increased emotional, cognitive and connotative inputs associated with the transformational style of leadership. Through the behaviours of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration leaders are able to heighten followers' effort and motivation (Bass, 1985), thus developing functional perceptions toward the leader and task.

Relationship of Transformational and Transactional
Leadership to Subordinates' Performance

Accordant with Bass' (1985) contention and subsequent research (e.g., Spangler & Braiotta, 1990; Waldman et al., 1992; Waldman et al., 1987), it was hypothesised that transformational behaviours by HR leaders would be closely associated with and predict task performance better than transactional leadership. Through the higher-order transformational behaviours described above, HR leaders

should be able to align, empower and motivate followers to transcend self-interests in favour of work team/organizational objectives. Therefore, HR subordinates reporting to transformational leaders were expected to exhibit demonstrably higher performance, measured in terms of, inter alia, creativity and innovation, relationship building, development of subordinates and contribution to the mission and objectives of the HR department/organization.

Augmentation Effect of Transformational leadership

Bass (1985) hypothesised that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in explaining functional leadership outcomes. In statistical terms, this means "transformational leadership should account for unique variance in ratings of performance (or other outcomes) above and beyond that accounted for by active transactional leadership" (Bass & Avolio, 1990a, p. 257). This augmentation effect has been empirically confirmed in several studies, including Seltzer and Bass (1990) and Waldman et al. (1990). The augmentation hypothesis is consistent with Bass' (1985) distinction between lower- and higher-order leadership. Lower-order leadership, comprising transactional behaviours was expected to sustain moderate levels of performance and positive emotional responses amongst followers, whilst higher-order leadership was expected to increase the prediction of these outcomes.

Summary of Hypotheses

In summary, the following research hypotheses were generated:

1. *Transformational and transactional constructs identified by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b) are identifiable amongst South African HR specialists.*
2. *Transformational leadership is more positively and significantly associated with follower perceptions, viz., willingness to exert extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness, than transactional leadership.*
3. *There will be a strong, positive relationship between transformational leadership factors and subordinates' performance ratings, whereas transactional leadership will be more weakly related to these outcomes.*
4. *Transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting subordinates' performance ratings and perceptions of extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness.*

CHAPTER THREE

Research Method

Sample and Procedure

The data for this research were collected by means of questionnaires distributed to a random sample of HR specialists from a cross-section of South African organizations.

The sampling frame was constructed through the acquisition of the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM's) mailing list of all middle and senior level HR specialists. A random sample of 600 specialists were selected, representing a variety of organization types and hierarchical levels.

Following subject selection, questionnaire packages were mailed to these HR specialists. Each of the packages contained:

- * A questionnaire for completion by the superior (leader) with a corresponding cover letter.
- * A questionnaire for completion by the subordinate (follower) with a corresponding cover letter.
- * Two stamped, self-addressed envelopes.

The questionnaires were all coded in order to identify superior-subordinate pairs and to provide feedback, if requested. In the covering letter, HR leaders were asked to complete a self-rating form. Also, they were

required to randomly select a subordinate reporting directly to them to complete a rater form.

Subjects were given four weeks to complete the questionnaire. They were requested to return the questionnaire to the researcher in the envelope provided on completion. All subjects were assured of the anonymity of the data captured.

As a result of a lower than anticipated response rate, two measures were adopted to augment the data:

1. Where only one questionnaire was received from a leader-follower dyad, a follow-up letter, together with a copy of the relevant questionnaire, was sent to the relevant individual encouraging his/her participation.
2. A further 150 questionnaire packages were distributed to a convenience sample of HR specialists in the Western Cape. The data collection method was identical to that which had been used previously, except - in certain instances - a designated individual in the organization was used as a central collection point rather than instructing respondents to return questionnaires per mail.

Of the 1500 questionnaires distributed, 330 were returned and usable. 306 of these constituted respondent dyads. Additionally, 11 self rating and 13 subordinate rating questionnaires were returned "unmatched". These were included in the sample in order to increase it and

improve measurement validity. This represented a response rate of 22% which can be considered within "normal limits" for a mailed survey (Kerlinger, 1986).

Questionnaires

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Bass' (1985) MLQ was initially developed on the basis of qualitative research into perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership styles of 70 South African senior executives. The questionnaire measures the transformational factors of charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Transactional leadership dimensions assessed are contingent reward and management-by-exception. The questionnaire also measures a third variation of leadership - laissez-faire leadership.

The MLQ is the primary survey instrument available for measuring transformational and transactional leadership. Other scales developed by Posner and Kouzes (1988) and Sashkin (1988) have concentrated on measurement of aspects of transformational leadership (e.g., visioning) but do not assess as broad an array of behaviours as the MLQ.

Early factor analytic results using the MLQ (Form 4) revealed that transformational and transactional leadership behaviours could be reliably discriminated by raters. However, high intercorrelations, ranging between .70 - .80, between the four transformational factors were

recorded. Further, a relatively high degree of correlation, ranging between .4 - .7 was found between the transformational factors and the transactional factor of contingent reward. Since the discriminant validity between the transformational factors was low, further refinements of the scale were conducted. These led to the development of a revised survey - the MLQ (Form 5), which will be used in this research.

Most of the research conducted recently uses this instrument, or variations thereof. The MLQ has been employed to measure leadership behaviours at virtually all organizational levels (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Yammarino & Bass, 1990b), across various industry sectors including private sector organizations (e.g., Hater & Bass, 1988; Singer, 1985), government and non-profit organizations (e.g., Singer & Singer, 1990), religious institutions (e.g., Onnen, 1987), military (e.g., Yammarino & Bass, 1990a) and educational institutions (e.g., Singer & Singer, 1986). Further, the scale has been used in disparate cultures and been translated into German, Chinese, French, Spanish, Arabic, Japanese, Dutch, Italian (Lau, Atwater, Avolio & Bass, 1993).

Criticisms of the MLQ

Although the MLQ survey in its various forms has been found to be a reliable and valid tool for differentiating between transformational and transactional leadership, Bass and Avolio (1991) acknowledged that the questionnaire

has several limitations. One such problem is that some attributions and effects on followers, rather than leadership behaviours, are being measured, particularly in respect of the factors of charisma and intellectual stimulation (Yukl, 1989). Rigorous statistical methodologies have been used in an attempt to measure constructs in behavioural terms only. However, Bass and Avolio (1991) pointed out that charisma is both a behaviour and an attribution, requiring appropriate emotional reactions from followers. Therefore, it would be inaccurate to measure it in behavioural terms only. They proposed that the validity of this construct could be increased by differentiating between "attributed" and "behavioural" charisma. Nonetheless, Yukl (1989) proposed that future research should move away from the narrow range of behaviours measured by the MLQ to multiple methods of research.

Despite these and other problems inherent in the MLQ, Bass and Avolio (1991) maintained that questionnaires are not being used prematurely to measure leadership behaviour. Rather, the MLQ, which has content, construct and predictive validity and was developed on a sound theoretical basis, offers useful insight, supported by anecdotal evidence, into transformational and transactional leadership.

Research Questionnaires

Two questionnaires - Questionnaires A and B (see Appendices 1 & 2) - were administered to HR specialists and their subordinates respectively. Questionnaire A consisted of 87 items and Questionnaire B, 85 items. Since several subjects were Afrikaans speaking, the questionnaires were translated into Afrikaans (see Appendices 3 & 4). This was done through the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), by a professional translator, to ensure item equivalence.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership were measured using Bass' MLQ (Form 5). Two variations - the self-rating and the rater form - were used. These are included in Questionnaire A and B, respectively.

Sample items from the 67-item leadership scale of Questionnaire A are as follows:

Charisma (10 items): "They feel good when they are around me"

Inspiration (7 items): "I set high standards"

Intellectual Stimulation (10 items): "My ideas have forced them to rethink some of their own ideas that they had never questioned before"

Individualised Consideration (10 items): "I give personal attention to those who seem neglected".

Contingent Reward (10 items): "They can negotiate with me about what they receive for their accomplishments"

Management-by-Exception (10 items): "I let them do their jobs the same way as they have always done, unless changes seem necessary"

Laissez-Faire (10 items): "I avoid telling them how to perform their job"

Respondents were requested to rate how frequently they exhibited the behaviours described on a 5-point Likert scale ranging through "not at all", "once in a while", "sometimes", "fairly often" and "frequently, if not always", scored 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively. A mean for each factor was calculated by aggregating scores of all items, reflecting perceived leader behaviour in respect of the factor.

The leadership scale of Questionnaire B differs only in that questions are phrased in the third person. This questionnaire also contains scales assessing the following perceptual outcomes of subordinates: willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the leader; satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness.

Leadership effectiveness

This 4-item scale is taken from Bass, Valenzi, Farrow and Solomons (1975) and measures aspects such as "overall effectiveness of the group" and the effectiveness of the

leader "in representing his or her group to higher authority". Subjects were requested to respond on a 5-point rating scale from "not effective" to "extremely effective", scored from 1 to 5, respectively. To reach an aggregate effectiveness score, the mean of the four items was calculated.

Satisfaction with the leader

This 2-item scale was also taken from Bass et al., (1975) and measures how satisfied the subordinate is with his/her superiors' leadership abilities and leadership methods. A 5-point rating scale was used which ranges from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied", scored from 1 to 5, respectively. Overall satisfaction was arrived at by calculating the mean of the items.

Extra effort

This 3-point scale was incorporated in Bass' (1985) original MLQ and measures the extent to which the subordinate believes (s)he is motivated by the leader to higher levels of effort. To reach an aggregate extra effort score, the mean of the items was computed.

Performance rating scale

Included in Questionnaire A was a 10-item performance rating scale designed to assess perceived performance of subordinates. This was based on the appraisal form of a large South African insurance company

and measures generic performance criteria including overall decision-making ability, internal and external interpersonal skills, innovativeness and creativity. A 6-point rating scale was used which ranges through "not applicable", "unacceptable performance", "less than satisfactory", "satisfactory", "very good" and "substantially exceeds expected performance", scored 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 respectively. An overall performance rating was derived by computing the mean of the items. Items marked "not applicable" were eliminated in computing the mean.

Biographical data

In addition to the above-mentioned scales, 10 biodata items were incorporated in Questionnaire A and 8 in Questionnaire B. These measured relevant biographical data such as gender, age and educational level, which were required for descriptive purposes.

Perception of change

A single item was incorporated in Questionnaire B, assessing whether the respondent believed his/her organization to be undergoing rapid organizational renewal and/or change. Respondents were requested to answer with either a "yes" or "no". Arguably, such an item is not robust as a result of subjectivity and single item error. However, it was intended to provide a rough indication of

the degree of organizational change perceived by subordinates.

Catch-all question

Both questionnaires contained an open-ended, "catch-all" question in an attempt to elicit perceived problems or comments in respect of the questionnaires and topic under examination. The data arising from such an item should be treated with caution since it is typically subjective.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

The completed questionnaires were coded on a Lotus 1-2-3 spreadsheet and input to the SPSS statistical package. Frequency analyses, factor analyses, correlational analyses, and multiple regression analyses were used to statistically analyze the results of the research. In statistical tests of significance, 99% or 95% confidence levels have been applied.

Characteristics of Respondents

Superiors' Characteristics

Of the 164 HR superiors participating in the research, the majority were male (85%). Most of these respondents were senior HR specialists, from managerial to director level.

This skewed distribution is probably indicative of historical and current discrimination against women advancing into more senior organizational levels. This phenomenon has been referred to as the "glass ceiling" effect (Morrison & Glinow, 1990) and is largely due to sex-role stereotyping (Terborg, Peters, Ilgen & Smith, 1977) and structural factors (Datnow, Birch & Human, 1990).

94% of superiors were over 30 years of age. 58% had between one and nine years service with their company. Most (93%) had some form of tertiary education, 28% and

49% having a degree and postgraduate degree, respectively. This may be indicative of the growing importance of tertiary education as a criterion for advancement into senior HR posts in "tight" labour market conditions. It is possibly also attributable to increased cognitive demands placed on HR specialists with the commensurate need for the discipline to become more skilled.

Superiors were primarily employed in the manufacturing/production sector (37%), services (25%) or "other" sectors (22%). They were concentrated in larger organizations comprised of more than 1000 employees (66%).

The majority of superiors had been in supervisory/managerial positions for between 5 and 14 years. Superiors' spans of control were small, as expected in a staff function, with 54% of them having between 1 and 10 subordinates reporting either directly or indirectly to them.

As a result of the shift away from functional specialisation in HR towards increased integration with line management outlined earlier, the researcher expected most respondents to be performing generalist roles. This distribution was confirmed, with 65% fulfilling such roles. Also, 18% were in training and development, 3% in industrial relations and 15% in other HR roles (e.g., Social Investment Advisor, HR Systems Manager, Remuneration Specialist.)

