

**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND EMPLOYEE MORALE
WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE**

by

AMON MYENI

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PROMOTER: PROF. E.C. STRÖH

JOINT PROMOTER: PROF. N. HOLTZHAUSEN

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DECLARATION

I declare that “**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND EMPLOYEE MORALE WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE**” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

AMON MYENI

(student number – 30792525)

DATE: 30 November 2010

ABSTRACT

The study of leadership is one of those disciplines that invoke fierce debate among scholars and at the centre of the leadership debate lies the many approaches to the discipline that are employed by scholars and these approaches have led to different definitions of the discipline such as the trait theory of leadership, the behavioural theory of leadership and the contingent theory of leadership.

This study was undertaken for two main reasons. Firstly, to investigate the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture and secondly, to establish how those leadership behaviour of deputy directors impacted on the employee morale of their subordinates. The study was conducted within the public administration environment and it was conducted using the leadership behaviour theory whose main assumption is that leadership is a relationship between the leader and the followers and as such, the behaviour of the leader has direct impact on the morale of the followers.

The key leadership behaviour that were used for the study came from the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) survey instrument that was developed by Kouzes and Posner (2002) and five key factors were identified as central to the study of leadership behaviour for the purpose of this study. Firstly, leaders are expected to act exemplary (model the way) by ensuring that what they say is what they do. Secondly, leaders are expected to inspire a shared vision so that their followers are able to assimilate the vision being pursued. Thirdly, leaders are expected to challenge the existing institutional processes and systems so that all resources can be directed towards the realisation of the new vision. Fourthly, leaders are expected to enable their followers to act by creating an environment that is conducive to effective service delivery and fifthly, leaders are expected to encourage their followers to endure where challenges seem overwhelming so that followers should not be discouraged and give up.

Since the study was conducted within the public administration environment, its main purpose was to discover how frequently do deputy directors engage in those five factors. The study yielded mixed results where in some of the factors, deputy directors engaged frequently whereas in the other factors, they had infrequent engagement. The participants to this study were grouped into three categories: deputy directors (as leaders being

evaluated), and directors and subordinates (as observers). The study used the Likert scale where the data was interpreted by means of graphs.

KEY TERMS

Department of Agriculture; deputy directors; directors; directorates; behaviour; leadership; leadership behaviour; public managerial leadership; management function; morale; subordinates/employees.

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THESIS DEDICATION:

This thesis is dedicated to all the men and women in public institutions who have and continue to work tirelessly to improve the lives of millions of South Africans. These are the unsung heroes and heroines whose mission is to make a difference in other people's wellbeing. From the school teacher who must ensure that the future leaders of this country are properly educated to take up the ever increasing challenges of public administration, to the policeman and policewoman who must lay down their lives for the safety of the general public, to the doctor who must heal the sick, to the nurse who must look after the sick and the dying who in doing so must risk the possibility of contracting dreaded diseases, to the army officer who must defend the country with his or her own life, to the traffic officer who must ensure that the rules of the road are observed, to the warder and the warden who must look after dangerous criminals in the correctional facilities, to the judge who must uphold the law against all forms of bullying and intimidation, to the extension officer who must ensure that farmers are supported so that enough food and fibre can be made available to all. Last but not least, to all other public servants who are too numerous to mention here who have also made a concerted effort to serve the public with the best of their abilities. To all and sundry, *ngithi: halala maqhawe halala!* (I say: praise be to all of you champions of public administration!).

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMA	American Management Association
DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
DoA	Department of Agriculture
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
LPI	Leadership Practices Inventory

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

“Research can be thought of as a way of knowing about aspects of behaviour or phenomena in organizations. In many respects it also should be viewed as a means to an end, usually with that end being that we become more informed and make potentially more valid human resource management decisions” Neal W. Schmitt and Richard J. Klimoski.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Once upon a time, there was a man who was walking down the road wearing a coat. Mrs. Wind and Mrs. Sun had a fierce debate on how to force the man to take off his coat. Mrs. Wind boasted how strong she was and how, with a single blow she could force the man to take off his coat. “Oh yeah” exclaimed Mrs. Sun, “Go ahead, let’s see how you could succeed in doing that.” Mrs. Wind came with a vengeance and blew the man to the ground, and the more she blew, the more the man clung to his coat and after an hour of fierce blowing, the man still clung tenaciously to his coat and it was obvious that Mrs. Wind had failed in persuading the man to take his coat off. Mrs. Sun then said, “Let me show you how it is done.” Mrs. Sun began to shine warmly and as the temperature rose, the man began to take off his coat voluntarily (www.storyarts.org/library/aesops/stories/north.html).

This parable depicts the nature of leadership in public as well as private institutions. At both extremes, leadership can either be empowering or alienating. Thousands of leaders are deeply committed to the course of rendering superior services to society by creating a conducive environment wherein subordinates are treated with dignity and compassion that lead to high employee morale which in turn leads to superior performance. Yet there are some leaders who adopt Mrs. Wind’s strategy where subordinates or employees are treated with brutality that results in toxic relationships in the work environment which in turn, may affect employee morale. It is often said that people do not quit because they have issues with institutions rather, they quit because of toxic leadership within institutions. Kenneth Boulding in Ernest Dale (1978:309) says that “The boss should neither be a brute nor yet a father-substitute, but should remember if he can that Employee is also Man” (Dale 1978:309). This means that managers should focus on the outcomes that are to be achieved by their units and not brutalize their employees unduly for lack of strategic leadership direction (Pettinger, 2007:450-451). Theodore Roosevelt (in Collis, 1998:53) extends the argument about effective

leadership by stating that “... people ask the difference between a leader and a boss. The leader leads and the boss drives”. This implies that leaders ought to provide a conducive environment where people can begin to *excel* in their *work performance* and not be *slave-driven or bullied around* as in the case of Mrs Wind above (Denhardt, Denhardt, and Aristigueta, 2009:84; Perry, 2010:5).

This study is about *public managerial leadership*. Public managerial leadership is concerned with the relationship between a manager and his or her subordinates/direct reports within public institutional setting (Perry, 2010:16; Daft, 1997:10). Public managerial leadership permeates all three levels of management, that is, top management, middle management and lower management. At some point, all public managers are expected to wear their leadership cap when interacting with their subordinates/direct reports and it is the *nature of the leadership relationship* that is the subject of enquiry of this study (Lewis, Goodman and Fandt, 2004:402; Everard and Burrow, 1996:614). Central to this study, is the notion that empowering leadership behaviour is learnable. This implies that every manager can learn how to apply empowering leadership behaviour in his or her environment. This is a radical approach since it nullifies the theory that claims that leadership is an inborn ability which is available only to a few who are born with the leadership gene (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:13).

Chapter one gives the *raison detre* (most important reason) for embarking on the study. It is an introductory chapter that aims at acquainting the reader with the factors that militated for the study to be conducted. This introductory chapter provides a background and rationale as well as purpose for the study for the purpose of placing the problem in proper context. It proceeds by discussing the motivation that acted as the propensity for embarking on the study and it also provides arguments for the significance of the study to the academic world as well as to the Department of Agriculture within which the study would be conducted and this will be followed by a discussion of the purpose of the study which will basically provide reasons that militated for the purpose to undertake the study.

In order to provide direction for the collection of the empirical data that will be used in the resolution of the research problem, the problem shall be formulated in a form of a *problem statement*. The hypothesis, which offers a tentative answer to the problem, will be postulated and the objectives that will act as tracks or rails for the accomplishment of the study are also explained. Every study is conducted within certain delimitations and the delimitations of this Study will be discussed under demarcation of the study and this will be followed by a discussion of research methodology that will be employed in conducting the study. This chapter

will also give a discussion on the reference technique that will be adopted when referring to the various sources that will be consulted. Core terms to be used in this study will be defined so that the reader has the same meaning when referring to the various terms that will be used. This will be followed by an overview of chapters as well as concluding remarks of the arguments that would have been presented in this chapter.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this section is to give a brief discourse regarding the fundamental principles that have inspired the author to embark upon the study. A study in leadership issues within an institution is essentially an investigation that *focuses on people within the institution* and how those people *interact with one another* for the purpose of *achieving a specific goal* (Vecchio, 1995:332). Robbins (1990:4) defines an institution as *“a consciously coordinated social entity, with a relatively identifiable boundary, that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.”* From Robbins’ definition, one can deduce that an institution is a *social entity*. Institutions function the way they do because of the people who work in them (Clapper, 2000:37). The work effort of people must be *coordinated or managed* so that everyone should pull towards the same objective. Institutions exist to accomplish a *certain goal or goals* and most institutions *exist for a long time* (continuity) and each institution is *unique*, that is, it has its own boundary (Burke, 2002:176-177; Rigg and Richards, 2006:46-47).

The Department of Agriculture, just like most other public institutions faces a number of complex challenges in this regard. Challenges such as: how to realize objectives *effectively*, how to utilize resources *efficiently*, how to enhance *career development* of its members, how to make a contribution to economic prosperity in the agricultural sector, how to minimize a stressful working environment, how to minimize resistance to change, how to resolve conflicts amicably, how to deter corruption and malpractices and how to create a culture that is people-centred and empowering to its members (Buchanan and Badham, 2008:131-144).

Drucker (in Stoner, 1982:14) postulated that the work of a manager can be measured in terms of two concepts: effectiveness and efficiency where effectiveness is described as the art of *doing the right thing* and efficiency is described as the art of *doing things right* (Steers and Black, 1993:330). For the Department of Agriculture, being effective would simply mean that the Department is able to deliver the programmes that it has set out to do. This is easier said than done. For example, if the Department comes up with a programme to

assist farmers to dig 500 boreholes nationally but ends up digging only 290 boreholes, one can conclude that the Department was not effective in carrying out its objective of supporting farmers by providing boreholes since it could not provide the number of boreholes required. Efficiency on the other hand refers to the prudent utilization of resources. For example, if the original budget for providing 500 boreholes was R5 million and the whole amount was used to produce 290 boreholes, then one would conclude that there was inefficiency in the provision of this service. Stoner (1982:14) suggests that every manager's responsibilities should be based on performance that is both effective and efficient and this argument is also supported by Steers and Black (1993:330) and Everard and Burrow (1996:8-9).

Career development is one of the key elements for the success of an institution. People will tend to work hard if they know that their efforts will be rewarded with better pay and career development. In some instances, where remuneration is poor, people will eventually resign from or go on retirement and this would usually create skills shortage challenges and if the remaining personnel are not adequately trained to fill those vacant positions, the performance of the institution may be adversely affected (Tyson, 2006:214-216).

The mandate of the Department of Agriculture is to ensure that the agricultural sector contributes significantly to the economic development of the country (DAFF, 2008:2). This means that farmers must be supported so that they can produce food and other agricultural products at reasonable prices so that the rate of inflation should remain at an acceptable level. High food prices are major contributors to inflation and are a common feature of the South African agricultural economy (Food prices still rising: Savings not being passed on to shoppers. 2009. Daily News, 31 August 2009:1).

The dark side of institutions is the stress phenomenon. Morgan (1986:199) argues that institutions have become psychic prisons in the sense that "they are ultimately created and sustained by conscious and unconscious processes, with images, ideas, thoughts, and actions to which these processes give rise." The nature of the public service is such that all the good work that men and women do, could get blotted by a few bad cases that are reported in the media (Media unpatriotic and hostile to politicians, says Malema. 2009. Cape Argus, 17 June:6; ANC rethinks media tribunal plan. 2009. The Mercury, 26 March:5). If the internal relations are also not conducive to a good working environment (they can lead to severe stress with serious consequences to the victims (Vecchio 2003:255-258)), and in some

extreme cases, people can suffer from acute hypertension and stroke that may even lead to death (Tyson, 2006:309-310).

Resistance to change can seriously hamper service delivery. The transformation of the public service is still grappling with the challenges of resistance to change (Gallos, 2006:475-476; Buchanan and Badham, 2008:268). It becomes worst still if the framework for carrying out the changes is not properly designed (Morse, Buss and Kinghorn, 2007:154-175). For example, a newly appointed high ranking official may see the need to change certain procedures within her unit but if that is done without consulting the people involved, they will simply resist those changes and that may create a stressful environment both for the newly appointed official as well as those who are affected by such changes. People want to be assured at all times that their positions and career prospects are not unreasonably affected (Raffel Leisink and Middlebrooks, 2009:243-245).