A comprehensive frequency table, indicating adjusted frequencies (i.e., excluding all missing values) of superiors' responses in respect of all biographical variables, is presented as Table 1.

Subordinates' Characteristics

The majority of the 166 subordinates selected by their superiors for inclusion in the study were males (55%) and between the ages of 25 and 44.

81% had some form of tertiary education, 28% holding diplomas, 20% degrees and 34% postgraduate degrees. As with superiors, this phenomenon is probably a product of the growing professionalism of the HR discipline, together with labour market competitiveness.

The majority (65%) of subordinates reported being employed in the manufacturing/production (35%) and services sectors (30%). 68% were in organizations with more than 1000 employees whilst only 2% were in organizations comprising less than 100 incumbents.

85% of subordinates indicated they had been reporting to their superior for less than five years.

Congruous with the frequency distribution of superiors, most subordinates (45%) were in generalist positions, 19% in training and development, 6% in industrial relations and 30% in other HR occupations.

Adjusted frequencies of all subordinates' biographical data are shown in Table 2.

Table 1: Frequency Tabulation (Superiors)

Variable	Number of Cases	Frequency (as a %)
<u>Gender</u>		
Males	135	85
Females	24	15
<u>Age</u>		
20 - 24 years	3	2
25 - 29 years	7	4
30 - 34 years	27	17
35 - 39 years	33	21
40 - 44 years	32	20
45 - 49 years	26	16
50 or older	32	20
<u>Education</u>		
Std. 8-9	1	1
Matric	11	7
Diploma	26	16
Degree	44	28
Postgraduate degree	78	49
<u>Industry Sector</u>		
Manufacturing/production	58	37
Services	39	25
Government	8	5
Retail & Wholesale	13	8
Mining	6	4
Other	34	22
<u>Length of Service</u>		
Less than a year	4	3
1 - 4 years	43	27
5 - 9 years	49	31
10 - 14 years	30	19
15 - 19 years	17	11
20 years or more	17	11
<u>Organization</u>		
Up to 100	3	2
101-400	20	13
401-800	25	16
801-1000	6	4
Over 1000	106	66
<u>Years in supervisory/ management position</u>		
Less than a year	3	2
1 - 4 years	22	14
5 - 9 years	48	30
10 - 14 years	36	23
15 - 19 years	27	17
20 years or more	23	15

Table 1 continued

Variable	Number of Cases	Frequency (as a %)
<u>Number of direct and indirect subordinates</u>		
1 - 5	49	31
6 - 10	35	22
11 - 15	26	17
16 - 20	14	9
20 or more	32	21
<u>Duration subordinate has reported to the superior</u>		
Less than 2 years	63	40
2 - 4 years	67	43
5 - 7 years	20	13
8 - 10 years	5	3
10 years or more	2	1
<u>Occupational category</u>		
HR Generalist	98	65
Training & Development	27	18
Industrial Relations	5	3
Other	22	15

Table 2: Frequency tabulation (Subordinates)

Variable	Number of Cases	Frequency (as a %)
<u>Gender</u>		
Males	86	55
Females	71	45
<u>Age</u>		
20 - 24 years	9	6
25 - 29 years	40	25
30 - 34 years	30	19
35 - 39 years	31	20
40 - 44 years	25	16
45 - 49 years	7	4
50 or older	17	11
<u>Education</u>		
Std. 8-9	1	1
Matric	28	18
Diploma	43	28
Degree	31	20
Postgraduate degree	52	34
<u>Industry Sector</u>		
Manufacturing/production	56	35
Services	47	30
Government	8	5
Retail & Wholesale	13	8
Mining	4	3
Other	30	19
<u>Length of Service</u>		
Less than a year	8	5
1 - 4 years	75	47
5 - 9 years	40	25
10 - 14 years	21	13
15 - 19 years	9	6
20 years or more	8	5
<u>Employees in Organization</u>		
Up to 100	3	2
101-400	19	12
401-800	21	13
801-1000	8	5
Over 1000	109	68
<u>Duration subordinate has reported to supervisor/manager</u>		
Less than 2 years	71	44
2 - 4 years	65	40
5 - 7 years	18	11
8 - 10 years	5	3
10 Years or more	2	1

Table 2 continued

Variable	Number of Cases	Frequency (as a %)
<u>Occupational category</u>		
HR Generalist	69	45
Training & Development	30	19
Industrial Relations	9	6
Other	47	30

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Self-rating and Rater Forms

Principal components factor analyses were conducted on the self-rating and rater forms of the MLQ to identify whether the underlying constructs corresponded with those identified by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b).

For both forms, 17 factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1. Using a scree plot to limit factor numbers, four factors were identified in the self-rating form and three in the rater form.

Varimax rotation was performed on the emergent factors of both forms in order to identify items loading significantly against each factor. Item loadings of greater than 0.3 were regarded as acceptable as they will account for approximately 10% of the variance (Cattell, 1966).

Form A : Self-Rating Form

Factor analysis of this form revealed four identifiable factors. The first factor (23 items) accounted for 54% of the 36% common variance. This resembled Bass' (1985) and Bass and Avolio's (1990b) factors of charisma, inspiration, and intellectual stimulation.

The second factor (18 items) was comprised primarily of items identified in prior research as constituting individualised consideration and accounted for 20% of the variance.

Together, the first two factors explained 74% of the common variance and resembled the concept of transformational leadership identified by Bass (1985).

The third rotated factor (13 items) was comprised largely of items described by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b) as management-by-exception and laissez faire behaviours. This accounted for 15% of the variance. The management-by-exception items loading significantly on this factor were primarily those identified by Yammarino and Bass (1990a) as passive. This factor represents "hands off", passive leadership.

The final factor (8 items) can be equated to Bass' (1985) active transactional dimension of contingent reward. This accounted for 11% of the variance.

Five items did not load above 0.3 against any of the factors, four of which were identified by Bass (1985) as laissez-faire items. This may indicate a weakness apropos this scale.

The four factors, together with the items loading on them above 0.3, are shown in Table 3.

Form B : Rater Form

Principal components factor analysis of data yielded from the rater form revealed three identifiable factors, explaining 45% of the common variance.

The first factor (48 items) accounted for 79% of the variance and was comprised of items identified by Bass (1985) as transformational (i.e., charisma, inspiration,

Table 3: Leadership Factors: Self-rating Form (Form A)

Factor 1(11.73) ^a		Factor 2(4.41)		Factor 3 (3.33)		Factor 4 (2.4)	
Item & Label	Loading	Item & Label	Loading	Item & Label	Loading	Item & Label	Loading
2 (IL)	0.45	1 (CL)	0.41	6 (ME)	0.58	5 (CR)	0.38
3 (IS)	0.44	4 (IC)	0.56	7 (LF)	0.55	19 (CR)	0.48
8 (CL)	0.52	12 (CR)	0.67	13 (ME)	0.62	26 (CR)	0.70
9 (IL)	0.54	16 (IL)	0.35	14 (LF)	0.31	40 (CR)	0.74
10 (IS)	0.65	18 (IC)	0.56	20 (ME)	0.50	41 (ME)	0.36
11 (IC)	0.44	23 (IL)	0.49	27 (ME)	0.47	47 (CR)	0.68
15 (CL)	0.44	25 (IC)	0.47	28 (LF)	0.60	59 (CR)	0.64
17 (IS)	0.51	31 (IS)	0.33	34 (ME)	0.44	60 (ME)	0.63
22 (CL)	0.35	32 (IC)	0.49	35 (LF)	0.42		
24 (IS)	0.44	33 (CR)	0.77	42 (LF)	0.37		
29 (CL)	0.57	37 (IL)	0.63	48 (ME)	0.54		
30 (IL)	0.39	39 (IC)	0.81	54 (ME)	0.59		
36 (CL)	0.55	43 (CL)	0.48	61 (LF)	0.45		
38 (IS)	0.51	46 (IC)	0.53				
44 (IL)	0.37	52 (IC)	0.36				
45 (IS)	0.52	58 (IC)	0.43				
50 (CL)	0.49	64 (IC)	0.54				
51 (IS)	0.39	65 (CR)	0.79				
53 (CR)	0.38						
56 (IL)	0.50						
57 (IS)	0.47						
62 (CL)	0.39						
63 IIS)	0.55						

Notes

^a Eigenvalues are indicated in parentheses

^b Labels identified by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b), as follows:

Transformational: 1) CL - Charismatic Leadership
 2) IL - Inspirational Leadership
 3) IS - Intellectual Stimulation
 4) IC - Individualised Consideration

Transactional: 5) CR - Contingent Reward
 6) ME - Management-by-Exception

Non-Leadership: 7) LF - Laissez-Faire

intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) and contingent reward.

13% of the variance explained was accounted for by the second factor (14 items). This was comprised of laissez faire and passive management-by-exception items and resembled Bass' (1985) higher-order factor of passive-reactive leadership.

The third factor (3 items) accounted for 8% of the variance and consisted of items describing management-by-exception behaviours of an active nature.

Two items, identified by Bass (1985) as constituting management-by-exception and intellectual stimulation behaviours, did not load higher than 0.3 on any of the emergent factors.

The three factors and item loadings greater than 0.3, are presented in Table 4.

Delimitation of Factor Analyses

In both factor analyses, the factor structure identified by Bass (1985) and confirmed in subsequent research, was only partially supported. Notwithstanding, broad transformational and transactional factors were identifiable. Based on these results, it was surmised that multi-collinearity, present in most prior research (e.g., Avolio et al., 1988), had 'blurred' the distinction between constituent factors of both transformational and transactional leadership.

Table 4: Leadership Factors: Rater Form (Form B)

Factor 1(23.32) ^a		Factor 2(3.88)		Factor 3 (2.45)	
Item & Label	Loading	Item & Label	Loading	Item & Label	Loading
1 (CL)	0.65	2 (IL)	0.50	6 (ME)	-0.36
3 (IS)	0.52	7 (LF)	-0.31	41 (ME)	0.47
4 (IC)	0.66	13 (ME)	-0.36	62 (ME)	0.58
5 (CR)	0.68	14 (LF)	-0.50		
8 (CL)	0.65	22 (LF)	-0.40		
10 (IL)	0.72	27 (ME)	-0.51		
11 (IS)	0.82	28 (LF)	-0.42		
12 (CR)	0.57	35 (LF)	-0.42		
15 (CL)	0.64	42 (LF)	-0.32		
16 (IC)	0.66	48 (ME)	-0.47		
17 (IS)	0.60	49 (LF)	-0.50		
18 (IC)	0.66	55 (ME)	-0.50		
19 (CR)	0.63	56 (LF)	-0.44		
22 (CL)	0.62	70 (LF)	-0.41		
23 (IL)	0.76				
24 (IS)	0.62				
25 (IC)	0.66				
26 (CR)	0.56				
29 (CL)	0.61				
30 (IL)	0.55				
31 (IS)	0.48				
32 (IC)	0.73				
33 (CR)	0.70				
36 (CL)	0.31				
37 (IC)	0.72				
39 IIC)	0.73				
40 (CR)	0.60				
43 (CL)	0.66				
44 (IL)	0.53				
45 (IS)	0.54				
46 (IC)	0.63				
47 (CR)	0.64				
50 (CL)	0.67				
52 (IS)	0.44				
53 (IC)	0.61				
54 (CR)	0.73				
57 (CL)	0.77				
59 (IS)	0.43				
60 (IC)	0.57				
61 (CR)	0.61				
63 (LF)	0.37				
64 (CL)	0.74				
66 (IS)	0.53				
67 (IC)	0.60				
68 (CR)	0.70				
69 (ME)	0.44				

Notes

^a Eigenvalues are indicated in parentheses

^b Labels identified by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b), as per Table 3

In light of this, coupled with considerable empirical research confirming the established factor structure, it was decided to apply Bass and Avolio's (1990b) factor structure for further analyses. Accordingly, factors representing charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez faire leadership were developed for both forms by extracting the corresponding items identified by the said researchers. As outlined above, this factor structure has been shown to be stable across various research conditions. Accordingly, high internal consistencies were expected.

Reliability of Scales

Internal consistencies for all leadership factors (independent variables) and outcome measures (dependent variables) were investigated by means of Cronbach alphas. Coefficient alpha is useful for assessing reliability when "item-specific variance in a unidimensional test (scale) is of interest" (Cortina, 1993, p. 103).

Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Waldman et al., 1987), internal consistency coefficients for independent variables were generally high (see Table 5). With the exception of a single factor, all revealed reliability coefficients above 0.7. The range was from 0.62 - for laissez faire leadership (rater form) to 0.93 - for charisma (rater form).

Table 5: Means (\bar{X}) Standard Deviations (SD) and Internal Consistency Reliabilities (α) for Factor Ratings of Forms A and B

	Mean (\bar{X})	Standard Deviation (SD)	Reliability Coefficient (α)
Charismatic Leadership (CL)	2.87 (2.83)	0.45 (0.85)	0.80 (0.93)
Inspirational Leadership (IL)	2.88 (2.57)	0.49 (0.85)	0.71 (0.87)
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	2.58 (2.66)	0.43 (0.67)	0.75 (0.86)
Individualised Consideration (IC)	3.17 (2.78)	0.46 (0.81)	0.81 (0.91)
Contingency Reward (CR)	2.55 (2.39)	0.59 (0.86)	0.78 (0.91)
Management-by-Exception (ME)	2.17 (2.26)	0.59 (0.55)	0.71 (0.62)
Laissez-Faire (LF)	1.29 (1.53)	0.60 (0.66)	0.72 (0.73)
Extra Effort (EE)	2.59	0.98	0.86
Satisfaction (SAT)	3.19	0.61	0.92
Effectiveness (EFF)	2.66	0.81	0.89
Performance (PERF)	3.69	0.47	0.83

Notes: * Values in parentheses accrue from subordinate raters
 * n = 164 Superiors (leaders) and 166 subordinates (followers)

The low internal consistency of the laissez faire factor points to possible problems with the psychometric properties of this scale.

The internal consistencies of the outcome measures were also acceptable, ranging from 0.83 for subordinates' performance to 0.92 for subordinates' satisfaction.

Superiors' and Subordinates' Leadership Ratings

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations and Cronbach alphas for superiors' and subordinates' factor ratings and outcome measures are presented in Table 5.

Superiors' Leadership Ratings

Table 5 shows that the superiors' rated themselves highest on the transformational factors (i.e., charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration). Means ranged from 2.58 (SD = 0.43) for intellectual stimulation to 3.17 (SD = 0.46) for individualised consideration.

The two transactional factors revealed lower means (\bar{X} = 2.55; SD = 0.59 and \bar{X} = 2.17; SD = 0.59) for contingent reward and management-by-exception, respectively.

The mean for the laissez faire factor was the lowest (\bar{X} = 1.29; SD = 0.6), indicating that leaders believed they rarely exhibited behaviours associated with this factor.

These results were similar to those identified by Bass and Avolio (1990b) in a sample of 1006 followers

rating 251 business leaders and show that, as predicted, HR specialists were more transformational than transactional in orientation.

Subordinates' Leadership Ratings

Once again, the four transformational factors had the highest means, suggesting that subordinates perceived their superiors to be exhibiting charisma ($\bar{X} = 2.83$; SD = 0.85), inspiration ($\bar{X} = 2.57$; SD = 0.85), intellectual stimulation ($\bar{X} = 2.66$; SD = 0.67) and individualised consideration ($\bar{X} = 2.78$; SD = 0.81).

Means for contingent reward and management-by-exception ($\bar{X} = 2.39$; SD = 0.86 and $\bar{X} = 2.26$; SD = 0.55) were lower than those for the transformational factors.

Laissez faire leadership showed the lowest mean ($\bar{X} = 1.53$; SD = 0.66), again indicating a low incidence of observed behaviours comprising this factor.

Once again, transformational-type behaviours were most commonly observed. However, the fact that subordinates' means were lower than those of leaders for the four transformational factors and contingent reward indicates that leniency and social desirability biases may have inflated the leaders' self-ratings.

Outcome Measures

The extent to which subordinates believed that the behaviour of their superiors motivated them to exert extra

effort beyond expectations was moderate ($\bar{X} = 2.59$; $SD = 0.98$).

Subordinates' perceived satisfaction with their superiors was average ($\bar{X} = 3.19$; $SD = 0.61$) as was their perceptions of their superiors' leadership effectiveness ($\bar{X} = 2.66$; $SD = 0.81$).

The relatively high means for these three outcomes provided initial evidence that transformational behaviours by the specialists would result in the hypothesised effects on subordinates' emotional responses to the leader.

Subordinates' performance, as measured by their superiors against 10 performance criteria, showed a relatively high mean of 3.69 ($SD = 0.47$), indicating that HR subordinates were generally performing well against superiors' expectations.

Intercorrelations of Leadership Ratings and Outcomes

A matrix table of Pearson correlation coefficients was constructed showing, inter alia, intercorrelations amongst factor ratings of each form, together with outcome measures (see Table 6). Using this matrix, the following were investigated:

- i) Extent of agreement between self and subordinate ratings across corresponding leadership factors.
- ii) Nature of relatedness (magnitude and direction) between independent variables of each form.

Table 6: Intercorrelations^a among factor ratings and outcomes of Form A and B^b

Factors/ Outcomes	CL	IL	IS	IC	CR	ME	LF	EE	SAT	EFF	PERF
CL	-	0.87*	0.74*	0.84*	0.77*	-0.05	-0.45*	0.76*	0.83*	0.80*	0.25*
IL	0.67*	-	0.82*	0.84*	0.78*	-0.06	-0.46*	0.74*	0.74*	0.74*	0.18**
IS	0.59*	0.66*	-	0.75*	0.64*	0.05	-0.36*	0.66*	0.64*	0.66*	0.02
IC	0.62*	0.61*	0.60*	-	0.83*	0.01	-0.45*	0.72*	0.77*	0.69*	0.18**
CR	0.39*	0.49*	0.33*	0.54*	-	0.17*	-0.24*	0.65*	0.66*	0.62*	0.33*
ME	-0.01	-0.05	0.11	0.02	0.29*	-	0.38*	0.07	-0.06	-0.06	-0.07
LF	-0.16**	-0.17**	-0.23*	-0.22*	0.03	0.49*	-	-0.34*	-0.45*	-0.51*	-0.15*
EE	0.02	-0.00	-0.08	-0.09	0.01	-0.17**	0.01	-	0.66*	0.64*	0.20**
SAT	-0.07	0.01	-0.03	-0.01	0.06	-0.14**	0.07	0.66*	-	0.80*	0.18**
EFF	0.04	0.09	-0.05	-0.02	0.12	-0.05	0.06	0.64*	0.80*	-	0.14
PERF	0.04	0.02	0.18**	0.06	0.09	0.00	-0.08	0.20**	0.18**	0.14	-

Notes:

^a Pearson-product-moment correlations have been used.

^b Correlations above the diagonal are based on subordinate ratings; those below are based on self-ratings by superiors.

* p < 0.01

** p < 0.05

iii) The strength and direction of the relationships between leadership factors and outcome measures of each form.

Intercorrelations between Superiors' Leadership Ratings and Outcomes

As found in previous studies, transformational factors of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration were found to be strongly and significantly intercorrelated at the 99% confidence level ($r = 0.59$ for charisma and intellectual stimulation to $r = 0.67$ for charisma and inspiration).

Contingent reward was also significantly related to these factors but the relationships were of a lower magnitude ($r = 0.33$ to 0.53 ; $p < 0.01$).

Transformational factors were weakly or non significantly correlated with management-by-exception. Also, these factors were negatively correlated with laissez faire leadership. The relationships between laissez faire leadership and intellectual stimulation and the former and individualised consideration were both significant ($r = -0.23$ and $r = -0.22$; $p < 0.05$).

The two transactional factors of contingent reward and management-by-exception were highly and significantly correlated ($r = 0.29$; $p < 0.01$).

Laissez faire leadership was found to correlate strongly with management-by-exception ($r = 0.49$; $p < 0.01$)

but not with contingent reward, indicating support for the passive, emotionless conception of leadership.

Surprisingly, the only significant correlation between superiors' transformational factors and outcome measures was between intellectual stimulation and subordinates' performance ($r = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$). This can probably be attributed to the low agreement between self and subordinate ratings of leadership, indicated later. As hypothesised, management-by-exception was found to be negatively correlated with subordinates' satisfaction with their superiors ($r = -0.14$; $p < 0.05$).

Intercorrelations between Subordinates' Leadership Ratings and Outcomes

As with superiors' ratings, charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration were strongly intercorrelated ($r = 0.74$ to 0.89 ; $p < 0.01$).

Contingent reward was also strongly correlated with these factors ($r = 0.64$ to 0.83 ; $p < 0.01$).

Transformational factors were weakly and non significantly correlated with management-by exception.

Negative correlations were found between all transformational factors and laissez faire leadership ($r = -0.36$ to -0.46 ; $p < 0.01$).

The two transactional factors of contingent reward and management-by-exception were significantly correlated ($r = 0.17$; $p < 0.05$).

Laissez faire leadership was found to correlate strongly with management-by-exception ($r = 0.38$; $p < 0.01$). However, it was negatively related to contingent reward ($r = -0.24$; $p < 0.01$).

Strong relationships were found between the four transformational factors and outcome measures of extra effort, subordinates' satisfaction and leaders' effectiveness ($r = 0.64$ to 0.83 ; $p < 0.01$). This confirmed hypothesis 2, showing that the stronger forces of leadership lead to functional subordinate perceptual responses. Supporting hypothesis 3, relationships of a lower magnitude, but nonetheless significant, were found between charisma, inspiration and individualised consideration and subordinates' performance ($r = 0.25$; $r = 0.18$ and $r = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$). Intellectual stimulation was not correlated significantly with subordinates' performance. A possible explanation for this was the low incidence of intellectual stimulation, reported by leaders and subordinates (see Table 5), relative to other transformational dimensions.

Contingent reward was positively and strongly correlated with these outcome measures ($r = 0.33$ to 0.66 ; $p < 0.01$). This supports Bass' (1985) and Nicholls' (1993) hypothesis that contingent reward behaviours are necessary for effective leadership.

The more passive dimension of transactional leadership, management-by-exception, was found to be poorly and nonsignificantly correlated with all outcome

measures, revealing the negligible impact of such leadership on subordinates' attitudes and behaviours.

Laissez faire leadership was found to be negatively related to the outcomes of extra effort, subordinates' satisfaction and leaders' effectiveness ($r = -0.34$; -0.45 and -0.51 ; $p < 0.01$). However, no significant relationship was found with subordinates' performance.

The dysfunctional effects of this type of leadership on followers' attitudes towards the leader and task have been found in prior research (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1990b).

Intercorrelations between Outcomes

As expected, extra effort, subordinates' satisfaction and leaders' effectiveness were significantly intercorrelated ($r = 0.64$ to 0.8 ; $p < 0.01$). Moreover, extra effort and perceived satisfaction were correlated with subordinates' performance ratings ($r = 0.20$ and $r = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$).

Agreement between Superiors' and Subordinate's Leadership Ratings

Agreement between subordinates' and superiors' ratings were low and non significant for the transformational factors.

Conversely, the transactional factors of contingent reward and management-by-exception showed high agreement ($r = 0.27$; and $r = 0.27$; $p < 0.01$) Agreement between

superiors' and subordinates' laissez faire ratings was lower, although nonetheless significant ($r = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$)

Despite the poor agreement amongst transformational ratings which may have been caused by low self-awareness (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992) and other confounding variables, seven aggregate leadership factors - each comprising the mean of superiors' and subordinates' ratings - were computed. The rationale for this was twofold:

- i) Self-ratings have been criticised for being prone to leniency bias (see Thornton, 1980). Table 5 indicates that such bias may have occurred since all superiors' factor ratings, other than management-by-exception and laissez faire leadership, are higher than subordinates' ratings.
- ii) Theory and consonant research, indicates that multiple rater sources augments the validity and reliability of performance ratings (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988).

Aggregate Leadership Ratings

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations for all aggregate factors and outcomes variables are presented in Table 7.

Descriptive Statistics

The highest means were recorded for transformational factors, indicating a prevalence of consonant behaviours. The four means and standard deviations were: charisma ($\bar{X} = 2.85$; $SD = 0.49$); inspiration ($\bar{X} = 2.74$; $SD = 0.51$); intellectual stimulation ($\bar{X} = 2.64$; $SD = 0.39$) and individualised consideration ($\bar{X} = 2.96$; $SD = 0.48$).

Transactional behaviours were reported less frequently with mean ratings of 2.45 ($SD = 0.57$) and 2.2 ($SD = 0.45$) for contingent reward and management-by-exception, respectively.

Laissez faire behaviours were reported the least, the aggregate factor having a mean of 1.39 ($SD = 0.47$).

This pattern of results is similar to that found in prior research and confirms the sub-hypothesis (hypothesis 1) that transformational dimensions would be more common than transactional constructs amongst HR specialists.

Intercorrelation between Aggregate Leadership Ratings and Outcomes

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for intercorrelations between all aggregate factors and outcome variables and a correlation matrix generated (see Table 7).

Intercorrelations between Aggregate Leadership Ratings

As before, correlation coefficients between transformational factors were high ($r = 0.63$ to 0.81 ; $p < 0.01$).