Conflicts occur from time to time in any institution. It is the manner of resolution that may pose a challenge. Animal lovers have advocated what they call a "humane method" to kill animals but the fact is; the animals will still be killed no matter how "humane" the method is. The same thing goes for conflict resolution in institutions. It has to be handled humanely so that those who are affected do not suffer undue humiliation no matter how severe the case may be. Frequent industrial strikes are indicators of poor conflict resolutions within institutions (Conflict resolution in the workplace. 2008. Cape Argus. 25 February:7).

Malpractices such as corruption are some of the scourges of developing countries more in particular, African countries (Curbing corruption is a human rights issue. The Mercury, 2009. 14 December:7). Millions of rands are being looted by those who lay their hands on them (Probe goes deeper as Land Bank slowly turns. 2009. The Star, 16 November:16; Goodbye to KZN millions: missing documents halt bids to retrieve money. 2009. Daily News, 02 November:1). This robs the citizens the opportunity to receive effective service delivery (National health scheme has potential to overshadow arms deal fiasco. 2009. The Mercury, 17 August:7). Corruption is further compounded by malpractices where officials begin to operate outside the established norms. The hiring of friends and relatives is but one of the examples of malpractice (Call to live by our constitution: Ramphele slams country's lack of ethics. 2009. Daily News, 10 November:5).

This study is basically about people-centred leadership, the kind of leadership that puts people first. *Batho Pele* (people first-framework for service delivery by institutions but primarily for public institutions) cannot only be directed at external

clients, it must be practiced firstly from within the institution. People cannot be expected to be nice to their clients when they are treated with hostility from within: "what you put in is what you get out" is still a useful euphemism in managerial leadership (Vardi and Weitz, 2004:70-71).

From the preceding paragraphs, it is apparent that institutions are complex systems that play a pivotal role in the lives of people (Bovaird and Löffler, 2003:26-27). Modern life is heavily dependent upon the existence of institutions (Bratton, Callinan, Forshaw and Sawchuk, 2007:4). People are born in institutions, people are educated in institutions, people get married in institutions, people go to institutions to seek help when they are sick, and when they die, people get buried by institutions, employment for people is provided by institutions, people's daily sustenance is provided by institutions and people's lives are regulated by institutions. In fact, institutions are involved almost in every facet of human existence, and without them, modern life would be impossible to attain (Bolman and Deal, 2008:6-7; Bratton *et al.* 2007:4; Bobbitt, 1978:3).

Part of Robbins's definition is that an institution is a "social entity." It is people that make institutions function. Smit and Cronje (1992:3) put the point succinctly when they claim that "Therefore, the purpose of an institution is to realize specific goals, because man as a social being organizes himself in groups to achieve objectives that would be too difficult or too complex for him to achieve on his own." Smit and Cronje's argument implies that effective institutional performance is a function of group coherence. Institutional members need to be coordinated in a cooperative manner so that group performance can lead to institutional success (Garson and Williams, 1982:170; Tyson, 2006:30-31).

However, people who work in institutions are not homogenous in terms of their work responsibilities. Some are assigned the responsibility of formulating goals for which the institution is created; creating the structure under which functions are to be performed; planning for the resources to be utilized, including people; soliciting funding with which resources can be procured; hiring people to carry out various functions; set out rules and procedures governing the conducts of all members of the institution; leading people towards the attainment of the set goals; and controlling and reviewing the work or output of others.

These functions are called *management functions* and they are: planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting (Cayer and Weschler, 2003:181). The people who perform management functions are known as *managers* and are stratified into three categories: namely, top management,

middle management and lower management (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995:16-17). Members of institutions who are not managers are known as employees or subordinates (operational workers) and their role is to carry out the tasks as set out by their managers (Trewatha and Newport, 1982:386; Lewis *et al.* 2004:10-11).

The phrase, *social entity* as coined by Robbins (1990:4), can now be understood to mean that an institution has two types of members, those who perform managerial functions referred to as managers and those who carry out instructions or implement the decisions taken by their managers referred to as employees or subordinates. When managers perform the function of directing their employees to perform the functions assigned, they are performing the function of leadership (Tyson, 2006:31). Leadership is a critical function of management because it sets the agenda under which managers interact with their subordinates (van Wart, 2008:23-24). This is sometimes referred to as *managerial leadership* to indicate that it is a management function (Raffel, Leisink and Middlebrooks, 2009:92-93).

In South Africa, the leadership function is regarded as the most important function in the public sector (Constitution of South Africa 1996, section 195). The *principles of good human resource management* are postulated by chapter ten of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. Section 195 (1h), for example, states that “*Managers of public institutions must foster good human resource management and career development behaviours so as to maximize human potential.*” The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service 1995 also emphasises this fact. Part of the mission of the White Paper, for example, is to “*Promote human resource development and capacity building as a necessary precondition for effective change and institution building*” (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:2.2). The White Paper goes on to point out that there are a number of challenges that need to be addressed in this regard. The following past and current challenges are the ones that are relevant to this study:

- Centralized control and top-down management

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1d) argues that prior to 1994; the public service was highly authoritarian, heavily centralized and rule-bound. The reason for centralization was that it was strongly oriented towards the control of the majority and as such, it was characterized by the development of a vertical top-down management structure that invariably discouraged democratic practices and creativity within the public service.

- Lack of accountability and transparency

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1e) goes on to state that employees were largely held accountable for adherence to rules and procedures rather than for productivity and efficiency.

- Low productivity

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1g) indicates that the total number of public servants to the population they were serving at the time was one to every 30 inhabitants. When compared to other countries with similar developmental economies, this was viewed as being relatively low in terms of productivity. One of the causes of low productivity was identified as being lack of education and training opportunities for the majority of public servants.

- Professional ethos and work ethics

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1j) also states that in many parts of the public service, there were inefficiency, mismanagement and corruption that had hindered the development of a professional ethos and work ethics that would have contributed to high employee performance.

- Lack of skills and capacity

The White Paper (1995:3.1.2i) further contends that the discriminatory effects of the apartheid education system, coupled to the relative lack of opportunities for in-service education and training for the disadvantaged groups within the public service, has led to a serious problem of capacity and as a result, the public service was battling to provide effective service.

The maximization of human potential forms an integral part of the study. Maximization of human potential is defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002:21) as "everything a leader does that result in employees contributing superior performance". One is keen to know whether the challenges that were addressed in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service have been addressed, or whether the situation has stayed the same or even deteriorated further. The investigation of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture (focus group of this study), is intended to indirectly shed light on some of these challenges by answering among others the following questions: what is the nature of the leadership culture of deputy directors in terms of decentralization of

power? Are deputy directors really accountable for their leadership behaviour? What is the nature of the work ethics of the deputy directors and are their direct reports properly skilled and trained to meet the demands of effective service delivery?

Success in leadership will be wholly dependent upon the capacity to build and sustain those human relationships that enable people to get extra-ordinary things done on a regular basis (Bovaird and Löffler, 2003:180-181; Denhardt *et al.* 2009:184; Pettinger, 2007:459-460). But to maximize human potential, managers need to behave in a particular manner and central to this study are the leadership behaviour of those middle managers known as deputy directors (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995:16-17). The focus is on the deputy directors because they are: first and foremost, the "foot soldiers" who are responsible for the implementation of policies and programs in the Department of Agriculture and secondly, they are "directors-in-waiting" that means they are tomorrow's directors. What leadership behaviour would they bring when they become directors? The major question to be investigated by this study revolves around issues of relationships between deputy directors and their subordinates so as to ascertain whether these relationships do affect employee morale which in turn is deemed to affect superior performance.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

After 1994, South Africa was engulfed by the euphoria of optimism. Free at last! Free at last! Became the national anthem sung by the previously disadvantaged groups. Old people who never had the opportunity to choose the government of their choice were now among millions of South Africans queuing to cast their votes. When the voting was over, the previously disenfranchised people were now joining public institutions in their thousands (Affirmative action and non-racialism cannot coexist in SA. 2009. Cape Times, 15 January:8). Some of them were recruited at very high positions and those who entered the institutions at lower levels began to feel that their comrades occupying high positions would soon consider their plight. The time for black empowerment had finally arrived and there was a talk of affirmative action where every "previously disadvantaged person" was supposed to benefit.

Suddenly, those comrades who were hired at higher positions began to barricade themselves in their ivory towers like "warthogs in their dens". To see them, one needed to make an appointment just as it was with the white bosses. Instead of transforming the public institutions for the benefit of all, they found themselves being transformed by the institutions. They began to use the same rules and

procedures they fought against, they quickly learnt how to use the master's language. The vast majority of comrades who began to question the practices of the elite were treated with hostility and contempt and in some cases disciplinary actions were instituted against some to the point of dismissal (The truth about African nationalism: black elites have sought to enrich themselves by exploiting the patriotism of their countrymen, and, in so doing, have damaged their countries, writes Moeletsi Mbeki. 2009. The Mercury, 14 August:8). Comrades who drank from the same bottle were now pronounced archenemies. The black man had now become a 'white man in a black man skin'. The Pan Africanist Congress Party's slogan for the 2005 general elections campaign of *masidle sonke* (let's eat together) was largely ignored. The vast majority of comrades, who were left out of the affirmative action loot, went back to their old strategy of destabilisation through industrial strike actions which up to this day are still a feature of the South African economy (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995:402; The only real leverage remains to strike. 2010. The Star, 6 August:2).

The preceding paragraphs paint a gloomy but credible picture of some of the events that have bedevilled public institutions in South Africa. Who is to blame? When black people were elevated to positions of management, no one taught them the norms of how to behave as leaders. They were thrown into the deep end and it was a situation of 'swim or sink'. No one took the time to orient them in the field of leadership and largely, they were left out to fend for themselves and some survived by the mercy of the Lord while some could not cope and ended up resigning or consulting mental institutions. Where attempt was made to mentor them, they became so egotistic that they felt it was insulting to get advice from the white people who were regarded as beneficiaries of the old order.

The fundamental factor behind the undertaking of the study is the apparent lack of a standardised leadership development instrument within the Department of Agriculture. Managers are thrown in the 'deep end' as it were, with the hope that whatever they learnt from where they came will be sufficient to carry them through the function of leadership. It is granted that managers have been sent to leadership workshops but that is too general to offer any *systematised leadership practices* which can be regarded as the DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid) for leadership behaviour. These workshops are normally attended at different venues with different facilitators who may not approach the subject of leadership in the same manner. Leadership is serious business and unless it is approached scientifically, with consistency in its application, the training results will always differ. In short, the study was motivated by the quest to apply a reliable leadership practices instrument so that in the end, all managers regardless of the levels can be subjected

to the same methodology. The primary objective of uniformity is to raise awareness to all managers at all levels that their function is similar and it needs consistency in its application. For example what top managers do when they are wearing the leadership cap should be the same behaviour at middle and lower management. This can only be achieved if an instrument that could contribute towards achieving this could be applied.

Kouzes and Posner (2003:3), in this regard, claim that they started researching on leadership since the early 1980s and that they deliberately focused on how ordinary people lead others in accomplishing extraordinary results. They avoided the obvious practice of focusing on famous people who make headline news. What they chose to do was to concentrate on the vast majority of ordinary leaders who get extraordinary things done in various institutions. The extensive research undertaken by Kouzes and Posner revealed five practices of exemplary leadership that successful leaders do when they are at their personal best. These five practices or pattern of behaviour were identified as:

- Successful leaders **model the way**
- Successful leaders **inspire a shared vision**
- Successful leaders **challenge the process**
- Successful leaders **enable others to act**
- Successful leaders **encourage the heart to endure**

After identifying those five practices of exemplary leadership that successful leaders do, Kouzes and Posner needed an instrument to test whether these five practices were a valid view of the world of leadership behaviour in general. Also, Kouzes and Posner wanted an instrument to assist those leaders who want to improve their leadership practices/behaviour and as a result, the **Leadership Practices Inventory**[©] was created.