The former were also correlated significantly with contingent reward ($r = 0.60$ to 0.80 ; $p < 0.01$). Conversely, three of the four factors were correlated negatively and significantly, with management-by-exception. Surprisingly, intellectual stimulation and management-by-exception showed a significant degree of relatedness ($r = 0.2$; $p < 0.05$). A possible explanation for this relationship is that intellectually stimulating leaders delegate responsibility for making certain decisions to subordinates in an attempt to develop them and only intervene when deviations from standards occur. All four factors were correlated negatively with laissez faire leadership ($r = -0.24$ to -0.33 ; $p < 0.01$).

Management-by-exception was correlated 0.20 ($p < 0.05$) with contingent reward and 0.39 with laissez faire leadership ($p < 0.01$).

Intercorrelations between Aggregate Leadership Ratings and Outcomes

The transformational factors were correlated highly with extra effort, leaders' effectiveness and subordinates' satisfaction ($r = 0.44$ to 0.72 ; $p < 0.01$). However, only charisma was significantly related to

subordinates' performance ratings ($r = 0.26$; $p < 0.01$). The reason for these results may be that transformational dimensions are necessary, but not sufficient, preconditions for heightened subordinate performance. Accordingly, behaviours comprising these dimensions will facilitate the creation of a climate conducive to good performance. However, additional factors such as organizational structure, culture, follower skills and motivations, etc., will predict the manifestation of exceptional task performance by followers.

In a similar manner, contingent reward was strongly related to all outcome measures. However, the magnitude of the relationships was generally lower than for the transformational factors ($r = 0.27$ to 0.54 ; $p < 0.01$).

No significant correlations were found between management-by-exception and the dependent variables. However, coefficients were low or negative.

Laissez faire leadership was correlated negatively with all outcome measures ($r = -0.23$ to -0.37 ; $p < 0.01$), except subordinates' performance scores indicating that laissez faire behaviours are not associated with functional leadership outcomes.

The above correlations confirm Bass and Avolio's (1991) optimal model of leadership (see Figure 2), and show initial support for the augmentation hypothesis.

Regression Analyses

Stepwise Regression of Leadership Factors against Outcomes

A stepwise regression analysis was run to ascertain the relative effect of each leadership factor on the dependent variables. A summary of the results is presented in Table 8.

Subordinates' Extra Effort

It can be seen that charisma and inspiration accounted for 48% of the variance explained. Of this, Charisma contributed 44% ($\beta^1 = 0.3$; $p < 0.05$), whilst inspiration accounted for 4% ($\beta = 0.44$; $p < 0.05$). Intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward and laissez faire leadership were not significantly predictive of subordinates' extra effort, together accounting for less than 1% of the variance.

Subordinates' Satisfaction

Charisma, individualised consideration and laissez faire leadership together predicted 47% of the variation in subordinates' satisfaction with their leader. Charisma made the largest contribution with 40% ($\beta = 0.4$; $p < 0.01$), followed by individualised consideration with 5% ($\beta = 0.52$; $p < 0.01$) and laissez faire leadership with 1% ($\beta = -0.2$; $p < 0.05$).

1 β = beta or the standardised regression slope

Table 8: Results^a of Stepwise Regression of Aggregate Factors against Outcomes

Dependent Variable	Step	Independent Variables	R ²	Δ R ²	Beta	F-Value
Extra Effort (EE)	1	CL	0.44	0.44	0.38	3.37**
	2	IL (6) ^b	0.48 (0.49) ^c	0.04	0.44	3.91**
Satisfaction (SAT)	1	CL	0.40	0.40	0.40	3.64*
	2	IC	0.46	0.05	0.52	6.08*
	3	LF (7)	0.47 (0.51)	0.01	-0.20	2.36**
Effectiveness (EFF)	1	CL (7)	0.42 (0.46)	0.42	0.58	6.87*
Performance (PERF)		(6)	(0.19)			
Notes:						
a Only significant results are reported.						
b Total number of independent variables entered into the regression equation.						
c Total variance explained by all the variables regressed against the outcome measure.						
* p<0.01						
** p<0.05						

Leaders' Effectiveness

42% of the outcome variance apropos leaders' effectiveness was explained by charisma ($\beta = 0.58$; $p < 0.01$). The six remaining independent variables contributed insignificantly to this outcome.

Subordinates' Performance

Intellectual stimulation, laissez faire leadership and charisma predicted the variance in subordinates' performance most effectively (13%; 4% and 1%). However, none of these regressions were significant at the 95% confidence level.

Hierarchical Regression to Test the Augmentation Effect

To test whether transformational leadership factors augmented the transactional factors in explaining subordinate perceptions and behaviour, as per hypothesis 4, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted.

Darlington (1990) distinguished between stepwise and hierarchical regression. He defined the latter as a "causal hierarchy", where two or more regressors are added to the regression sequentially. In stepwise regression, used to select the most significant predictor variables, independent variables are added to the equation simultaneously, without causal inference, making it unsuitable for causal analysis.

Cohen and Cohen (1975) advocated applying hierarchical regression where there is an established theoretical basis for determining the sequence of variables to be added to the regression equation and where independent variables are highly intercorrelated.

Both these conditions were satisfied as:

- i) A growing body of literature and empirical research supports the augmentation effect of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Seltzer & Bass, 1990).
- ii) The correlations between the transformational factors and between these and contingent reward were significant.

Composite transformational and transactional factors were computed by summing the constituent factors of each. For each of the four outcome measures, the resultant transactional variable was then entered into the regression equation, followed by the transformational variable to test the hypothesis. Furthermore, corroboration of the direction of the augmentation effect was sought by adding the regressors in reverse order (i.e., transformational, followed by transactional). The outcomes of these regressions are summarised in Table 9.

Subordinates' Extra Effort

As indicated in Table 9, when the composite transactional variable was entered first, it explained a nonsignificant 11% ($\beta = -0.15$) of the variance in subordinates' willingness to exert extra effort. Leaders'

Table 9: Results of Hierarchical Regressions to Test the Augmentation Effect^a

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	R ²	Δ R ²	Beta	F-Value
Extra Effort (EE)	Transactional	0.11	0.11	-0.15	2.66
	Transformational	0.31	0.20	0.66	49.26*
Satisfaction (SAT)	Transactional	0.09	0.09	-0.12	1.40
	Transformational	0.23	0.14	0.56	31.11*
Effectiveness (EFF)	Transactional	0.13	0.13	0.03	0.08
	Transformational	0.22	0.09	0.45	19.82*
Performance (PERF)	Transactional	0.01	0.01	-0.07	0.40
	Transformational	0.03	0.02	0.23	4.28**

Notes:

^a The table shows only the effect on outcomes where transactional leadership was input into the regression equation first. Where transformational leadership was entered first, the same augmentation effects did not emerge.

* p<0.01

** p<0.05

transformational behaviours of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, predicted a further 20% ($\beta = 0.66$; $p < 0.01$) of the variance of this outcome.

When the regressors were reversed, the same augmentation effect did not emerge. The transformational variable explained a significant 30% of the variance and transactional factors an additional nonsignificant 1%.

Subordinates' Satisfaction

As above, transformational leadership explained a significant 14% ($\beta = 0.56$; $p < 0.01$) additional variance beyond the 9% ($\beta = -0.12$) explained by transactional behaviours.

When the transformational variable was entered into the equation first, it accounted for a significant 22% of the variance in subordinates' satisfaction with their leader and his/her style. The transactional variable made a negligible contribution to the outcome variance.

Leaders' Effectiveness

For perceived leadership effectiveness amongst HR subordinates, the transactional variable predicted a nonsignificant 13% ($\beta = 0.03$) of the variance explained. Transformational factors explained a further 9% ($\beta = 0.45$; $p < 0.01$).

When the factors were reversed, transactional dimensions of management-by-exception and contingent reward failed to augment transformational behaviours (which significantly predicted 22% of the variance), adding negligibly to the variance explained.

Subordinates' Performance

Transformational behaviours moderately augmented transactional behaviours in respect of this outcome, explaining an additional 2% ($\beta = 0.23$; $p < 0.05$) of the variance of subordinates' performance ratings.

Transactional behaviours again failed to significantly predict subordinates' performance beyond the significant 32% predicted by the composite transformational variable.

The results of the above regressions support the augmentation predictions of hypothesis 4, that transformational behaviours will add to transactional behaviours in predicting positive subordinate outcomes. These additive effects support the findings of prior research that transformational leadership is a higher form of leadership, complementing transactional behaviours. Furthermore, the strongly significant results in respect of subordinates' perceptual outcomes imply that HR leaders will have to exhibit transformational and not only transactional behaviours, in order to elicit functional emotional reactions from their subordinates.

Perceptions of Organizational Change/Renewal

The single item used to measure subordinates' perceptions of organizational change/renewal revealed that the large majority (80%) perceived their organization to be undergoing rapid change. This finding indicates that current environmental changes, particularly in relation to global competitiveness, socio-political and economic conditions, are impacting significantly on most organizations, necessitating system-wide transformations. The predominance of transformational-type leaders in this study is probably related to these changes in a reciprocal manner, either promoting, or resulting from them.

Responses to Open-ended Question

The decision to include this "catch-all" item in the study was confirmed by the useful data elicited. 19% of leaders and 18% of subordinates reported their experiences and/or feelings towards the questionnaire, research design and/or topic under study.

Responses towards the questionnaire were varied, ranging from "your questionnaire is clear and to the point", to "I am not overly impressed with this questionnaire". Item ambiguity, repetition and questionnaire length were the most common criticisms. One respondent commented on the repetitiveness of items as follows, "the asking of the same question in various guises undermines the value of this exercise. It serves only to antagonise the respondent". Item difficulty was

also criticised apropos language complexity as follows, "some of the questions depend on the verbal acuity and total literacy to be fully understood". Though this was not regarded as a limitation in the present study as a result of the high level of education of most respondents (see Tables 1 and 2), it could impede research using the MLQ at lower organizational levels. Future studies using the MLQ should attempt to address these shortcomings. Reducing the number of items and changing ambiguous/difficult questions should increase acceptance of the forms, thus heightening response rates and psychometric robustness.

A further limitation of the questionnaire reported by several leaders concerned difficulty in responding to items assessing how well their subordinates' perceived them (e.g., items 1, 8, 15, 36 and 62). One of these respondents pointed out "some of the questions relating to how others perceive you are difficult to answer as one is not always aware of this". Interviewing, observation and other qualitative methods, used in conjunction with the MLQ, could overcome this problem in future studies.

Reaction to the research design was limited with only two useful comments being recorded. A respondent suggested that the method of data collection "should have been company related". Another proposed that "a second person complete the subordinate questionnaire". Both these issues are addressed later in the discussion.

The importance of this leadership paradigm in light of the current socio-economic and political environmental changes was manifested by the following observations, "the performance requirements of a leader have increased substantially since the process of political change got underway in South Africa" and "congratulations on selecting a topic which is vital for the future health of business in South Africa". Also, an observation was elicited regarding the importance of leadership in promoting the HR function, "I believe that HR is not given the status and recognition it deserves within our organization and I see this as a direct result of the failure of my manager to lead, drive and control".

Several salient comments were recorded in respect of transformational and transactional leadership and their constituent behaviours, lending additional support to the manifestation and effects thereof.

A leader stated "a transformational leader empowers people and thereby allows them to develop to their full potential". Relatedly, a subordinate reported "my manager has a unique gift of vision combined with sensitivity to peoples' needs ... she encourages empowerment of people and allows us room to grow". These comments reflect transformational behaviours of inspiration, consideration and intellectual stimulation. Individualised consideration was also evident in the following statement from a subordinate "it is important to identify a subordinate's

personal aspirations and tie these into the overall success plan".

The augmentation effect of transformational leadership was also observed. A subordinate stated "a leader can motivate and give recognition, but it's not enough, he must think strategically and stand up for what he thinks is right and not just accept the status quo".

Situational moderators of transformational and transactional leadership were cited by some respondents. One subordinate noted that management-by-exception was associated with leader age. She stated "one often finds the older the leader, the less likely he/she wants to change the way things are done". A leader observed, "my high workload limits my mentorship role". The competitiveness of the industry was cited as a factor influencing leadership, "leadership styles are heavily dependent on the type of business, i.e., very competitive to non competitive". "Company culture" and "organizational life cycle" were also identified by respondents as influencing leadership styles. Other situational factors reported were the nature of followership "the leadership style of a manager is definitely influenced by the type of people reporting to him", and leader experience "the person described has not been in a leadership position for very long and is therefore learning at this stage. She has improved her leadership style since she was promoted and will undoubtedly continue to do so". Situational

moderators of transformational and transactional leadership such as these require examination in future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

Key Findings

In the main, the research confirmed the hypotheses developed for testing from the review of literature and research.

Transformational and transactional leadership constructs identified by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b) are identifiable amongst South African HR specialists.