The LPI has a series of behavioural statements that describe actions that a leader would take when engaged in each of the ***Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership***[©]. These behavioural statements are arranged in a ten-point Likert scale and for each statement, participants are asked to rate the leader in terms of how frequently does he or she engage in that specific practice. A higher value represents frequent engagement and a lower value indicates less or no engagement at all. The Department of Agriculture as *locus* for the study will benefit in the

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sense that the recommendations that will be made will contribute towards effective leadership within the Department. Effective leadership is a critical driver of employee morale, and the derived utility of the study is that it could contribute to high employee productivity as a result of effective leadership and in addition, it is hoped that the process will lead to the adoption of the Leadership Practices Inventory[©] as a standard management tool for the development of leaders within the Department regardless of their rank so that all managers *can speak with one voice* when it comes to issues of leadership.

Another factor that has militated for the study to be embarked upon is the fact that the agricultural sector has been declining since 1994 (Department of Agriculture, 2004:12). In 1965, agriculture used to contribute about 10% of gross domestic product (GDP) but since then up to 2002, it had declined to a mere 3% of the GDP (Department of Agriculture, 2004:12; Du Toit, 2002:11; Centre for Development Enterprise, 2005:10). It is true that some of the factors that led to the decline are exogenous in nature, such as the effects of globalisation and the democratisation process that took effect since 1994, it is equally true that managerial leadership could have contributed significantly to this worsening situation because managers play a crucial role in the design and implementation of objectives and the subsequent marshalling of employees to carry out those objectives, and if they are not properly equipped to carry out this function, the result is regression in terms of institutional performance.

From the preceding paragraphs, it is apparent that the motivation for the study was driven by mainly two factors namely inability to inculcate a culture of leadership practices that empower direct reports through the use of a leadership instrument within the Department of Agriculture and the declining economic contribution of the agricultural sector in the economic prosperity of South Africa that may come about as a result of poor implementation of objectives.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

There are four constituencies that stand to benefit from the study. Firstly, the Department of Agriculture as *locus* for the study will benefit in the sense that the recommendations that will be made will contribute towards effective leadership within the Department. Effective leadership is a critical driver of employee morale. Therefore, the derived utility of the study is that it could contribute to high employee productivity as a result of effective leadership and in addition, it is hoped

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that the process will lead to the adoption of the Leadership Practices Inventory[©] as a standard tool for the development of managers within the Department regardless of their rank so that all managers can speak with one voice when it comes to issues of leadership.

Secondly, the study will add value to scientific knowledge in the sense that whatever grain of truth is discovered, will be made known so that any public institution that is facing similar challenges, can learn how to deal with those challenges. In this regard, empirical investigations that are critical in the adoption of theory into practice will contribute in this study to test the theory of leadership as postulated by Kouzes and Posner through the development of the LPI instrument.

Thirdly, the researcher stands to benefit from the experience that will be accumulated throughout the process, and this experience may become useful in doing consulting work which in turn can contribute to effective leadership development in various institutions.

Fourthly, as indicated earlier, leadership is mentioned in chapter ten of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. Section 195(1h) states clearly what managers need to do for their people and that is, to foster the spirit of good management of human capital and also, they must nurture the careers of their employees. The significance of the Constitution in the management of public institutions cannot be overemphasised. Any manager of a public institution who is not *au fait* (conversant) with the contents of the Constitution is guilty of gross negligence. The Constitution is the supreme law of the Republic of South Africa and whatever it says must be done, otherwise, the rights of the people will be flagrantly violated. South Africa is a young democracy. Institutions cannot be run as if they were “*spaza shops*” (informal grocery shops operating in townships and informal settlements). The significance of the study in this regard is that it will raise awareness on issues of leadership which in turn, those issues will assist managers to act in accordance with the dictates of the Constitution.

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to investigate the nature of the leadership behaviour of middle management (deputy directors) in the Department of Agriculture and to establish how these behaviours affect employee morale. Employee morale is the

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indicator of employee performance. Low morale is associated with low productivity and high morale is usually associated with high productivity (Cayer and Weschler, 2003:117; Pettinger, 2007:241). But to achieve best performance, employees need empowering leadership. "When something is wrong with my babe, something is wrong with me" are lyrics of a song that was popular in the 1970s (author unknown). This means that if employees behave in a toxic manner, something may be wrong with their leader (Vardi and Weitz, 2004:70). It is true that one can evaluate the nature of leadership of any institution by observing the behaviour of the employees (Cayer and Weschler, 2003:119; Pettinger, 2007:81). Friendly and helpful employees depict warm and empowering leadership and cold, angry employees depict brutal leadership (Northouse, 2001:7; Barling and Cooper, 2008:3; Pettinger, 2007:79-80).

When one is ill, one would most probably consult a medical doctor or a traditional healer who will conduct diagnostic tests for the purpose of establishing the nature of one's illness. But the doctor or traditional healer will not stop just because the illness has been diagnosed, instead, the good doctor or traditional healer will prescribe certain remedies that need to be administered. The same goes for this study. The researcher hopes to make a diagnosis of the nature of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture and thereafter offer recommendations that will act as prescriptive remedies towards the enhancement of high morale for the purpose of achieving institutional effectiveness in the Department of Agriculture.

1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The primary objective of this study is to investigate the nature of the leadership behaviour of middle managers (deputy directors) of the Department of Agriculture and to discover how those leadership behaviour affect employee morale. Leedy (1989:45) claims that the identification of the *problem* is central to any study. He goes on to state that "At the very heart of every research project is the problem. It is paramount in importance to the success of the research effort, and it should be so considered by every researcher. The situation is quite simple: no problem, no research. To see the problem with unwavering clarity and to be able to state it in precise and unmistakable terms is the first requirement in the research process". But what is the meaning of the term, *problem*? The term "problem" is defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. "problem") as; "a question to be answered or solved, especially by reasoning or calculating". From this definition, one is able to identify two *elements* of any problem. First, a problem must have a *question* that needs

resolution. Second, in order to solve a problem, *reasoning or calculation* must be applied.

As a result of the challenges provided under background and rationale above, the central problem of this study can now be formulated in this way:

What is the nature of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture, and, how do these leadership behaviour affect employee morale?

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to manage the research project, it is imperative that the main problem be broken down into a number of logically related questions whose main aim is to contribute to the resolution of the main problem (Leedy, 1989:54; O'Sullivan, Rassel and Berner, 2008:2-6). Leedy seems to suggest the use of the system theory. This theory is based on the premise that *the sum of the individual parts equals the whole*. This means that in order for a system to carry out its function properly, its components must function in a coherent manner otherwise if they don't function as such; the system will not perform optimally (Roth, 2000:158-160; O'Sullivan *et al.* 2008:3). A number of questions will be posited under this section for the sole purpose of managing the study effort effectively. All these questions are integral part of the main problem and they are constructed in the following manner:

- To what extent do deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture act as role models for their subordinates?
- To what extent do deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture share their vision with their subordinates?
- To what extent do deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture challenge the institutional systems and processes in order to effect change?
- To what extent do deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture delegate power to their subordinates?
- To what extent do deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable challenges?
- How does the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture affect employee morale?

1.8 HYPOTHESIS

If the problem is the centre of any research endeavour, the hypothesis must be the beacon that points towards the resolution of the problem. The main role of a hypothesis in research is to guide the research effort by providing an untested answer to the problem that gave rise to the study (Leedy, 1989:60; O'Sullivan *et al.* 2008:15; Schwab, 199:18; Goodwin, 2007:92; Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2006:53). The thinking of the researcher is then directed by the hypothesis so that the data to be collected will be packaged towards confirming or rejecting the hypothesis (Leedy, 1989:60; 2005; McNeill and Chapman, 2005:31; Dooley, 1995:67; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister, 1994:17-18). According to Leedy (1989:60), a hypothesis is not an answer that needs to be proven or disproved, rather, it is a tentative proposition provided as a possible explanation as to why the problem exists. For example, if one happens to have a car that is not turning on when one inserts the key to the ignition, one may put forward the hypothesis that the car is not turning on because the battery is flat and because the battery is flat, there is no electric current to be supplied to the starter. One will accept or reject the hypothesis that the battery is flat when the battery has been examined. If the examination of the battery indeed confirms that it is flat, the hypothesis will be accepted, but if the examination indicated that the battery has power, then the hypothesis would be rejected. The importance of this example is that in order to direct energy towards the resolution of the problem as stated by the researcher, a tentative answer in the form of a hypothesis is necessary otherwise the research effort will lose focus, that is, it will have no direction.

Leedy (1989:60) states that just as the main problem can be subdivided into a number of related problems, the hypothesis can also be subdivided into a number of sub-hypotheses that are posited in line with the sub-problems. This means that each sub-problem should have its sub-hypothesis so that if one attacks each sub-problem sequentially, one will arrive at the resolution of the main problem. The main hypothesis for this study is posited as follows:

The leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates.

The hypothesis can also be presented graphically in this manner:

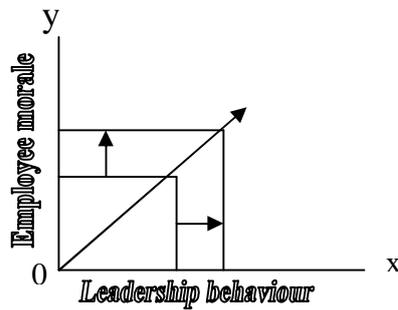


Figure 1.1: Graphical representation of the hypothesis (Source: own)

Lipsey says that Science is based on studying how variables are related to each other (Lipsey, 1989:28; Gravetter and Forzano, 2006:18). The hypothesis for this study has two variables; the independent variable which will be plotted along the x axis that is made up of all the patterns of leadership behaviour as identified in the Kouzes/Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory[®] Model. This is the variable that will be studied and manipulated with the aim of establishing how it will impact on the second variable that will be plotted along the y axis. This variable is called the dependant variable. In other words, it reacts to changes in the independent variable. The dependant variable for this Study is employee morale and its changes will be observed as being the work of the independent variable, that is, it is expected to be affected by changes in the independent variable (leadership behaviour).

The relationship between the independent and dependent variables can either be positive or negative (Lipsey, 1989:29; Henn *et al.* 2006:208-10). The relationship between the two variables is said to be positively related when an increase in x causes a corresponding increase in y and the variables are understood to be negatively related where a decrease in x results in the increase of y or where an increase in x results in a decrease of y. For this Study, the variables are expected to be positively related. This is informed by the premise that says that if there were good leadership behaviour, one would expect employee morale to be high (Lussier and Achua, 2004:4). Morale is understood to be the function of leadership behaviour and it can be stated mathematically as, $EM=f(LB)$. This equation states that employee morale (EM) is a function of leadership behaviour (LB) (Lipsey, 1989:29; Henn *et al.* 2006:208-210). This assumption is central to this study because it justifies the carrying out of the investigation and without it, there would be no justification in undertaking the study. Another critical assumption to be stated at this point is that the dependant variable could be influenced by a number

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of other variables such as institutional culture, sudden changes in the objectives of the institution, inadequate funding to carry out the mandate of the unit, remuneration issues, and type of work performed. This implies that leadership may not be the only cause of high or low morale as stated by the hypothesis (Weisberg and Bowen, 1977:9; Goodwin, 2007:27; Gravetter and Wallnau, 2007:10-11). But it is important to note that in order to study a particular phenomenon, the other phenomena that may affect the outcome equally if not more must be assumed to be constant or *ceteris paribus* (remaining unchanged), otherwise the study would have to cater for all possible causes and that may render the study cumbersome with no particular direction (Gomm, 2004:3).

The hypothesis is divided into sub-hypotheses in line with the sub-problems that are stated above. Hypotheses can be posited either in the positive or in the negative (Auriacombe, 2001:48). The hypotheses mentioned below are stated in the negative with the hope that the data to be collected will either confirm or reject them. These sub-hypotheses are posited as follows:

- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not act as models for their subordinates.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not share their vision with their subordinates.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not challenge the institutional systems and processes in order to effect change.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not delegate powers to their subordinates.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable challenges.
- Leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture have led to low employee morale

The hypothesis and its attended sub-hypotheses shall be evaluated based on the criterion that is indicated in chapter 7 (see section 7.4) where in terms of percentage analysis of the data, a factor shall be regarded as leadership behaviour strength (rejection of hypothesis) where the percentage is at least 65% or more (65% and above shall be regarded as being closer to 70% and 64% or less shall be regarded as being closer to 60%). For example where the six elements of a factor are added and then expressed in terms of percentage such as $37 \times 100 / 60 = 62\%$. This would mean that in terms of the group of participants providing these scores, deputy directors would have a leadership behaviour weakness because the

percentage of that factor would be less than 65% and this would mean that the hypothesis or any of its attended sub-hypotheses would be confirmed (main hypothesis and sub-hypotheses are expressed in the negative). The reader is constantly reminded that these parameters are set by the items found in the ten point Likert scale (see section 6.3 of chapter 6) where it was decided that for the purpose of this study, scores from 7 to 10 would be regarded as being leadership behaviour strength (main hypothesis and sub-hypotheses would be rejected where percentage score is from 65% and above).

1.9 FOCUS AND FRAME OF REFERENCE

Weisberg and Bowen (1977:8) state that all scientific research should include a statement that indicates the objectives of the study. This is done for the purpose of keeping the study in focus so that the entire endeavour is directed at achieving the objectives as stated (Goodwin 2007:26-27). According to Auriacombe (2001:70) the researcher should state clearly what would be achieved by undertaking the study because this would provide focus or direction along which the entire study should be conducted.

If the main aim of the study is to test a particular proposition (hypothesis), such proposition should be stated clearly and also, the statement of objectives should indicate clearly how the proposition would be tested. In other words, once the hypothesis has been formulated, it becomes necessary to indicate the kind of data to be gathered and how those data would be collected, analysed, and interpreted so that proposals (recommendations) could be made (Weisenberg and Bowen, 1977:8; Gravetter and Forzano, 2006:164).

The primary focus as well as the main aim of this study is to test the hypothesis (proposition) as postulated under section 1.8 above, namely;

The leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates.

In order to achieve the main aim of testing the hypothesis, certain objectives must be carried out and for this study the following objectives will have to be achieved in the process of achieving the main aim and these are:

- To provide a conceptual analysis of the leadership theory as well as the morale theory.

- To study the internal organization of the Department of Agriculture since it is the *locus* of the study.
- To analyse the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model for the purpose of designing the questionnaire through which the required data will be collected.
- To determine empirically the nature of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture.
- To determine empirically whether the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has any negative impact on the morale of their subordinates.
- To make recommendations and conclusions that could guide the training of all managers (top, middle, lower) in issues of leadership within the Department of Agriculture as well as in other public institutions as required by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996.

1.10 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

According to Leedy (1989:58) the demarcation of a study is done for the purpose of clarifying those issues that will not be investigated although they may be of particular utility to the study. The statement of the problem states precisely what would be investigated and any exclusion thereof must be stated in the section that deals with demarcation. In other words, demarcation of a study is a process where the researcher sets *boundaries* under which the study will be carried out.

Accordingly, this study has its own boundaries that are set for the purpose of focussing attention to the problem as stated above. These boundaries are stated below as follows:

The agricultural sector in South Africa is supported by public institutions known as national as well as provincial departments of agriculture. The national department of agriculture is called the Department of Agriculture and there are nine provincial departments of agriculture and since the Republic of South Africa consists of nine provinces, each province has its own provincial department of agriculture. The Department of Agriculture is responsible for national agricultural issues whereas the nine provincial departments of agriculture are responsible for provincial matters respectively. It is often claimed that the Department of Agriculture is responsible for *policies*, norms and *standards* for agriculture and the provincial departments of agriculture are responsible for *implementing* those policies, norms and standards as formulated by the Department of Agriculture. These departments

are part of the public service of the Republic of South Africa. Public service institutions are those institutions that are responsible for the implementation of government policies (Unisa, 1991:131)

The Department of Agriculture is the *locus* of the study. This means that the study will be conducted only within the Department of Agriculture and it will not be directed at any of the provincial departments of agriculture even if it is obvious that they may have similar problems as a result of intergovernmental relations. Also, the quasi-government institutions that are attached to the Department of Agriculture such as the National Agricultural Marketing Council (NAMC), and the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) will be excluded from the study.

It was stated under background and rationale of the study that the management of any institution is categorised into three layers, that is, top management, middle management and lower management. The *focus* of the study is middle management known as deputy directors. They are the ones whose leadership behaviour will be investigated. This means that the study will not investigate leadership behaviour of top and lower management although they will also be expected to provide information insofar as deputy directors are concerned for the sake of achieving a 360 degree investigation (balanced opinions).

One of the objectives of the study is to assist deputy directors to improve their leadership behaviour so that employee morale can be high. The advantage of high employee morale is high productivity. In other words, employees become productive when their morale is high. Although productivity is the ultimate objective, it will not be measured by this Study.

This study is about Public Administration which studies the phenomenon of public service (government institutions) (Unisa, 1991:113). Under background and rationale above, the researcher made mention of the fact that institutions are primarily driven by people and it sometimes becomes necessary to investigate the relationships among institutional members for the purpose of ascertaining how these relationships affect institutional performance. The study is focusing on leadership in the public service and leadership is part of public management which is a study of how the management echelon conducts its business within public institutions. Since leadership is part of public management, it must invariably be part of Public Administration Science, the study of public service (Unisa, 1991:113). In other words, in terms of demarcation of the study for academic purposes under Public Administration, leadership is the area under which the study will be conducted.

1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

It is stated by Leedy that "the researcher soon learns that the nature of the data dictates the research methodology that must be employed in the processing of those data" (Leedy, 1989:140). Leedy seems to suggest that data for research purpose can be collected in many ways depending on the phenomenon being studied. Different instruments are then employed to suite the data to be collected. For example, a researcher carrying out an investigation in the effects of carbon gas on the ozone layer will make use of an appropriate instrument and a social scientist studying the role of public institutions in public service delivery will apply yet another instrument that is suitable for that purpose.

This section describes how the data pertinent to the study will be collected and processed. The *descriptive survey* method which is sometimes called *normative survey* method will be employed. Under this method, the researcher makes observations of the phenomenon being studied and thereafter, records the behaviour of the data being studied with the intention of interpreting the results and then make recommendations based on the interpretation of those data. The underlying assumption of the survey method is that the data collected under this method will always behave in a particular fashion. In other words, the data is expected to follow a particular norm or standard so that any researcher, who wishes to conduct the study in similar fashion, should arrive at the same conclusion (Leedy, 1989:140; O'Sullivan *et al.* 2008:25-27). This assumption is critical for this study as it is expected that the results should predict conditions that are similar in all the public institutions. By studying one public institution, a norm would be established that will set the scene for leadership development in the public sector as a whole.

In order to arrive at a scientific resolution of the problem as set out under problem statement above, the research will be conducted in two phases. Phase one will be dedicated to the literature study and the purpose of the literature study is to provide valuable information regarding other studies that have been conducted in the field of leadership development (Goodwin, 2007:106-110). Leedy (1989:66) postulates that there are seven reasons why a literature review exercise should be undertaken and these are as follows:

- By undertaking a literature review, the researcher is able to ascertain those studies that are similar to his or her own study and also, it can help by indicating how other researchers handled issues during their own investigations.

- Literature review can assist in suggesting a manner in which a particular problem should be tackled.
- The review of related literature can reveal other sources of data which the research was not aware of.
- Literature review can also assist the researcher to discover critical research gurus that may not have been known by the researcher.
- Literature review can also help the researcher to view his own work in a historical perspective and in relation to earlier and more primitive disposition of the same problem.
- The researcher can be provided with new ideas and approaches for which he or she would not have been aware.
- Lastly, the literature review can assist the researcher to evaluate his or her own work by comparing it with related works of other researchers in the field.

Phase two of the research method to be employed consists of a structured questionnaire whose role will be to collect empirical data pertinent to the resolution of the problem as defined above under problem statement.

1.11.1 Literature study

The main purpose of the literature study is to acquire a fundamental postulation of the theory of leadership behaviour for the primary objective of establishing a theoretical model which will serve as a guideline for the collection of empirical data. The literature study will give rise to the data known as secondary data and the following sources will be consulted:

- Publications and policy documents of the Department of Agriculture.
- Publications and policy documents from Government Printers.
- Relevant books, unpublished theses and dissertations, relevant journal articles and other publications such as study guides.
- Newspapers and audio-video material.
- Web-based relevant information.

1.11.2 Questionnaire survey

The purpose of using a questionnaire as a tool for data collection is to conduct phase two of the research methodology. Phase two looks at primary data sometimes known as empirical data for the purpose of resolving the problem that

was stated under problem statement above. In other words, this section will help the researcher to collect relevant data that will become evidence that either supports or rejects the hypothesis that was postulated above. The hypothesis looked at causal relationship between leadership behaviour and employee morale and the role of the structured questionnaire is to try to bring home the empirical evidence to support the notion of a causal relationship between these variables.

The questionnaire for this study will be based on the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Model. Permission to use the LPI was granted by the authors (see appendix b on page 426).

1.11.2.1 Design and Development of the LPI Questionnaire

Kouzes and Posner (2003:3) claim that they started researching on leadership since the early 1980s, by focussing deliberately on how ordinary people lead others in accomplishing extraordinary results. They avoided the obvious practice of focusing on famous people who make headline news. What they chose to do was to concentrate on the vast majority of ordinary leaders who get extraordinary things done in various institutions. The extensive research undertaken by Kouzes and Posner revealed five practices that successful leaders do when they are at their personal best. These five practices or patterns of behaviour were identified as the following:

- Successful leaders **model the way**
- Successful leaders **inspire a shared vision**
- Successful leaders **challenge the process**
- Successful leaders **enable others to act**
- Successful leaders **encourage the heart to endure**

After identifying those five practices that successful leaders do, Kouzes and Posner needed an instrument to test whether these five practices were a valid view of the world of leadership. Also, Kouzes and Posner wanted an instrument with which to assist those leaders who wanted to improve their leadership practices and as a result, the LPI was created.

The LPI has a series of behavioural statements that describe actions that a leader would take when engaged in each of the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership*[©]. These behavioural statements are arranged in a ten-point Likert scale and for each

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statement, participants are asked to rate the leader in terms of how frequently does he or she engage in that specific practice. A higher value represents frequent engagement and a lower value indicates less or no engagement at all.

1.11.2.2 Psychometric Properties of the LPI

Kouzes and Posner (2003:16) contend that the LPI has been extensively used in many institutional settings and that it is highly regarded both in the academic and professional environments. The LPI has been used so far, by over 250 000 leaders and over a million observers.

Validation studies that were conducted by Kouzes and Posner and others over a period of fifteen years consistently confirmed that the LPI has a strong reliability and validity. It is further asserted by Kouzes and Posner that the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership*[®] Model is a stable and accurate description of what leaders do to get extraordinary things done in organizations.

The LPI has been used in more than two hundred academic studies as a research tool. The acceptance of the LPI by the academic community is further proof that it does meet the requirements of a research tool (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:16).

1.12 REFERENCE TECHNIQUE

For source reference, this study will employ the Harvard Method. According to Burger (1992:27) the Harvard Method requires that the name of the author and the year in which the material was published as well as the page number from where the material was extracted, should be indicated in the text and then a list of sources which is to be arranged alphabetically should be provided in the last chapter of the work being produced.

Burger (1992:27) also makes mention of the fact that there are three types of reference that a writer may require. The first one is when it is necessary to refer to other sources from which data or information was gathered and this is called source reference. The main purpose of a source reference is to identify the source from which data or information was retrieved so as to avoid plagiarism which is the act of stealing other peoples' works and then claim them as if it were one's original work. Another aim of a source reference is to indicate the source of the

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data or information in a manner that is accurate so that the reader can verify the source by physically consulting it.