The factor structure of transformational and transactional leadership, identified by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990b), was only partially supported in this study. Principal components factor analyses of both forms of the MLQ revealed factor structures sharing similarities to those developed in prior research (e.g., Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990b; Hater & Bass, 1988).

The four separate factors, comprising transformational leadership, which were identified in previous research, were not found. However, items reflecting behaviours associated with these factors loaded moderately to strongly against two factors for the self-rating form (0.33 for item 31 to 0.65 for item 10) and a single factor in the case of the rater form (0.43 for item 59 to 0.79 for item 37). These accounted for the larger part of the variability in reported leadership behaviour,

explaining 65% and 79% of the outcome variance, respectively.

Additionally, management-by-exception (the more passive, emotionless dimension of transactional leadership) and laissez-faire leadership were orthogonal to these factors, loading against a separate factor. This lack of relatedness was corroborated by subsequent correlational analyses which revealed that the four extracted transformational factors were weakly or negatively correlated with management-by-exception behaviours and laissez-faire leadership. Further, correlational analysis showed significant multicollinearity between these two factors (see Table 6).

A separate factor, largely made up of contingent reward items, was also found for the self-rating form, further supporting aspects of the factor structure identified previously.

The high level of intercorrelation amongst transformational factors manifested in this research demonstrates the problem of collinearity inherent in the transformational factor structure (Bass & Avolio, 1991). The former acknowledged criticism that it is difficult to establish discriminant validity for the four component factors. However, they contended that rather than invalidating each factor, this confirms that these factors comprise the higher-order concept of transformational leadership described by Bass (1985).

Bass and Avolio (1991) stated that the multi-collinearity problem can be minimised by applying a partial least squares analysis (PLS) instead of principal components factor analysis. It is suggested that this technique be applied in future research to counter multi-collinearity effects and yield a more meaningful factor structure.

In summary, the MLQ forms were able to moderately identify transformational and transactional leadership dimensions identified in prior studies. Active-emotional leadership was clearly identifiable from passive-unemotional leadership. Based on these results, together with the high internal consistency coefficients of Bass and Avolio's (1990b) factors, we can reason that the forms are fairly stable, having acceptable construct validities and reliabilities.

Transformational and contingent reward behaviours were found to account for a large portion of the variability in HR specialists' leadership behaviour, whilst laissez-faire leadership and management-by-exception were less important contributors. This supports the sub-hypothesis that transformational behaviours will be more prevalent amongst this population by virtue of the changing HR paradigm, together with the general environmental uncertainty and changes impacting on organizations.

Transformational leadership is more positively and significantly associated with subordinates' perceptions,

viz., willingness to exert extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness, than transactional leadership.

This hypothesis was supported, the hierarchy of leader-outcome relationships found in previous studies (e.g., Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990b) being confirmed.

Dimensions of transformational leadership were found to be significantly associated with the willingness of followers to exert extra effort beyond expected performance; satisfaction with their leader and their perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Correlations between aggregate factor ratings and these outcomes ranged from 0.44 for intellectual stimulation and effectiveness to 0.72 for charisma and effectiveness (see Table 7).

The predictive effects of transformational factors for each outcome were examined using stepwise regression analyses. Charisma and inspirational leadership were found to significantly predict willingness to exert extra effort. Subordinates' satisfaction with their leader was best predicted by the transformational factors of charisma and individualised consideration. Only charisma explained a significant part of the variance in subordinates' perception of leadership effectiveness.

The above results suggest that transformational leadership behaviours significantly and positively influence HR subordinates' emotional responses towards their leader, work unit and job.

Another important finding was that the transactional dimension of contingent reward was significantly correlated with all these outcomes, suggesting that this type of leadership is a requisite for effective leadership. This is consistent with Bass' (1985) and Nicholls' (1993) model of optimal leadership and the augmentation effect of transformational leadership. A possible explanation for the strong relationship between contingent reward and perceptual outcomes is that HR subordinates are requiring increased role and task clarity from their superiors in coping with discontinuous environmental change - both internal and external - and uncertainty (80% of HR subordinates participating in the study indicated that their organization was undergoing rapid organizational renewal and/or change).

No significant correlations were found between the less active transactional factor of management-by-exception and these perceptual outcomes, supporting prior research that the continued use of behaviours corresponding to this dimension results in an ineffective leadership style which can be detrimental to the emotional well-being and performance of followers (Avolio et al., 1988; Bass, 1985; Waldman et al., 1987).

The nonleadership factor of laissez-faire leadership was negatively correlated with all these measures, indicating the dysfunctional impact thereof on the attitudes of subordinates. Stepwise regression analysis

showed that laissez-faire behaviours negatively predicted subordinates' satisfaction with their leader.

On the basis of these results, we can conclude that transformational and, to a lesser extent, contingent reward behaviours, are likely to result in positive attitudes amongst followers. These may inspire followers to transcend personal goals in favour of work unit/organizational objectives and to go "beyond the call of duty", expending more effort on behalf of the leader. Psychological commitment and loyalty to the leader may also increase.

It is probable that the relationships between transformational dimensions and these outcomes are not unidirectional. Rather, reciprocal causation is expected, with followers' positive reactions to incidents of effective and satisfying leadership encouraging leaders to exercise these behaviours more frequently. Conversely, ineffective and unsatisfying leader performance, inhibiting the performance and motivation of subordinates, may be discouraged by followers and therefore, revealed less regularly.

There will be a strong, positive relationship between transformational leadership factors and subordinates' performance ratings, whereas transactional leadership will be more weakly related to this outcome.

The present study showed that the effect of transformational leadership on the performance of subordinates was not as strong as hypothesised.

Although charisma was significantly correlated with subordinates' performance ratings, no significant intercorrelations were found with the other transformational dimensions. Moreover, the outcome of the stepwise regression analysis of aggregate leadership ratings against this outcome did not support this hypothesis (see Table 8).

A possible explanation for this weak relationship was the multi-collinearity of the transformational factors discussed earlier. As indicated by Darlington (1990), this increases the standard errors of the partial regression slopes, making it more difficult to find statistically significant betas.

Subjectivity and/or inappropriateness of the performance rating scale and intervening variables (individual, organizational and contextual) are additional factors which could have reduced the impact of transformational leadership on the performance of subordinates.

The transactional dimension of contingent reward was also found to be significantly correlated with performance. However, like the transformational factors, it was not predictive of subordinates' performance. As expected, laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to performance, although not significantly.

These results point to possible shortcomings of earlier research (e.g., Bass, 1985), where conclusions were drawn in respect of subordinates' performance on the

basis of positive attitudinal outcomes. It has been shown that although attitudes can predict behaviours in certain situations, there are complex mediating factors which impact on this relationship (Cooper & Croyle, 1984). In order to examine the net effect of leadership style on followers' performance, more direct and objective measures of performance are required.

Transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting subordinates' performance ratings and perceptions of extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness

The results of the hierarchical regression analyses strongly supported this hypothesis, generated from prior research apropos this phenomenon (e.g., Bass, 1985; Waldman et al., 1990).

Transformational behaviours positively and significantly predicted subordinates' perceptions of extra effort, satisfaction with their leader, and leadership effectiveness, beyond transactional leadership. Betas were high, ranging from 0.45 for leadership effectiveness to 0.66 for extra effort. Additionally, transformational leadership was found to augment transactional leadership in predicting effective subordinate performance, albeit less significantly ($\beta = 0.23$).

Additional analyses were conducted to ascertain whether the reverse was true, i.e., that transactional leadership would augment transformational leadership in predicting these outcomes. However, no evidence of this

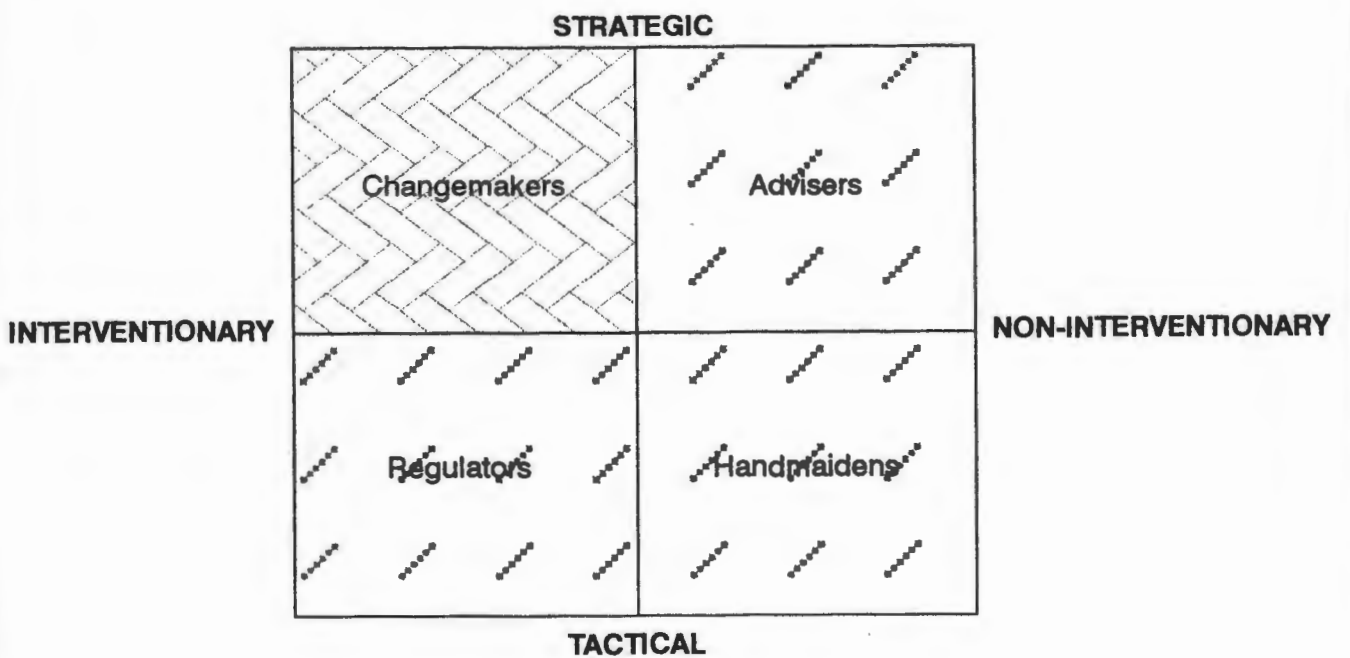
was found, with resultant betas being low or negative ($\beta = -0.15$ for extra effort to 0.03 for leadership effectiveness).

These results provide strong evidence that the transformational behaviours of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration supplement transactional behaviours in causing functional subordinates' perceptions and behaviours. Conversely, transactional behaviours added little or negatively to these outcomes. This supports Bass' (1985) contention that transformational leadership is a higher form of leadership, comprising emotive-inspirational elements which transcend the simple dynamics of social exchange.

Implications

Based on the ratings of HR leaders and followers, transformational dimensions were more frequently reported than either transactional or laissez-faire leadership, the latter being the most infrequently perceived leadership style. A possible explanation for this high frequency of transformational-type behaviours may arise as a result of the paradigm shift transforming HR currently (Storey, 1992). Storey proposed a useful conceptual framework for differentiating between HR specialists (see Figure 3). His taxonomy identifies four types of HR specialists depending on their HR orientation: regulators, handmaidens, advisors and changemakers.

Figure 3: TYPES OF HR SPECIALISTS



KEY



HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (HRD) PARADIGM



HUMAN RESOURCE ADMINISTRATION (HRA) AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (HRM) PARADIGMS

Source: Storey, 1992, p.168^a

^a source figure has been modified

Environmental pressures, both within and outside the organization, are pressurising HR leaders to move away from the Human Resources Administration (HRA) and Human Resources Management (HRM) paradigms in favour of the Human Resources Development (HRD) paradigm. This requires them to adopt a changemaker role, acting pro-actively and strategically. This new role requires HR specialists to acquire new skills, competencies and styles of leadership if they are to function as leaders in facilitating organizational adaptation. At the same time, new emotional and cognitive demands are being placed on them by both their own subordinates and line management. The abilities of HR leaders to develop strong personal bonds with followers, to inspire, intellectually stimulate and exhibit considerate behaviours towards them, will be directly related to their range of influence.

Such an approach to leadership by HR specialists should result in the functional outcomes exhibited in Figure 1, inter alia, heightened motivation of followers to perform beyond their own self interests, increased satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness. Additionally, increased follower and work unit performance may result.

In summary, an organizational culture which values and promotes transformational leadership should be encouraged. Organizations should find ways of incorporating transformational and contingent reward dimensions into their HRD systems. Initial success has

already been achieved in using transformational and transactional concepts in leadership, team and organizational development (Avolio et al., 1988; Bass, 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1990a). Given the reciprocal effects of leadership and performance, it may also be advantageous to include followers in development programmes aimed at identifying active-emotional versus passive-unemotional leadership and techniques of promoting and discouraging these, respectively.