The second scenario happens when the writer has to refer to sections of his or her own text and this is called 'cross-reference'. The third scenario happens when the writer may be expected to provide additional explanations or discussions to augment his or her own writings and this is called 'content reference'.

Burger (1992:66) suggests that the list of sources consulted to support arguments within a study, should be provided with a heading that indicates whether the list include all sources consulted even if they are not cited in the study. The following example does amplify the point:

- Sources consulted heading implies that the writer will list all the sources he or she consulted even if some of those sources were not cited or used in the study.
- Sources cited or references heading implies that only the cited or used material by means of specific references in the text will constitute the list of sources for the study. This is the method that will be adopted in this study where only the cited material will be listed in the final list of sources.

1.13 TERMINOLOGY

In this thesis, certain concepts are crucial and have been used quite often so much so that it is necessary to elucidate them albeit in brief. The following are such concepts:

1.13.1 Department of Agriculture

The Department of Agriculture is a national public institution whose role is to support agricultural development in South Africa by setting norms and standards for the sector. The Department is currently organised into five levels: moving from the base of the pyramid, there are a number of *directorates* who form the base of the pyramid and those directorates are the functional units who are responsible for the implementation of the mission of the Department, next in line are the chief-directorates who are formed by combining a number of directorates, *branches* who are formed by combining a number of chief *directorates* constitute the next level of the pyramid and at the top of the pyramid is the *office of the director-general*. In terms of the management strata, these levels constitute the *top management echelon* of the Department. The *Office of the Minister* provides

political direction and is located above the Office of the Director-General (Department of Agriculture, 2008:20).

Directorates are those units who are responsible for the implementation of policies and strategies. Directorates are headed by directors and chief directorates are headed by chief-directors and branches are headed by deputy directors-general. The organisation of the Department of Agriculture is depicted graphically in figure 1.2.

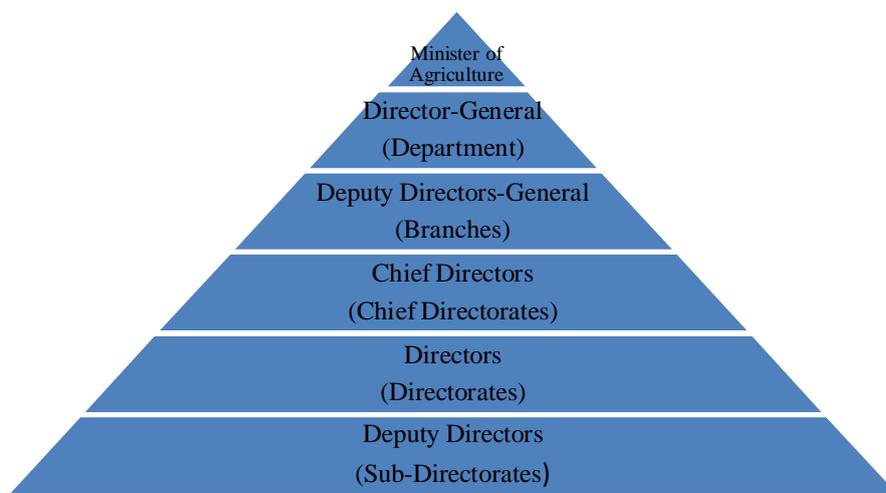


Figure 1.2: Organisation of the Department of Agriculture (Source: Department of Agriculture, 2009:20)

1.13.2 Deputy directors

Deputy directors constitute the *middle management echelon* of the Department and operate below directors. Deputy directors are at the forefront of policy or strategy implementation within their respective directorates (Department of Agriculture, 2008:18).

1.13.3 Directors

Directors are heads of directorates and are responsible for the implementation of policies and strategies of the Department (Department of Agriculture, 2008:18).

1.13.4 Directorates

Directorates are those units or functions that are headed by directors. These units are stratified according to the mandates/functions given to directors to implement.

1.13.5 Behaviour

In this study, behaviour is used to indicate certain actions or pattern of practices that are carried out by supervisors when they perform the leadership function. This refers to the things that leaders (in this case deputy directors) do in order to influence the conduct of their subordinates/direct reports towards a stated outcome (Northouse, 2001:2).

1.13.6 Leadership

Since this study is about managerial leadership, the leadership concept will be defined using the management approach. This approach defines leadership as a *process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal* (Northouse, 2001:3; Daft, 1997:494; Pettinger, 2007:459-460). Smit and Cronje (1992:333), defines leadership as *the activity that infuses energy into the enterprise to activate its members and resources to get things moving and keep them in motion*. Tyson (2006:31) defines leadership in a very simple but most effective manner by saying that *if management is defined as a process of making the most effective use of available human and material resources for the achievement of specified goals, then leadership may be described as the component of management that is most concerned with the use of human resources*.

1.13.7 Leadership behaviour

Leadership behaviour refers to the actions or pattern of behaviour that a manager takes when interacting with direct reports in order to get things done in the area of his or her responsibilities in an institutional setting (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:13).

1.13.8 Public managerial leadership

Leadership is a universal human practice that takes place anywhere so as to achieve a particular objective such as the military, politics, religion, business and public service delivery. In this study, public managerial leadership is defined as that part of management function that looks at the relationship between a manager and his or her subordinates within public institutions. The source of authority of public managerial leadership is the management position itself (Northouse, 2001:8; Perry, 2010:94-96), that is, as soon as one occupies a position as manager, one is likely to be given the authority to direct and coordinate the activities of those that

are attached to the unit who are usually known as subordinates or employees of the manager:

1.13.9 Management function

Management is a function that is performed by a group of individuals in an institution known as managers and whose primary role is to assist the institution to reach its objectives by performing the following tasks (Dale, 1978:4; Daft, 1997:8-12; Everard and Burrow, 1996:595-596):

- Planning
- Organizing
- Staffing
- Policy-making
- Leading
- Financing and
- Controlling

1.13.10 Morale

Morale is defined by the Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English (Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003 s.v. 'morale') as *"the level of confidence and positive feelings that people have, especially people who work together, who belong to the same team"*

1.13.11 Subordinates/employees

For the purpose of this study, subordinates or employees (direct reports) shall constitute all those officials who are supervised by deputy directors. That is, all the officials who serve under the direct command of deputy directors.

1.14 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

This section presents the framework of the study and the framework is classified into chapters that are logically arranged. Each chapter will deal with a particular aspect of the study and the sum of all the chapters will form the main report of the study. The study is classified into the following related chapters:

- Chapter 1 serves as an orientation and background to the study. It begins by discussing the background and rationale for the study. It then proceeds to present the motivation for the Study which is followed by the significance of the study. This is followed by a discussion of the purpose of the study. The problem that led to the embarkation of the study is then posited and from this, research questions are formulated. The hypothesis which will act as a beacon for the study is postulated and it is followed by a discussion on the objectives that have to be achieved for the purpose of keeping the study in focus. The demarcation of the study is presented next and its purpose is to set boundaries within which the investigation is to take place. The next point that is discussed is the research methodology that was chosen for data collection and this is followed by the reference technique that will be used when referring to consulted sources. Terms that are used in the study are then defined so that the reader has the same meaning. The chapter also discusses the manner in which the study is classified. Chapters that are logically arranged become the final report of the study and last but not least, the chapter concludes by presenting a summary of salient points that were discussed under the above-mentioned sections of this chapter.
- Chapter 2 begins by discussing two very important concepts that are central to the study of leadership in general. The first concept to be discussed is the *universality of leadership* and this will be followed by the second one which deals with the *nature of leadership*. After discussing the universality of leadership and the nature of leadership concepts, the chapter proceeds by providing a working definition of the leadership concept and this is followed by a discussion of the various approaches to the study of leadership theory. The approaches to the study of leadership that are discussed in this chapter include the following: the trait or personal characteristics approach, the behaviour approach, the power approach, the transformational leadership approach, and the contingency approach which consists of the following models: Fiedler's contingency model, leadership continuum model, path-goal model and the normative decision model. The chapter concludes by providing a summary of the major discussions that would be provided under the leadership approaches mentioned above.
- The first objective of chapter 3 is to provide a conceptual definition of the morale theory by presenting three models of morale such as the Lawrence Model, The Porter, Lawler and Hackman Model, and the Schwartz Model. This will be followed by a discussion of the differences between morale and three other related concepts which are *job satisfaction*, *esprit de corps*, and

motivation. The second objective is to explain how the morale phenomenon can affect institutional performance. In other words, this section will table those benefits that may accrue to an institution as a result of high morale being fostered by the leadership of that institution. Morale *per se* is not the ultimate prize that an institution can wish for. The ultimate objective is how morale can act as a *catalyst* for institutional *superior* performance and superior performance means that institutional goals will be implemented or realised effectively and efficiently. And last but not least, the chapter will end by providing concluding remarks of salient points that would have emerged during discussions of the concepts presented in this chapter.

- A discussion of the Kouzes/Posner leadership behaviour model as morale indicator will be provided in chapter 4 and the model will form the cornerstone for this study because of the fact that the questionnaire for data collection will be constructed based on it. The chapter begins by providing introductory comments and it proceeds by giving reasons for the adoption of the Kouzes/Posner Model for the study. An in-depth discussion of the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model is then provided where the Model will be divided into five factors as follows: leaders model the way, leaders inspire a shared vision, leaders challenge the institutional processes, leaders enable others to act, and leaders encourage others to endure. Each factor consists of behavioural statements/elements that are designed to empower leaders in their quest to improve their leadership skills. The chapter ends by providing a summary of the salient point that would have been discussed in this chapter.
- The purpose of chapter 5 is to provide a description of the *locus* of the study (Department of Agriculture) so that the reader would be able to comprehend the environment under which the entire research endeavour is going to be carried out so that when challenges and recommendations are provided in chapter 8, the reader should be able to understand the environment that has contributed to those challenges. In other words, the nature of the *õbeastö* is now being analysed so that issues raised in the *focus* dimension could be understood better, that is, the focus of the study needs to be put into context which is basically an attempt to provide the environment under which the research is being conducted. The chapter explains the vision of the Department and this is followed by a brief exposition of the mission of the Department. The values of the Department are also presented here. The chapter proceeds by discussing the organisation of the Department and the purpose is to identify the mandate of each directorate so that the products or

deliverables of the Department can be identified. Finally, the chapter also concludes by offering concluding remarks of salient points as discussed in this chapter.

- The purpose of chapter 6 is to explain the method that will be employed in the gathering of the empirical data that is needed in order to answer the questions that were posited in chapter 1 (see section 1.7). This chapter will begin by explaining the research process in general so that the reader can be in a position to follow the various stages that were employed in this study. The next section to be discussed in this chapter is the questionnaire as it was chosen as the data collection instrument for this study and this will be followed by a discussion on the challenges associated with the questionnaire instrument such as reliability and validity issues. The chapter proceeds by discussing ethical issues associated with doing research in the social sciences and it also explains how those ethical issues would be handled by the researcher in the gathering of the empirical data that are specific to this study. Last but not least, the chapter will conclude by providing a summary of the salient points that would have been discussed in the various sections of the chapter.
- The purpose of chapter 7 is to present, analyse and discuss the empirical data that was collected from participants using the LPI questionnaire. The chapter will begin by discussing the challenges that were encountered during the data collection stage. The chapter will proceed by discussing the nature of the collected data so that the reader would be assisted in understanding how the data was packaged and this will be presented in a tabular form where factors/practices and their elements/behaviour would be packaged accordingly. After the analysis of the elements, the chapter will present and analyse the data according to total scores per factor as indicated in the table depicted under nature of collected data. The next point to be discussed would be the percentile ranking of the factors against the established LPI international norm. The percentile ranking will provide a stratification of the data per category of participants (deputy directors, directors and subordinates) according to all five factors. Finally, the data would be evaluated against the main hypothesis and also against the sub-hypotheses that were proposed in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) for the purpose of establishing whether the data do support these hypotheses or not.
- The purpose of chapter 8 is to provide conclusions in respect of the empirical data analysis that was done in chapter 7 and this shall be done in

conjunction with the theoretical insight (how things ought to be) that was discovered from chapter 2 to chapter 5. The chapter will also provide a discussion on the value or utility of the study to various constituents as was promised in chapter 1 (see section 1.4) and this will be discussed under implications of the study. Implications shall be presented within the following sections: implications in respect of the leadership theory itself, implications in terms of public policy and practice, and implications in terms of public sector managers who are given the responsibility of providing leadership to their employees. In order to deal with the issues that were identified during the survey, recommendations (foresights) will be provided in this chapter as tentative solutions to those challenges. The chapter will also provide suggestions regarding further research that needs to be undertaken in order to answer some of the burning questions that were not adequately covered in this study. Finally, the chapter will close by providing concluding remarks of salient points that would have been presented in this chapter.