Conversely, organizational policies, procedures, structures and processes should be designed to discourage management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviours. It would appear that these forms of leadership contribute little, or negatively, to the well-being and performance of followers.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study aimed to provide an initial understanding of transformational and transactional leadership amongst a population of South African HR specialists. However, it has several limitations which are discussed below.

Single-source error has been identified as a limitation of previous research on transformational and transactional leadership (e.g., Waldman, et al., 1990). The present study was designed to minimise this error and enhance stability by eliciting and subsequently aggregating, self and subordinate ratings of leadership

behaviours. Despite this precaution, quantitative methods are susceptible to several biases (Yukl, 1989). Proponents of attribution theory maintain that quantitative methods of leadership research are biased in favour of the exaggeration of leadership importance. Subordinates are likely to attribute more favourable behaviors to leaders of high performing groups than to those of low performing groups, regardless of leaders' actual performance (Yukl, 1989). Relatedly, Tosi (1976) maintained that perceptions of "good" leadership are likely to be influenced by prevailing political, cultural, historical and socio-economic circumstances. Self/subordinate agreement has been found to be influenced by organizational (i.e., structure and roles) and demographic (i.e., race and age) variables, as well as the degree of subordinates' participation in decision making.

Qualitative research such as observation, interviews and case studies may be used to try to overcome some of these problems. These appear to have certain advantages over the quantitative approach used in this study. Bryman, Bresnen and Beardsworth (1988) advocated increased utilisation of qualitative research techniques in order to account for situational variables impacting on the leader. They proposed that quantitative research could benefit from the former through "the provision of more grounded concepts and data" (p. 25). However, such methods have also been criticised in respect of a number of issues (see Yukl, 1992).

Although controversy regarding the most appropriate research methodology for studying leadership is likely to continue, future research on transformational and transactional leadership should aim to enhance objectivity even further by having multiple rater sources and multimethod research designs. The purpose of the research should dictate the methodology (Yukl, 1989). Wohlers et al., (1993, p. 264) maintained that "collecting data from multiple subordinates provides enhanced ability to measure and observe behaviour reliably".

The subordinate performance rating scale included in Questionnaire A also has limitations arising out of intervening variables impacting on performance ratings. Several studies have shown that the accuracy of performance ratings are affected by a number of factors, including rater training (Latham, Wexley & Pursell, 1975; McIntyre, Smith & Hasset), purpose of the appraisal (Zedeck & Cascio, 1982) and various demographic variables, including race (Cascio, 1978) and age (Cleveland & Landy, 1983). Such rating errors may have affected superiors' ratings of their subordinates' performance. Future research should try to minimise these effects by using more objective measures of followers' performance (Avolio et al., 1988; Onnen, 1987).

Hofstede (1979, p. 390) cautioned against "disciplinary parochialism". He cited that real world phenomena are not circumscribed by disciplinary boundaries. Although the current research has a marked

industrial and organizational psychology bias, it sought to incorporate aspects of other fields of study, notably business and management. Relatedly, Beer and Walton (1990) maintained that traditional disciplinary boundaries have impeded leadership and organizational development. Future research regarding this paradigm should therefore, by virtue of its origins and manifestations, be multidisciplinary to produce meaningful results.

In the current study, leaders were selected on the basis of holding positions of authority in organizations. This narrow definition of leadership has given rise to widespread criticism. Hosking (1988) contended that leadership research should move away from leaders holding positions of authority, to leadership as a process. She regarded leadership as an organising activity and proffered that all organizational incumbents could potentially take up leadership roles by effective organising. Accordingly, future research on this paradigm should extend beyond hierarchical considerations to how transformational and transactional behaviours and skills are used by all organizational incumbents.

The necessity of future research on this area of study is clear. This was borne out by a HR Director participating in the study who claimed, "your research is very commendable. I believe a lot of work is still to be done in the area of performance management/leadership and I fear that the HR function still uses archaic processes - some fresh input would be welcome".

This research was intended as an initial enquiry into the nature of this leadership paradigm amongst South African HR specialists and the outcomes thereof. Confirmatory research is therefore required to test the validity and reliability of the results of this study within this population.

Subsequent studies should investigate the reciprocal interaction between leaders and followers rather than viewing leadership as a top-down, unidirectional phenomenon. Kelly (1988) stressed the importance of followers to the success of the leadership process. He proposed, "if we agree that a leaders job is to transform followers, then it must be the followers job to provide the clay. If followers fail to need transformation, the leader looks ineffective" (p. 146). The contextual factors - both internal and external - in Figure 1 and their impact of transformational and transactional leadership, also require examination.

The significance of HR specialists' (particularly those in the top-management team) leadership styles influencing organizational strategy begs examination as does the reciprocal influence between leadership style and organizational culture.

Longitudinal research designs are required to maximise psychometric accuracy in exploring the factors and critical and non-critical events influencing the development of transformational leadership (Avolio & Gibbons; Lau et al., 1993).

Socio-economic and political changes endemic to South Africa, together with cultural pluralism, have stimulated interest and the need for knowledge apropos the cross-cultural applicability of psychological/human relations theories and constructs. Cross-cultural studies on transformational and transactional constructs (e.g., Bass & Yokochi, 1991; Singer & Singer, 1990) will therefore expand research in this area and increase leaders' knowledge and understanding of managing a diverse workforce.

In sum, it is essential that future research on leadership focuses on the antecedents, moderators, processes and outcomes of transformational leadership before meaningful applications in both profit and non profit organizations can be made. Bass (1990a, p. 904) emphasised that researchers "need to overcome the parochialism that has characterised research on leadership, which has focused on the easier-to-study transactional leadership.

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to examine transformational and transactional leadership amongst a sample of HR specialists.

The constituent constructs of each style were partially identifiable according to self and subordinate ratings of sampled leaders. Also, transformational behaviours were more frequently reported than

transactional behaviours. Transformational dimensions and the transactional factor of contingent reward were found to be associated with all three subordinates' perceptual outcomes. Moreover, dimensions of transformational leadership were found to be predictive of the willingness of subordinates to exert extra effort, perceptions of satisfaction with the leader and the effectiveness of leaders. Some degree of association was also found between transformational leadership and subordinates' performance. No similar relatedness was found between the transactional construct of management-by-exception and these outcome measures.

Hierarchical regression analyses showed that transformational leadership augmented transactional leadership in predicting the outcome measures. This supports the optimal model of leadership presented as Figure 2.

These results should offer HR specialists new insight and understanding into the nature and processes of this leadership paradigm, which will promote applications thereof, amongst this population and beyond.

Nonetheless, since this was exploratory research amongst HR specialists, it is crucial that further research be conducted in order to advance the HR discipline and the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my deepest gratitude to those listed for the contribution they have made to this report: My supervisor, Professor Charles Cogill, for his patient guidance and sound advice. Mike Page, for assisting with the statistical analyses. Pat Boulton, for her efficient and precise typing. My wife, Angela, for her advice and encouragement. Omar Valley at the HSRC, and Mr Piet Crouse, for rendering assistance in translating the questionnaires used in this research. My father, Mr David Brook, for his assistance and support, both financial and emotional. My boss, Elizabeth O'Connor, whose consideration and understanding enabled me to complete this dissertation on time. Lastly, all respondents, without whose co-operation this research would not have been possible.

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APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE A

This questionnaire provides information regarding leadership styles. Answer all questions by placing an X in the appropriate box. When the item is irrelevant or does not apply, or where you are uncertain or do not know, leave the answer blank. Make no more than one mark for each question. This questionnaire is to be answered anonymously.

Directions : Listed below are descriptive statements. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits yourself.

SECTION A

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 67

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

Example : My followers can freely discuss their problems with me.

If you believe this reflects your behaviour most of the time or "frequently, if not always", then mark the number 4.

-
1. They feel good when they are around me.
 2. I set high standards.
 3. My ideas have forced them to rethink some of their own ideas that they had never questioned before.
 4. I give personal attention to those who seem neglected.
 5. They can negotiate with me about what they receive for their accomplishments.
 6. I let them do their jobs the same way as they have always done, unless changes seem necessary.
 7. I avoid telling them how to perform their jobs.
 8. They are proud to be associated with me.
 9. I present a vision to spur them on.
 10. I enable them to think about old problems in new ways.

0	1	2	3	4
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0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

0	1	2	3	4
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Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 67.

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. I get them to look at problems as learning opportunities. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. I show them that I recognize their accomplishments. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I avoid trying to change what they do as long as things are going smoothly. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I steer away from showing concern about results. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. They have complete faith in me. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. I express our important purposes in simple ways. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. I provide them with new ways of looking at problems which initially seemed puzzling to them. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. I let them know how they are doing. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. There is agreement between what they are expected to do and what they can get for their efforts. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I am satisfied with their performance as long as the established ways work. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. I avoid making decisions. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I have a special gift for seeing what is really worthwhile for them to consider. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. I develop ways to encourage them. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. I provide them with reasons to change the way they think about problems. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. I treat each one of them as an individual. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. I give them what they want in exchange for their showing support for me. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 67

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

27. I show that I am a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it".

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

28. I avoid getting involved in their work.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

29. I view myself as a symbol of success and accomplishment.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

30. I use symbols and images to focus their efforts.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

31. I emphasise the use of intelligence to overcome obstacles.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

32. I find out what they want and help them get it.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

33. When they do good work, I commend them.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

34. I avoid intervening except when there is a failure to meet objectives.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

35. If they don't contact me, I don't contact them.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

36. I have their respect.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

37. I give encouraging talks to them.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

38. I require them to back up their opinions with good reasoning.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

39. I express my appreciation when they do a good job.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

40. I see that they get what they want in exchange for their cooperation.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

41. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, and deviations from what is expected of them.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 67

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 42. My presence has little effect on their performance. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. I show enthusiasm for what they need to do. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. I communicate expectations of high performance to them. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. I get them to identify key aspects of complex problems. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. I coach individuals who need it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 47. I let them know that they can get what they want if they work as agreed with me. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. I do not try to make improvements as long as things are going smoothly. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49. I am likely to be absent when needed. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 50. I have a sense of mission which I communicate to them. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 51. I place strong emphasis on careful problem solving before taking action. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 52. I provide advice to them when they need it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 53. They have a clear understanding with me about what we will do for each other. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 54. A mistake has to occur before I take action. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 55. I am hard to find when a problem arises. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 56. I increase their optimism for the future. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 57. I make sure that they think through what is involved before taking action. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 67

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

58. I am ready to instruct or coach them whenever they need it.

0	1	2	3	4
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59. I point out what they will receive if they do what needs to be done.

0	1	2	3	4
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60. I concentrate my attention on failures to meet expectations or standards.

0	1	2	3	4
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61. I make them feel that whatever they do is okay with me.

0	1	2	3	4
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62. They trust my ability to overcome any obstacle.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

63. I get them to use reasoning and evidence to solve problems.

0	1	2	3	4
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64. I give newcomers a lot of help.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

65. I praise them when they do a good job.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

66. I arrange to know when things go wrong.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

67. I don't tell them where I stand on issues.

0	1	2	3	4
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SECTION B

Please rate your selected subordinate's performance, using the key below, with reference to the 10 performance criteria described :

0	1	2	3	4	5
Not applicable	Unacceptable performance	Less than satisfactory	Satisfactory	Very good	Substantially exceeds expected performance

Performance criteria

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Building and maintaining interpersonal relationships, internally and externally. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Finding creative / innovative ways of improving work performance. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Developing job knowledge and abilities. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Making efficient and sound decisions when required. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Planning and organizing work and time. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Meeting and maintaining required quality of work. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Meeting and maintaining required work output level. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Training and developing subordinates. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Contributing to attainment of HR/Personnel Department's mission and objectives. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Contributing to attainment of organization's mission and objectives. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

SECTION C

Please place an X in the appropriate block :

1. Gender

Male

Female

2. Age

Under 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50+

3. Highest level of education attained

Less than Std 8	Std 8 - 9	Matric	Diploma	Degree	Postgraduate Degree

4. Industry Sector

Manufacturing / Production	
Services (incl. financial)	
Government	
Retail & wholesale	
Mining	
Other (specify)	

5. Length of service with present organisation

Less than 1 year	1 - 4 years	5 - 9 years	10 - 14 years	15 - 19 years	20 years or more

6. Approximate number of people in your organisation :

Up to 100	101 - 400	401 - 800	801 - 1000	Over 1000

7. Number of years in Supervisory / Management position

Less than 1 year	1 - 4 years	5 - 9 years	10 - 14 years	15 - 19 years	20 years or more

8. Number of people reporting directly or indirectly to you (including selected subordinate) :

1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 15	16 - 20	More than 20

9. For how many years has your selected subordinate reported to you ?

Less than 2 years	2 - 4 years	5 - 7 years	8 - 10 years	10 years or more

10. Job Title : Specify _____

11. Would you like a synopsis of the research results ?

Yes

No

Should you have any comments you would like to make with respect to this research, or on leadership in general, please use the space below (and over the page if necessary).

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE B

This questionnaire provides information regarding leadership styles. Answer all questions by placing an X in the appropriate box. When the item is irrelevant or does not apply, or where you are uncertain or do not know, leave the answer blank. Make no more than one mark for each question. This questionnaire is to be answered anonymously.

Directions : Listed below are descriptive statements. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits the person you are describing.

SECTION A

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 70

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

Example : "The person I am rating : Is someone I can discuss my problems with"

If you believe this is true of the person you are describing most of the time or "frequently, if not always", then mark the number 4.

The person I am rating :

- 1. makes me feel good when I am around him or her.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

 ✓
- 2. sets high standards.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 3. has ideas that have forced me to rethink ideas of my own that I had never questioned before.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 4. gives personal attention to those who seem neglected.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 5. makes me feel comfortable about negotiating what I receive for what I accomplish whenever I feel it necessary.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 6. is content to let me do my job the same way I have always done it, unless changes seem necessary.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 7. avoids telling me how to perform my job.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 8. makes me proud to be associated with him or her.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 9. has a vision that spurs me on.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 70

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. enables me to think about old problems in new ways. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. gets me to look at problems as learning opportunities. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. shows me that he or she recognizes my accomplishments. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. avoids trying to change what I do as long as things are going along smoothly. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. steers away from showing concern about results. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. is someone in whom I have complete faith. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. expresses our important purposes in simple ways. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. provides me with new ways of looking at problems which initially seemed puzzling to me. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. lets me know how I am doing. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. makes sure there is close agreement between what he or she expects me to do and what I can get from him or her for my effort. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. is satisfied with my performance as long as the established ways work. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. avoids making decisions. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. has a special gift for seeing what is really worthwhile for me to consider. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. develops ways to encourage me. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. provides me with reasons to change the way I think about problems. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. treats each of us as an individual. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 70

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

26. gives me what I want in exchange for my showing support for him or her.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

27. shows that he or she is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it".

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

28. avoids getting involved in our work.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

29. is viewed as a symbol of success and accomplishment.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

30. uses symbols and images to focus our efforts.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

31. emphasises the use of intelligence to overcome obstacles.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

32. finds out what I want and helps me to get it.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

33. commends me when I do good work.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

34. avoids intervening except when I fail to meet objectives.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

35. doesn't contact me if I don't contact him or her.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

36. has my respect.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

37. gives me encouraging talks.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

38. requires that I back up my opinions with good reasoning.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

39. expresses appreciation when I do a good job.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

40. sees that I get what I want in exchange for my cooperation.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

41. focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 70

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

- 42. has little effect on my performance, whether he or she is present or not.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 43. shows enthusiasm for what I need to do.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 44. communicates expectations of high performance to me.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 45. gets me to identify key aspects of complex problems.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 46. coaches me if I need it.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 47. lets me know that I can get what I want if we work as agreed.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 48. does not try to make improvements as long as things are going smoothly.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 49. is likely to be absent when needed.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 50. has a sense of mission which he or she communicates to me.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 51. gets me to do more than I expected I could do.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 52. places strong emphasis on careful problem solving before taking action.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 53. provides advice to me when I need it.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 54. gives me a clear understanding of what we will do for each other.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 55. a mistake has to occur before he or she takes action.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 56. is hard to find when a problem arises.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
- 57. increases my optimism for the future.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 1 - 70

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly Often	4 Frequently, if not always
-----------------	-------------------------	----------------	----------------------	-----------------------------------

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 58. motivates me to do more than I thought I could do. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 59. makes sure I think through what is involved before taking action. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 60. is ready to instruct or coach me whenever I need it. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 61. points out what I will receive if I do what needs to be done. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 62. concentrates his or her attention on failures to meet expectations or standards. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 63. makes me feel that whatever I do is okay with him or her. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 64. has my trust in his or her ability to overcome any obstacle. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 65. heightens my motivation to succeed. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 66. gets me to use reasoning and evidence to solve problems. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 67. gives newcomers a lot of help. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 68. praises me when I do a good job. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 69. arranges to know when things go wrong. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 70. doesn't tell me where he or she stands on issues. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

SECTION B

Use this key for the five possible responses to items 71 - 74

0 Not effective	1 Only slightly effective	2 Effective	3 Very effective	4 Extremely effective
-----------------------	---------------------------------	----------------	------------------------	-----------------------------

71. The overall effectiveness of the group made up of the leader and his or her supervisees and / or co-workers can be classified as ...
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
72. How effective is the leader in representing his or her group to higher authority ?
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
73. How effective is the leader in meeting the job-related needs of supervisees and / or co-workers ?
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
74. How effective is the leader in meeting the requirements of the organization ?
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

SECTION C

Place an X in the appropriate box.

75. In all, how satisfied are you with the leadership abilities of the person you are rating ?

0 Very dissatisfied	1 Somewhat dissatisfied	2 Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	3 Fairly satisfied	4 Very satisfied
---------------------------	-------------------------------	--	--------------------------	------------------------

76. In all, how satisfied are you with the methods of leadership used by the person you are rating to get your group's job done ?

0 Very dissatisfied	1 Somewhat dissatisfied	2 Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	3 Fairly satisfied	4 Very satisfied
---------------------------	-------------------------------	--	--------------------------	------------------------

SECTION D

Please place an X in the appropriate block :

1. Gender

Male

Female

2. Age

Under 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50+

3. Highest level of education attained

Less than Std 8	Std 8-9	Matric	Diploma	Degree	Postgraduate Degree

4. Industry Sector

Manufacturing / Production	
Services (incl. financial)	
Government	
Retail & wholesale	
Mining	
Other (specify)	

5. Length of service with present organisation

Less than 1 year	1 - 4 years	5 - 9 years	10 - 14 years	15 - 19 years	20 years or more

6. Approximate number of people in your organisation :

Up to 100	101 - 400	401 - 800	801 - 1000	Over 1000

7. Is your organisation undergoing rapid organisational renewal and / or change ?

Yes

No

APPENDIX 3

VRAELYS A : VRAELYS VIR DIE LEIER

Hierdie vraelys verskaf inligting oor leierskapstyle. Beantwoord alle vrae deur 'n X in die toepaslike blokkie te plaas. Laat die antwoord oop indien die item irrelevant of nie van toepassing is nie of as u onseker is of nie weet nie. Daar mag nie meer as een merkie per vraag wees nie. Die vraelys word anoniem voltooi.

Aanwysings : Hieronder volg 'n lys beskrywende stellings. Ons wil graag hê dat u ten opsigte van elke stelling moet aandui hoe dikwels dit op u van toepassing is.

AFDELING A

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 67

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

Voorbeeld : "My volgelinge kan hul probleme vrylik met my bespreek"

As u meen dat dit u gedrag die meeste van die tyd of "gereeld, indien nie altyd nie" kenmerk, moet u nommer 4 merk.

1. Hulle voel goed as hulle naby my is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

2. Ek stel hoë standaarde.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

3. My idees het hulle genoodsaak om van hulle eie opvattinge, wat hulle nog nooit voorheen bevraagteken het nie, te heroorweeg.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

4. Ek gee persoonlik aandag aan diegene wat skynbaar afgeskeep word.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

5. Hulle kan met my onderhandel oor dit wat hulle vir hul prestasies ontvang.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

6. Ek laat hulle toe om hul take op dieselfde wyse uit te voer as wat hulle dit nog altyd gedoen het, tensy veranderinge nodig blyk te wees.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

7. Ek vermy dit om vir hulle te vertel hoe om hul werk te doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

8. Hulle is trots daarop om met my geassosieer te word.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

9. Ek hou 'n visie voor om hulle aan te spoor.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 67

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

10. Ek stel hulle in staat om ou probleme op nuwe maniere te oordink.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
11. Ek kry hulle sover om hulle probleme as leergeleenthede te beskou.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
12. Ek wys vir hulle dat ek hulle prestasies raaksien.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
13. Solank sake glad verloop, vermy ek dit om te torring aan wat hulle doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
14. Ek vermy dit om te wys dat ek bekommerd is oor resultate.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
15. Hulle het volle vertroue in my.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
16. Ek verduidelik ons belangrike doelstellings op eenvoudige maniere.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
17. Ek rus hulle toe met nuwe maniere om na probleme te kyk wat hul aanvanklik dronkgeslaan het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
18. Ek laat hulle weet hoe hul vaar.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
19. Daar is ooreenstemming tussen wat van hulle verwag word om te doen en wat hulle vir hul pogings ontvang.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
20. Ek is tevrede met hul prestasie mits die gevestigde metodes suksesvol is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
21. Ek vermy dit om besluite te neem.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
22. Ek het 'n besondere gawe om te weet wat vir hulle werklik die moeite werd is om te oorweeg.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
23. Ek ontwikkel maniere om hulle aan te moedig.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
24. Ek verskaf aan hulle redes om die wyse waarop hulle aan probleme dink, te verander.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
25. Ek behandel elkeen van hulle as 'n individu.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
26. Ek gee hulle wat hul wil hê, in ruil vir die ondersteuning wat hulle my bied.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 67

0 Glad nie	1 Nou en dan	2 Soms	3 Taamlik Dikwels	4 Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie
---------------	-----------------	-----------	-------------------------	---------------------------------------

27. Ek wys dat ek vas daarin glo dat "as dit nie stukkend is nie, moenie dit herstel nie".

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
28. Ek vermy dit om by hul werksaamhede betrokke te raak.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
29. Ek beskou myself as simbool van welslae en prestasie.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
30. Ek gebruik simbole en beelde om stukrag aan hul pogings te verleen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
31. Ek beklemtoon die gebruik van gesonde verstand om struikelblokke uit die weg te ruim.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
32. Ek vind uit wat hulle wil hê en help hulle om dit te kry.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
33. Ek prys hulle as hul goeie werk doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
34. Ek vermy dit om tussenbeide te tree, behalwe as daar 'n onvermoë is om doelwitte te bereik.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
35. As hulle my nie nader nie, nader ek hulle nie.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
36. Ek geniet hul agting.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
37. Ek hou bemoedigende praatjies vir hulle.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
38. Ek verwag van hulle dat hulle hul menings deeglike moet beredeneer.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
39. Ek spreek my waardering uit as hulle goeie werk doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
40. Ek sorg dat hulle kry wat hulle wil hê, in ruil vir hul samewerking.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
41. Ek vestig die aandag op ongerymdhede, foute en afwykings van die wat van hulle verwag word.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 67

0 Glad nie	1 Nou en dan	2 Soms	3 Taamlik Dikwels	4 Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie
---------------	-----------------	-----------	-------------------------	---------------------------------------

42. My teenwoordigheid het weinig invloed op hul werkverrigting.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
43. Ek toon geesdrif vir dit wat hulle moet doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
44. Ek dra verwagtinge van uitstekende prestasie aan hulle oor.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
45. Ek kry hulle sover om belangrike aspekte van ingewikkelde probleme te identifiseer.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
46. Ek rig individue wat dit nodig het, af.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
47. Ek laat hulle weet dat hulle kan kry wat hul wil hê, mits hulle werk soos met my ooreengekom.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
48. Ek probeer om nie verbeteringe aan te bring solank sake vlot verloop nie.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
49. Ek sal waarskynlik afwesig wees wanneer iemand my nodig het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
50. Ek het 'n missiebesef wat ek aan hulle oordra.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
51. Ek lê sterk klem op sorgvuldige probleemoplossing voordat ek tot die daad oorgaan.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
52. Ek gee hulle raad wanneer hulle dit nodig het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
53. Ons het 'n deeglike verstandhouding oor wat ons vir mekaar sal doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
54. Daar moet eers 'n fout opduik voordat ek optree.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
55. Dit is moeilik om my in die hande te kry wanneer 'n probleem opduik.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
56. Ek laat hulle meer optimisties oor die toekoms voel.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
57. Ek maak seker dat hulle deeglik besin oor alle aspekte van 'n saak voordat hulle optree.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 67

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

58. Ek is bereid om hulle voor te lig of af te rig as hulle dit ooit nodig het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

59. Ek dui aan wat hulle sal ontvang as hulle die nodige doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

60. Ek gee my volle aandag aan die onvermoë om aan verwagtings of standaarde te voldoen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

61. Ek laat hulle voel dat ek my goedkeuring verleen aan enigiets wat hul mag doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

62. Hulle het vertroue in my vermoë om enige struikelblok uit die weg te ruim.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

63. Ek kry hulle sover om logika en getuienis te gebruik om probleme op te los.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

64. Ek bied ruim hulp aan nuwelinge.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

65. Ek prys hulle wanneer hulle goeie werk doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

66. Ek reel om te weet wanneer sake verkeerd loop.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

67. Ek laat hulle nie weet wat my standpunt oor omstrede sake is nie.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

AFDELING B

Beoordeel asseblief u uitgesoekte onderhorige se prestasie, met behuld van onderstaande sleutel, ten opsigte van die 10 prestasiekriteria wat beskryf word.