1.15 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter is to provide the reader with a framework on which the entire study is based. It began by providing the reader with the background and rationale for embarking on the study. The forces that motivated the researcher to conduct the study were also postulated and this was followed by a discussion on the significance of the study to the Department of Agriculture, to the researcher and also to the academic community. The purpose to be achieved by undertaking the study was also discussed and this was done in order to emphasise what the study aims to achieve once completed.

At the centre of the study is the problem that is to be solved by conducting the study. The problem was duly posited and it was further delineated into smaller problems whose objectives are to resolve specific sections of the main problem. It was critical to state the hypothesis that would act as a beacon for the collection of data and the hypothesis was also delineated into smaller hypotheses that aimed to provide prima facie answers to the sub-problems that were constructed from the main problem. This was followed by a discussion of the objectives to be achieved by the study and this was provided so that the study could be kept in focus.

The chapter also provided a discussion on the demarcation of the study so that the reader should know upfront what the study will not undertake. This was followed by a discussion on the research methodology that would set the protocol on how

the entire research would be carried out. The chapter also made mention of the reference technique that will be followed when referring to data or information sourced out from other authors and this was followed by a section that defined terms that are used or will be used in this study so that the reader is of the same understanding with the researcher. Finally, the chapter elucidated the logical progression of chapters and also gave a short exposé of the contents of each chapter so that the reader can familiarise himself/herself with the issues that will be handled in each chapter.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF THE LEADERSHIP THEORY

”I rather have an army of rabbits led by a lion than have an army of lions led by a rabbit” Napoleon.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the conceptual analysis of the leadership theory and since this theory is at the centre of this study, the reader is provided with a brief background of the approaches that are presented by various writers in respect of the leadership theory. There is a saying in IsiZulu that says “*indlela ibuzwa kwabaphambili* (if one does not know the path to one’s destination, one should ask those who have travelled through). This chapter aims to review the writings of those who have travelled through the path of leadership theory so that the researcher would be made aware of the various concepts that have been postulated by those writers whose works will be reviewed and also to empower the researcher in terms of evaluating his own research efforts by comparing them with related efforts done by others (Leedy, 1989:66; Gilbert, 2006:3).

The chapter begins by discussing two very important concepts that are central to the study of leadership in general. The first concept to be discussed is the *universality of leadership* and this will be followed by the second one which deals with the *nature of leadership*. After discussing the universality of leadership and the nature of leadership concepts, the chapter proceeds by providing a working definition of the leadership concept and this is followed by a discussion of the various approaches to the study of leadership theory. The approaches to the study of leadership that are discussed in this chapter include the following: the trait or personal characteristics approach, the behaviour approach, the power approach, the transformational leadership approach, and the contingency approach which consists of the following models: Fiedler’s contingency model, leadership continuum model, path-goal model and the normative decision model. The chapter concludes by providing a summary of the major discussions that would be provided under the leadership approaches mentioned above.

2.2 UNIVERSALITY OF LEADERSHIP

Schwartz (1980:491) provides an interesting assertion when he says that “one of the most interesting observations of life is that all animals that live in groups have

leaders.ö Animals that live in groups such as lions, elephants, baboons and other primates, insects, dogs, fish, and birds have leaders (Schwartz, 1980:491). This affirms the argument that leadership is not a property of only humans but it is a universal phenomenon that extends far beyond the boundaries of human behaviour right into the domain of animals who live in groups. Animal groups such as lions need strong leaders who will be able to defend the group in case of a threat emanating from other challenging adversaries. Strong animal leaders are also necessary for the continued existence of the group by being the only ones to mate with female members so that their strong genes could be passed on to their offsprings.

2.2.1 Animal origins

Allee (in Vecchio, 2007:5) claims that the function of leadership predates humans and he also maintains that all vertebrates that are organised into groups tend to exhibit social organisation and conspicuous leadership. High ranking males have first access to food and mating rights. And in most cases, they are the ones who must provide protection of the group where danger seems to be looming.

2.2.2 Pecking order

Pecking order or just peck order is a hierarchical system of social organization in animals. It defines the *relationship* between members of a group. This concept was first described from the behaviour of poultry by Thorleif Schjelderup-Ebb in 1921 under the German terms *Hackordnung* or *Hackliste* and was introduced into the English language in 1925 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/pecking_order). Subsequent studies were conducted by English researchers such as Murchison in 1935 and Douglass in 1948 (Vecchio, 2007:5). The original usage of "peck order" referred to expression of dominance of birds. Dominance in chickens is expressed in various behaviours including *pecking* which was used by Schjelderup-Ebbe as a measure of dominance. In his 1922 German-language article Schjelderup-Ebb observed that *defence and aggression in the hen is accomplished with the beak* (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/pecking_order).

This emphasis on pecking led most subsequent studies on fowl behaviour to use it as a primary observation. However, it was also noted that roosters tended to leap and use their feet in conflicts. The term *dominance hierarchy* is more often used for this phenomenon in other animals (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/pecking_order).

It is a basic concept in *social stratification* and *social hierarchy* that has its counterpart in other animal species as well, including humans. Still, the term "pecking order" is often used synonymously as well, because the "pecking order" was the first studied example of the social hierarchy among animals (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/pecking_order).

The basic concept behind the establishment of the pecking order among, for example, chickens, is that it is necessary to determine who the "top chicken" is, the "bottom chicken" and where all the rest fit in between. The establishment of the dominance hierarchy is believed to reduce the incidence of intense conflicts that may require a greater expenditure of energy to settle. The dominance level determines which individual gets preferential access to food and mates so that all group members are well informed about the protocol (leadership) to be followed during feeding and mating (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/pecking_order).

In terms of public institutions, the pecking order relationship refers to the argument that was presented in chapter 1 (see figure 1.2) where the various levels of managerial hierarchy of the Department of Agriculture were explained. At the top of the pyramid, lies the office of the minister who provides political direction of the Department and below the minister is the office of the director-general who is responsible for technical operationalisation of the political mandate of the ruling party. The director-general is assisted by deputy directors-general who in turn are assisted by chief directors who are also assisted by directors. In terms of the pecking order, the structure above has authority over all levels below it (how the chickens are sorted). That means that junior officials (subordinates) are always expected to obey and carry out instructions as issued by higher authority.

Another striking example displaying the pecking order concept is the power distribution among cabinet members of the South African Executive Team (cabinet ministers) of government. The President is the first one to deliver a speech when parliament re-opens every year and the presidential speech is known as the "State of the Nation Address" (SONA) and what is interesting to note is that the Minister of Finance is always the first among all the ministers to deliver his or her budget speech. Why? The reason could be that because the Minister of Finance is the one who allocates budgets to the various ministries, the other ministers may not present their departmental vision until the budget is presented and according to the pecking order principle, the Minister of Finance is the "top chicken" then followed by the other ministers in no particular order.

2.2.3 Does leadership make a difference in institutions?

This question is answered by Schwartz (1980:501) where he claims that "Leaders can best be judged by the behaviour of their subordinates, not by what they profess. When followers perform well, cooperate effectively, and put forth extra effort to achieve group goals, the manager is described as being a good leader. When people perform badly, fail to cooperate, and do a minimal amount of work, the manager is described as a weak or ineffective leader." Another way of looking at this question is to reason that if leadership did not matter, there would be no need to hire managers because everyone in the institution would be able to automatically create and perform his or her responsibility without any supervision (egalitarian approach). However, the opposite is true; every institution, private or public, has leaders and surely, this confirms the importance of the leadership function in these various functions. This confirms the assertion made by Schwartz (1980:491) that as soon as there is a group of people that are assembled for a specific purpose, leadership becomes a common denominator.

2.3 NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

Before defining what leadership is, it is imperative to discuss the nature of leadership so that the reader can find the definition of leadership provided in section 2.4 below easy to comprehend. Firstly, this section tries to explain the connection between leadership and institutional purpose. Secondly, it also provides a discussion of the kind of leadership influence that one may find within an institution. Thirdly, it proceeds by linking leadership with social and cognitive phenomena, and fourthly, the connection between leadership and the institutional context will be explained.

2.3.1 Leadership and institutional purpose

The fundamental assumption behind the creation of institutions, whether private or public, is that they are established for the purpose of achieving a particular goal or mission (this point will be explained further in chapter 5, see section 5.2). It then becomes imperative that some of the members of these institutions should be entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring that all institutional resources including human resources are positioned in such a way that they contribute effectively towards the realisation of the stated goal. Zaccaro and Klimoski (2001:6-7) make an appropriate comment when they say that leadership positions are created within institutions for the purpose of assisting institutional subunits to achieve the purposes for which they exist within the larger institutional system.

Zaccaro and Klimoski (2001:6) go on to argue that 'institutional purpose is operationalised as a direction for collective action. Leadership processes are directed at defining, establishing, identifying, or translating this direction for their followers and facilitating or enabling the institutional purposes that should result in the achievement of this purpose.' This supports the argument that was presented in section 2.2.3 that leadership is a common denominator in every institution, that is, no institution can exist without it and it is closely tied to the very existence of all institutions as it is the function of leadership that tries to harness the efforts of other members towards the operationalisation of the mission of those institutions.

From Zaccaro and Klimoski's proposition as posited above, one can deduce that institutions are expected to succeed or fail in realising their goals because of the type of leadership prevailing at the time. Put in another form, leadership is the driver of institutional mission and it is leadership that will determine the degree of success an institution will have in terms of goal realisation.

2.3.2 Leadership as non-routine influence

In chapter 1 (see section 1.2) it was mentioned that the leadership function is part of the broader management functions that are performed by a special breed of people normally known as managers. What is of particular interest in this section is that some writers have tried to categorise the function of managerial decision-making into *programmable* and *non-programmable* dimensions (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:8). Programmable decisions are all those decisions that can easily be incorporated into the routine plans of the institution and hence the function of planning as it is designed to deal with issues of planning as part of management. On the other hand, there are also other decisions that cannot be subjected to *routinisation* and these are the decisions that Katz and Kahn (in Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:8) claim that they are dealt with under leadership. In other words, leaders are expected to deal with non-programmable or non-routine decisions and should delegate routine decisions to their subordinates. This point is further amplified by Fleishman *et al.* (in Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:8) where they state that 'non-routine events can be defined as any situation that constitutes a potential or actual hindrance to institutional goal progress. Thus, institutional leadership can be construed as large scale or small scale social problem solving, where leaders are constructing the nature of institutional problems, developing and evaluating potential solutions, and planning, implementing, and monitoring selected solutions within complex social domains.' This argument holds some credibility when one considers the fact that if all decisions were subjected to *routinisation*, there would be no need for leaders because routine decisions are normally handled by anybody

who may not need special decision-making ability. For example, some functions in private manufacturing institutions are designed using the principle of *standardisation* (which is another word for routinisation) whereby tasks are broken down into various components so that each worker is responsible for just one part in the process. This has made it quite easy to train workers quickly so that in a short spell of time, any worker can gain the required dexterity. On the other hand, non-routine decisions cannot be subjected to standardisation and they normally require special decision skills to handle and that is the reason why the writers mentioned above argue that non-routine decisions are the domain of leaders.