0	1	2	3	4	5
Nie van toepassing	Onaanvaarbare prestasie	Minder as bevredigend	Bevredigend	Baie goed	Oorskry ver wagte prestasie in hoe mate

Prestasiekriteria

1. Die opbou en instandhouding van interpersoonlike verhoudings, sowel intern as ekstern.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

2. Die vind van kreatiewe / vernuwende metodes om werkprestasie te verbeter.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

3. Die ontwikkeling van kennis van die werksituasie en van vermoens.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

4. Doeltreffende en grondige besluitneming.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

5. Die beplanning en organisering van werk en tyd.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

6. Voldoening aan en instandhouding van vereiste werkkwaliteit.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

7. Voldoening aan en instandhouding van vereiste vlak van werkproduksie.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

8. Opleiding en ontwikkeling van ondergeskiktes.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

9. Dra by tot bereiking van Menslike Hulpbronne / Personeeldepartement se missie en doelwitte.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

10. Dra by tot bereiking van organisasie se missie en doelwitte.

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

AFDELING C

Plaas asseblief 'n X in die toepaslike blokkie :

1. GeslagManlik Vroulik 2. Ouderdom

Onder 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50+

3. Hoochste onderwysvlak bereik

Minder as Std 8	Std 8 - 9	Matriek	Diploma	Graad	Nagraadse kwalifikasie

4. Nywerheidssektor

Vervaardiging / Produksie	
Dienste (insluitende finansieel)	
Staat	
Klein- en groothandel	
Mynwese	
Ander (spesifiseer)	

5. Dienstyd by huidige organisasie

Minder as 1 jaar	1 - 4 jaar	5 - 9 jaar	10 - 14 jaar	15 - 19 jaar	20 jaar of langer

6. Geskatte getal persone in u organisasie

Tot 'n 100	101 - 400	401 - 800	801 - 1000	Meer as 1000

7. Getal jare in toesighoudende / bestuurshoedanigheid

Minder as 1 jaar	1 - 4 jaar	5 - 9 jaar	10 - 14 jaar	15 - 19 jaar	20 jaar of langer

8. Getal persone wat direk of indirek aan u rapporteer (insluitende uitgesoekte ondergeskikte) :

1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 15	16 - 20	Meer as 20

9. Vir hoeveel jaar rapporteer u uitgesoekte ondergeskikte al aan u ?

Minder as 2 jaar	2 - 4 jaar	5 - 7 jaar	8 - 10 jaar	10 jaar of langer

10. Posbenaming : Spesifiseer asseblief : _____

11. Sou u graag 'n opsomming van die navorsingsresultate wil ontvang ?

Ja

Nee

Gebruik asseblief onderstaande ruimte as u enige kommentaar wil lewer oor hierdie navorsing of oor leierskap in die algemeen

Dankie vir u deelname.

APPENDIX 4

VRAELYS B : VRAELYS VIR DIE ONDERGESKIKTE

Hierdie vraelys verskaf inligting oor leierskapstyle. Beantwoord alle vrae deur 'n X in die toepaslike blokkie te plaas. Laat die antwoord oop indien die item irrelevant of nie van toepassing is nie of as u onseker is of nie weet nie. Daar mag nie meer as een merkie per vraag wees nie. Die vraelys word anoniem voltooi.

Aanwysings : Hieronder volg 'n lys beskrywende stellings. Ons wil graag hê dat u ten opsigte van elke stelling moet aandui hoe dikwels dit van toepassing is op die persoon wat u beskryf.

AFDELING A

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 70

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

Voorbeeld : "Die persoon wat ek bevoordeel : Is iemand met wie ek my probleme kan bespreek"

As u meen dat dit die meeste van die tyd of "gereeld, indien nie altyd nie" waar is van die persoon wat u beskryf, moet u nommer 4 merk.

Die persoon wat ek beoordeel :

1. laat my goed voel as ek naby hom of haar is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
2. stel hoe standarde.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
3. beskik oor idees wat my genoodsaak het om my idees wat ek nog nooit voorheen bevraagteken het nie, te heroorweeg.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
4. gee persoonlik aandag aan diegene wat skynbaar afgeskeep word.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
5. stel my op my gemak wanneer ek dit nodig ag om met hom of haar oor die beloning vir my prestasies te onderhandel.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
6. is tevrede om my toe te laat om my werk te verrig soos ek dit nog altyd gedoen het, tensy wysigings nodig blyk te wees.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
7. vermy dit om my te vertel hoe om my werk te doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
8. maak my trots om met hom of haar geassosieer te word.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
9. het 'n visie wat my aanspoor.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 70

0 Glad nie	1 Nou en dan	2 Soms	3 Taamlik Dikwels	4 Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie
---------------	-----------------	-----------	-------------------------	---------------------------------------

10. stel my in staat om ou probleme op nuwe maniere te oordink.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

11. kry my sover om problem as leergeleenthede te beskou.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

12. wys my dat hy of sy my prestasies maksien.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

13. vermy dit om te torring aan wat ek doen, solank sake glad verloop.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

14. vermy dit om te wys dat hy of sy oor resultate bekommerd is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

15. is iemand in wie ek volle vertrouwe het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

16. verduidelik ons belangrike doelstellings op eenvoudige maniere.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

17. rus my toe met nuwe maniere om na probleme te kyk wat my aanvanklik dronkgeslaan het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

18. laat my weet hoe ek vaar.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

19. maak seker dat daar ooreenstemming is tussen way hy of sy van my verwag en wat ek van hom of haar vir my pogings kan ontvang.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

20. is tevrede met my prestasie mits die gevestigde metodes suksesvol is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

21. vermy dit om besluite te neem.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

22. het 'n besondere gawe om te weet wat vir my werklik die moeite werd is om te oorweeg.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

23. ontwikkel maniere om my aan te moedig.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

24. verskaf aan my redes om die wyse waarop ek aan probleme dink, te verander.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

25. behandel elkeen van ons as 'n individu.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

26. gee my wat ek wil he, in ruil vir die ondersteuning wat ek hom of haar bied.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 70

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

27. wys dat hy of sy vas daarin glo dat "as dit nie stukkend is nie, moenie dit herstel nie".
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
28. vermy dit om by ons werksaamhede betrokke te raak.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
29. word beskou as simbool van welslae en prestasie.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
30. gebruik simbole en beelde om stukrag aan ons pogings te verleen.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
31. beklemtoon die gebruik van gesonde verstand om struikelblokke uit die weg te ruim.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
32. vind uit wat ek wil hê en help my om dit te kry.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
33. prys my wanneer ek goeie werk doen.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
34. vermy dit om tussenbeide te tree, behalwe wanneer ek nie daarin slaag om doelwitte te bereik nie.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
35. nader my nie as as ek hom of haar nie nader nie.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
36. geniet my agting.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
37. hou vir my bemoedigende praatjies.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
38. verwag van my dat ek my menings deeglik moet beredeneer.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
39. spreek waardering uit wanneer ek goeie werk doen.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
40. sorg dat ek kry wat ek wil hê, in ruil vir my samewerking.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
41. vestig die aandag op ongerymdhede, foute, uitsonderings en afwykings van die wat van my verwag word.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
42. oefen min invloed op my werkverrigting uit, ongeag of hy of sy teenwoordig is of nie.
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 70

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

43. toon geesdrif vir dit wat ek moet doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

44. dra verwagtinge van uitstende prestasie aan my oor.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

45. kry my sover om belangrike aspekte van ingewikkelde probleme te identifiseer.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

46. rig my af as dit nodig is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

47. laat my weet dat ek kan kry wat ek wil hê, mits ons werk soos daar ooreengekom is.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

48. probeer om nie verbeteringe aan te bring solank sake vlot verloop nie.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

49. sal waarskynlik afwesig wees wanneer iemand hom of haar nodig het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

50. het 'n missiebesef wat hy of sy aan my oordra.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

51. kry my sover om meer te doen as wat ek gedink het ek kon.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

52. le sterk klem op sorgvuldige probleemoplossing voordat daar tot die daad oorgegaan word.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

53. gee my raad wanneer ek dit nodig het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

54. laat my duidelik verstaan wat ons vir mekaar sal doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

55. 'n fout moet opduik voordat hy of sy optree.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

56. is moeilik om in die hande te kry wanneer 'n probleem opduik.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

57. laat my meer optimisties oor die toekoms voel.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

58. motiveer my om meer te doen as wat ek gedink ek kon.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

59. maak seker dat ek deeglik besin oor alle aspekte van 'n saak voordat ek optree.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

Gebruik hierdie sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 1 - 70

0	1	2	3	4
Glad nie	Nou en dan	Soms	Taamlik Dikwels	Gereeld, indien nie altyd nie

60. is bereid om my voor te lig of af te rig as ek dit ooit nodig het.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
61. dui aan wat ek sal ontvang as ek die nodige doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
62. gee sy of haar volle aandag aan die onvermoë om aan verwagtings of standaarde te voldoen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
63. laat my voel dat enigiets wat ek mag doen sy of haar goedkeuring wegdra.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
64. geniet my vertroue in sy of haar vermoë om enige struikelblok uit die weg te ruim.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
65. verhoog my motivering om te presteer.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
66. kry my sover om logika en getuienis te gebruik om probleme op te los.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
67. bied ruim hulp aan nuwelinge.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
68. prys my wanneer ek goeie werk doen.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
69. reël om te weet wanneer sake verkeerd loop.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---
70. laat my nie weet wat sy of haar standpunt oor omstrede sake is nie.

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

AFDELING B

Gebruik onderstaande sleutel vir die vyf moontlike response op items 71 - 74

0 Nie doel- treffend nie	1 In geringe mate doeltreffend	2 Doeltreffend	3 Baie doel- treffend	4 Uiters doeltreffend
--------------------------------	---	-------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------------

71. Die algemene doeltreffendheid van die groep wat bestaan uit die leier ens sy of haar ondergeskiktes en / of medewerkers kan bestempel word as

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

72. Hoe doeltreffend is die leier ten opsigte van die wyse waarop sy of haar groep aan hoer gesag voorgestel word ?

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

73. Hoe doeltreffend voldoen die leier aan die werkverwante behoeftes van ondergeskiktes en / of medewerkers ?

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

74. Hoe doeltreffend voldoen die leier aan die behoeftes van die organisasie ?

0	1	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---

AFDELING C

Plaas 'n X in die toepaslike blokkie

75. Hoe tevrede is u in die algemeen met die leierskapvermoens van die persoon wat u beoordeel ?

0 Baie ontevrede	1 Ietwat ontevrede	2 Nog tevrede nog ontevrede	3 Taamlik tevrede	4 Baie tevrede
------------------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------

76. Hoe tevrede is u in die algemeen met die leierskapmetodes wat deur die persoon wat u beoordeel gebruik word om u groep se werk af te handel ?

0 Baie ontevrede	1 Ietwat ontevrede	2 Nog tevrede nog ontevrede	3 Taamlik tevrede	4 Baie tevrede
------------------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------

AFEDELING D

Plaas asseblief 'n X in die toepaslike blokkie :

1. GeslagManlik Vroulik 2. Ouderdom

Onder 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50+

3. Hoochste onderwysvlak bereik

Minder as Std 8	Std 8 - 9	Matriek	Diploma	Graad	Nagraadse kwalifikasie

4. Nywerheidsektor

Vervaardiging / Produksie	
Dienste (insluitende finansieel)	
Staat	
Klein- en groothandel	
Mynwese	
Ander (spesifiseer)	

5. Dienstyd by huidige organisasie

Minder as 1 jaar	1 - 4 jaar	5 - 9 jaar	10 - 14 jaar	15 - 19 jaar	20 jaar of langer

6. Geskatte getal persone in u organisasie

Tot 'n 100	101 - 400	401 - 800	801 - 1000	Meer as 1000

7. Ondergaan u organisasie snelle organisatoriese hernuwing en / of verandering ?Ja Nee

8. Vir hoeveel jaar rapporteer u al aan u Bestuurder / Toesighouer ?

Minder as 2 jaar	2 - 4 jaar	5 - 7 jaar	8 - 10 jaar	10 jare of meer
------------------	------------	------------	-------------	-----------------

9. Posbenaming : Spesifiseer asseblief : _____

10. Sou u graag 'n opsomming van die navorsingsresultate wil ontvang ?

Ja

Nee

Gebruik asseblief onderstaande ruimte as u enige kommentaar wil lewer oor hierdie navorsing of oor leierskap in die algemeen

Dankie vir u deelname.