2.3.3 Leadership as managing social and cognitive phenomena

When the leader plays the social facilitator role- that is when he or she is providing direction to the group towards the implementation of solutions to institutional goals and this is when the leader is expected to provide social interpersonal influence that should enable group members to contribute positive energy that should result in the implementation of institutional goals. On the other hand, the leader is also expected to possess knowledge and skills that would be used in planning collective action. In other words, leadership is not only about the facilitation of group efforts but it is also about the possession of appropriate knowledge and skills in terms of interpreting and modelling of environmental events for the group. This includes the provision of cognitive ability to act on issues such as the ability to determine the nature of the problems to be solved, and also, to provide long-term strategic thinking (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:10-11). These points will be dealt with extensively in chapter 4.

2.3.4 Leadership and the institutional context

In the main, the study of leadership tends to concentrate on the social aspect of the discipline. In this instance, leadership is viewed as a relationship between the leader and the followers (subordinates) and as such, much energy is then directed at investigating the behavioural dynamics between the leader and the group being led. The ultimate result of this approach is that the leader is regarded as a social facilitator of group effort that is directed at the implementation of solutions to institutional problems, hence the use of comments such as: 'leadership is about effective and efficient implementation of institutional goals' (Termini, 2007:5-6).

However, although behavioural leadership has been critical for scientific analysis of the leadership theory, it lacks one crucial dimension and that is, it ignores the pecking order phenomenon that was discussed in section 2.2.2 above. In this

instance, leadership is regarded as the 'silver bullet' that is applicable in all levels of management. Contingency theories have tried to raise awareness regarding the influence of the situation under which leadership is practised but these have not considered fully the pecking order issues. For example, in chapter 1 (see section 1.2) the management levels of a public institution are normally classified into three categories: top management, middle management and low management and in terms of leadership dynamics, these structures may not be expected to fit into a general analysis of the leadership phenomenon and as such, the general treatment of leadership in institutions has invariably missed this important arrangement. For example, a leader who is at lower level of the hierarchy may have brilliant solutions to a particular problem but may not be able to implement those solutions if those above him or her are reluctant to support the suggestions. This situation can seriously affect the interpersonal and organisational choices available to the lower ranking leaders. In other words, the tendency of leadership researchers is to investigate leadership using top management as the norm and then offer a general leadership construct and then claim that leadership at lower levels would also provide the same results (Lussier and Achua, 2004:14-15).

What is being argued here is that the nature of leadership should not be regarded as a 'fit-all' phenomenon because of the pecking order principle. The leadership construct need to acknowledge the various hierarchical arrangements within institutions so that each level could be studied under its own environment.

2.4 DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

As it has been argued above in section 2.2, the leadership concept is not new as it predates humans and it is found among all animals that live in groups. Wren, Hicks and Price (2004:3) amplify the argument by proclaiming that the leadership concept is as old as civilisation itself. Prophets, priests, chiefs and kings served as symbols, representatives and models for their people. Myths and legends regarding great leaders served as beacon in the development of civilised societies. Great civilizations such as the Egyptians, Greeks, Babylonians, Romans, Chinese and many more placed a high premium on leadership. From the Egyptians, three qualities were attributed to the pharaoh 'authoritative utterness is in thy mouth, perception is in thy heart and thy tongue is the shrine of justice' (Wren, Hicks and Price, 2004:3). The Chinese classics written as early as the sixth century BC gave hortatory advice to the leaders regarding their responsibilities to the citizens. It was Confucius who urged leaders to set a moral example and to manipulate rewards and punishments for teaching what is right and good. The Taoism philosophy emphasised the need for a leader to work himself out of his position by making the

followers believe that success was accomplished through their own efforts (Wren, Hicks and Price, 2004:3). Lao-Tzu, another Chinese philosopher, is quoted by Maurik (2001:1) as having said; "when the deed is done, the mission accomplished, of the best leaders the people will say, "We have done it ourselves." This statement suggests that the essence of leadership is that the leader must empower his or her people so that at the end of the process, the people should feel like they accomplished the task on their own and this will instil the culture of "ownership" in the minds of the people.

The study of managerial leadership proliferated at the beginning of the 20th century primarily as a result of mushrooming of large organisations both in public and private sectors and also, the intellectual landscape of universities was similarly altered by the emergence of professional academic disciplines in the social sciences and as a result, the study of leadership focused on large organisations using social methodologies (Wren, Hicks and Price, 2004:1).

The leadership phenomenon is too complex to be defined in simplistic terms. Stogdill (in Northouse, 2001:2) argues that there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are writers who tried to define it. This can be better illustrated by the Indian story of the *six blind men and the elephant* (www.jainworld.com/literature/story25.htm), which goes like this: Once upon a time, there lived six blind men in a village. One day the villagers told them, "Hey, there is an elephant in the village today."

They had no idea what an elephant looked like so they decided that even though they would not be able to see it, they should go and touch it anyway. All of them agreed to go where the elephant was. They agreed that each must only touch just one part of the elephant. Each one of them touched it as agreed.

"Hey, the elephant is a tree," said the first man who touched its leg. "Oh no! It is like a rope," said the second man who touched the tail. "My goodness! It is like a big snake", said the third man who touched the trunk of the elephant. "No! It is like a big hand fan" said the fourth man who touched the ear of the elephant. "No way! It is like a huge wall" said the fifth man who touched the belly of the elephant. "Are you kidding me? This animal is like a spear!" said the sixth man who touched the tusk of the elephant.

They began to argue about the elephant and each one of them insisted that he was right. It looked like they were getting agitated with one another when a wise man who happened to be passing by saw what was happening and he stopped and

asked, "What is the matter my friends, why are you arguing with one another like that? The wise man asked. They replied: "we cannot agree on what the elephant is." Each one of them told what he thought the elephant was. The wise man calmly explained to them: "all of you are right. The reason every one of you is telling it differently is because each one of you touched the different part of the elephant. So, actually the elephant has all those features what all of you identified." Everyone nodded. There was no more fighting. They felt happy that they were all right.

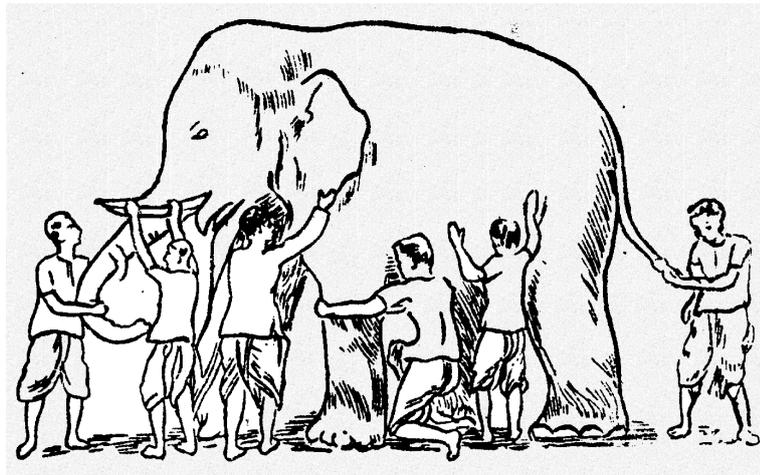


Figure 2.1: The six blind men and the elephant (Sourced from www.jainworld.com/literature/story25.htm)

The moral of the story is that there may be some truth to what someone says. Sometimes one can see that truth and sometimes one cannot because the views of people may differ. So, rather than arguing like the blind men, people should admit that they may have different perspectives regarding the same issue. In this way people can avoid opposing arguments. In Jainism (Indian religion), it is explained that truth can be stated in seven different ways. So, one can see how broad that religion is. It teaches people to be tolerant towards others for their viewpoints. This allows people to live in harmony with the people of different thinking. This is known as the Syadvada, Anekantvad, or the theory of Manifold Predictions (www.jainworld.com/literature/story25.htm).

What are the underlying factors that have encouraged writers to define leadership in so many ways? Just like the story of the six blind men and the elephant, writers in the field have approached the leadership phenomenon eclectically (Avery, 2004:8). For some, leadership is about the individual who is ordained with the leadership responsibility (focus is on leadership traits or personality attributes of the leader) whilst other writers view leadership as group behaviour (focussing on the behavioural relationship between the leader and the followers) and the third

group of writers define leadership in terms of the situation: how aspects of the situation affect the ways leaders act (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2006:24).

In chapter 1 it was discussed that part of the problem of lack of consensus in the definition of the leadership theory is the fact that leadership means different things to different writers. There are many definitions of the theory of leadership. For instance, writers would offer various definitions when asked to complete the phrase "leadership is"

The main reason for lack of consensus in defining leadership is the fact that writers in the subject approach the concept from different disciplines such as: sociology, political science, psychology, management, organizational theory and biblical science and as such in defining the leadership concept, writers would be influenced by their own theoretical perspective.

For the purpose of this study, and in view of what have been said in sections 2.2 and 2.3 above, leadership is defined as a *process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal* (Northouse, 2001:3). Smit and Cronje (1992:333) confirm this by defining leadership as "the activity that infuses energy into the enterprise to activate its members and resources to get things moving and keep them in motion". From Northouse's definition in particular, it is apparent that leadership is a phenomenon that takes place under a particular paradigm or framework. Firstly, leadership is a *process* and this indicates that both the leader and the followers engage one another so that the outcome would carry the inputs of both the leader and the followers. This implies that leadership is not a one-way traffic where only the leader makes inputs rather, it is a process where both parties are engaged in transactional events that would invariably affect the outcome (Northouse, 2001:3; Tosi, Mero and Rizzo, 2000:454).

Secondly, leadership involves *influence*, that is, it is concerned with the manner in which the leader influences the conduct of followers. Northouse (2001:3) further asserts that influence is at the core of leadership and leadership cannot operate where influence is non-existent (Williams, DuBrin and Sisk, 1985:12).

Thirdly, leadership takes place within the context of *groups*. The leader tries to influence the conduct of the group (made up of followers) for the purpose of achieving a particular outcome. This implies that the outcome for which the group is trying to achieve will largely be based on the interaction between the leader and the group and this assertion is in fact in line with the hypothesis that was posited in

chapter 1 which stated that the outcome of a group will be determined by the group moral which is driven by leadership influence (behaviour) (Lewis *et al.* 2004:402).

Fourthly, leadership is about the achievement of goals or *outcomes*. There must be a particular outcome towards which the effort of the group is being directed. Leadership involves influencing a group of individuals who have a common objective. The phrase "common objective" indicates a condition where group members need to share and agree with the outcome to be achieved by the group and this is sometimes called "shared vision" of the group. This could be a small group or could be a large group encompassing the whole institution (Northouse, 2001:3; Lewis *et al.* 2004:117; Williams *et al.* 1985:333).

Fifthly, every group must have a *leader*. The fundamental premise of managerial leadership is that the leader is at the centre of the leadership conundrum. The leader is expected to initiate and influence the process of leading the group for the purpose of achieving the outcome (van Eeden, 2005:3). The successes and failures of the group will largely rest on the shoulders of the leader. For example, in soccer, the coach will get all the accolades when the team is winning but should the team perform dismally, the coach will be the first individual to be given marching orders.

2.5 APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership as a subject of enquiry was postulated by Bernard Bass in his book *Handbook of Leadership* where he devised what is now known as the *typology of leadership* (Wren *et al.* 2004:11). Bass argues that writers in the field of leadership sought to define the leadership concept using different typologies (approaches) such as the following:

- Leadership viewed as a focus of group processes
- Leadership viewed as personality and its effects
- Leadership viewed as the art of inducing compliance
- Leadership viewed as the exercise of power and influence
- Leadership viewed as an act or behaviour
- Leadership viewed as a form of persuasion
- Leadership viewed as an instrument of goal achievement
- Leadership viewed as an emerging effect of interaction
- Leadership viewed as a differentiated role
- Leadership viewed as the initiation of structure

- Leadership viewed as a combination of some elements as mentioned above

The leadership context as illustrated above has highlighted the complexities of the leadership phenomenon. The contextual definition of leadership has given rise to various approaches to the study of leadership. The following approaches have been chosen for this study as a result of the definitions postulated above: the trait approach, the behaviour approach, the power approach, the transformational approach, and the situational or contingency approach.

2.5.1 Trait approach to leadership

The trait theory sometimes known as the classical theory of leadership is the foundation for the field of leadership studies in the institutional setting. The trait or personality attributes theory emerged in the 1920s as the first attempt to study managerial leadership (Maurik, 2001:4). Its main focus was the discovery of those inborn qualities or traits that distinguished leaders from followers. This led to the belief that leaders had certain qualities that were coded in their genes before birth so that only those born with those traits could assume positions of leadership within their communities. Researchers sought to investigate physical and psychological attributes such as high level of energy, appearance, aggressiveness, self-reliance, persuasiveness, and dominance as pointers towards those set of traits that all successful leaders should possess (Aldag and Brief, 1981:311; Fulop and Linstead, 1999:161-163).

The objective of this section is to discuss the various trait theories that are central to this approach. The section begins by discussing the originators of personality traits. It proceeds by explaining the benefits of classifying personality traits. This is followed by a discussion of the Big Five personality dimensions, the universality of traits of effective leaders is then discussed and this is followed by a discussion on the relationship between the personality trait theory and the Achievement Motivation Theory as well as the leader profile theory. This will be followed by a discussion on the personality traits of leaders and theory-X and theory-Y and finally, this will be followed by a discussion on the reasons that led to the demise of the trait approach.

2.5.1.1 Personality trait originators

Why do people behave the way they do? This question is central to the trait theory. To be able to predict how people will act in a given situation, it becomes

necessary to go beyond their actions, that is, to look at those factors that drive them to act in a particular way. Some people display a great deal of aggression whilst others are cool and collected. Some people are talkative whilst others are shy. This theory claims that people behave the way they do because of two factors which are: genetically created and environmentally driven (Lussier and Achua, 2004:29; Lewis *et al.* 2004:427).

- Genetically created factors

Genetically created factors are those traits that are encoded in peoples' lives before birth. Some people are born to be tall whilst others are born to be short. Some are born to tell the truth whereas others are born to be pathological liars and some are born to be intelligent whilst others are born to be dunces (Maurik, 2001:4). It is claimed in the Zulu folklore that King Shaka was generally aggressive when he was a boy. During play, he would build a clay bull that would be capable of destroying all the clay bulls created by his peers and that behaviour followed him even when he became a young man and that is why he was such a ferocious warrior (author unknown). "*Ubudoda abukhulelwa*" is another Zulu idiom that indicates that one does not need to grow into adulthood to be a man. Even if one is still a young boy, provided that one is born with the right qualities of a man, one can assume that status at a very young stage (Lewis *et al.* 2004:427).

- Environmentally driven factors

It is often said that the things one learns as a child are the things that one will do when one becomes an adult. Every one arrives in this world with a clean slate and all the experiences that people possess are created after birth through various institutions such as: the family, friends, schools, religious institutions, work and correctional facilities and these factors are known as environmental factors and are assumed to have a tremendous influence in peoples' behaviour (Lussier and Achua, 2004:29; Heifetz, Grashow and Linsky, 2009:195-200).

- Family

The family is the first institution through which behaviour is learnt by an infant. Giddens (1989:60) says that *socialization* is the process whereby the helpless infant gradually becomes a self-aware, knowledgeable person, skilled in the ways of the culture into which she or he is born. The implication of Giddens' statement is that the culture of the society into which a child is born is instilled upon its mind mainly through the family institution. The language that one uses to communicate

with other family members is learnt from the family settings. For example, in the African culture, a child who is overly inquisitive may be regarded as a *õloose cannonõ* or *isiphaphi* whereas in the western culture that child could be regarded as having leadership potential. Giddens (1989:77) goes on to explain that it is possible to comprehend the influence of different types of family background by making a comparison between a child who grows up in a poor neighbourhood in an informal settlement and the one who grows up in an affluent middle class suburb. These children will invariably hold different views about life in general and those views may go on to influence their adult life (Bassis, Gelles and Levine, 1991:100-103; Dillon, 2010:260-261).

- Friends

The peer group is another useful socializing agent and according to Giddens (1989:77), it is defined as a group of people who share specific social characteristics such as age, class, occupation or education and interact on a level of equality. Every member of a peer group is expected to conform to the expectations of the group. Peer group dynamics may bring issues of peer pressure on some members of the group so that members may find themselves agreeing to do certain things that they would generally not do on their own account. For example, a teenager may be indirectly pressured to consume alcohol just because the other members of the group are involved in its consumption. In spite of the negative connotations attached to peer pressure, there are instances where group pressure can yield positive results. A case in point is when a delinquent teenager joins a religious peer group whose main motive is to do good things in life by focussing on education and going to church. As a result of this interaction, the delinquent teenager may begin to view life in a positive light and that may lead to a change in behaviour (Horton and Hunt, 1984:90-91).

- School

The family is the first institution that is responsible for the socialization of children and young people. At some stage in their lives, children will have to leave the comfort of the family and attend school for the purpose of embarking on the journey of formal education. The school system is the second level institution where children are formally socialized. Parsons as quoted by Haralambos (1985:175) views the schooling of children as a *õbridge between the family and society as a whole.õ* Central to Parsons Theory is the fact that the school system operates on universalistic standards which means that children are exposed to the same educational standards regardless where they come from (Fulcher and Scott,

1999:231-233). Their characters are assessed against the yardstick of the school rules; their achievement is measured by how well they perform in examinations. These standards are applied to all the learners regardless of sex, race, creed or colour. On the other hand, a child at home is judged on *particularistic* standards which mean that parents will judge a child as their child and the standards used apply only within the family parameter and this means that certain conduct may be treated differently by families (Kornblum, 2000:500-501). For example, in one family a particular conduct such as smoking may be frowned upon whereas in another family it may be accepted that teenagers should engage in the habit of smoking.

- Religious institutions

Religion is important for promoting social solidarity and reinforcing social values. Religious institutions are places where social solidarity and social values are reinforced. "Thou shall not steal" is a useful value enforcement statement contained in the Bible (Exodus 20:13). For leadership development, religious institutions play a vital role in shaping the behaviour of a good leader in the sense that a good leader will be expected to adhere to the religious prescriptions of his or her society. Haralambos (1985:458) states that human conduct is directed and regulated by norms and values provided by the social system and that the cultural system provides more general guidelines for action in the form of beliefs, values and systems of meaning. For example, in a capitalistic society, many norms are expressions of the value of materialism and since religion is part of the cultural system and as such, guidelines for human conduct and standards against which man's action can be evaluated will be set out in the religious belief system of that society (Macionis, 1993:468-470).

- Work

The management team of any institution is assumed to be responsible for the design, implementation and realization of objectives of the institution they work for and it becomes imperative to note that the work they do will significantly affect their personality (Bassis *et al.* 1991:138-139). The management team of an institution may be regarded as an exclusive club that accept members who abide by the rules of engagement. For example, it is claimed that bank managers are recognizable by their striped grey suits (dress code culture). A newly appointed employee who does not feel comfortable wearing suits will find it difficult to advance to the management level as he or she may be labelled a "rebel" or a "non-fit." Another important work culture of the banking sector is the principle of

prudent banking management (Dillon, 2010:179). For one to succeed as bank manager, the principle of prudence is paramount since the main business of a bank is to mobilize and distribute investors' funds (Bassis *et al.* 1991:139). Any person who aspires to be a bank manager must adhere to the principles of good banking practice otherwise he or she will not go very far towards becoming a successful bank manager if he or she becomes reckless with investors' funds (Macionis, 1993:179-181).

2.5.1.2 Benefits of classifying personality traits

The main objective of the trait approach is to focus exclusively on the leader and not on the followers or the process (Northouse, 2001:20; Fulop and Linstead, 1999:161). In other words, it assists in answering the question, 'why is it that some people are able to lead effectively while others fail dismally as leaders?' Northouse further explains that the trait approach is mainly concerned with the kind of traits leaders have and also, to identify who those leaders are that possess those traits (Williams *et al.* 1985:341-344).

The trait approach is also useful as an indicator of good leadership. This approach makes it possible to compile a leadership profile required to perform the leadership function effectively. It forms the benchmark for assessing the leadership potential of individuals so that the more suitable candidates can be elevated to the position of management. The trait approach is also a good instrument for personal development. Aspirant leaders are able to pitch their personality against the norm set by this approach (Williams *et al.* 1985:341-343; Tosi *et al.* 2000:455).

Another usefulness of the trait approach is the fact that it is backed by a large amount of research data than any of the other approaches (Maurik, 2001:4; Williams *et al.* 1985:341). This makes it more reliable since it is based on empirical evidence that has been accumulated over a long period. The empirical evidence has given an insight into what works and what does not work in a person's personality. For example, a person who is shy and timid may not do well as a sales manager who is leading a group of sales people because this kind of work needs a leader who is outspoken and easy going and also be able to convince others in a friendly manner. The same goes for leaders in the public institutions. A shy and timid leader may not be able to articulate convincingly, the strategic intent of his or her units bearing in mind that units of an institution may have to compete for resources and if one is not self-expressive, one may not convince top management of the critical need of one's funding requirement (Flanagan and Finger, 2003:12-13).

2.5.1.3 Personality traits and The Big Five Model

The purpose of this section is to explain the Big Five Model of personality as a tool to categorize personality traits of leaders. The advantage of using the Model is that almost all the traits that one could use to describe the personality of a particular leader can be categorized under the five dimensions (Lussier and Achua, 2004:30; van Wart, 2008:125-142). This Model consists of five dimensions and each dimension is used to package certain related traits of leaders. The five dimensions of the Big Five Model of personality are: surgency, agreeableness, adjustment, conscientiousness and open to experience.

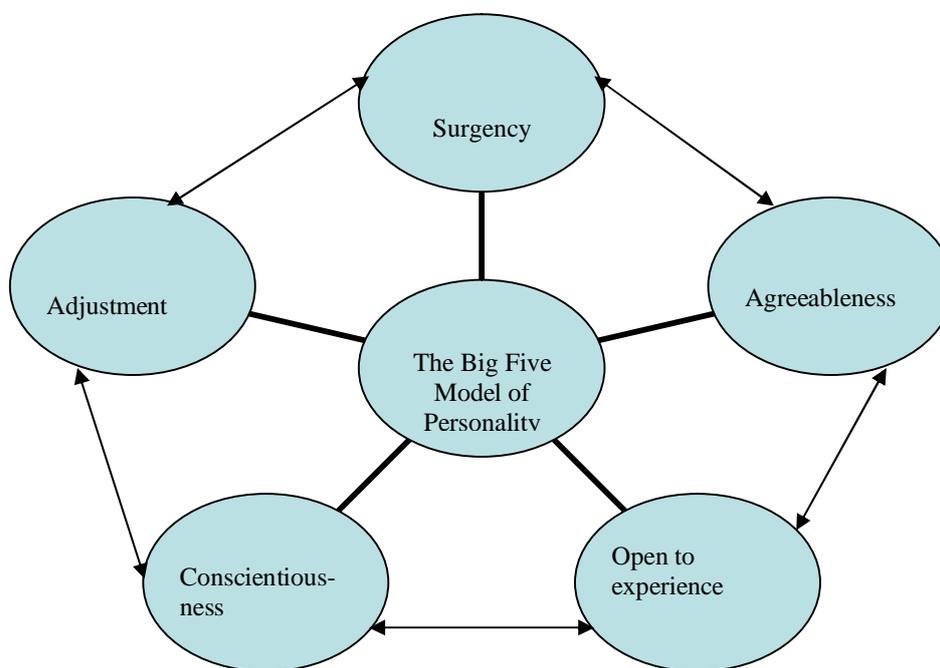


Figure 2.2: The Big Five Model Of Personality Traits (Adapted from Lussier and Achua, 2004:30)

- Surgency

The surgency dimension can be used to answer the question; how strong is the person's desire to be a leader? To be successful as a leader, a person must have a burning desire to lead and without that desire, one cannot endure in the face of serious challenges. People who desire to lead are said to have a strong dominance personality. They just want to take charge of any situation. Those who are strong in the surgency dimension are usually outgoing, like to meet new people and they like to compete with others and they are sometimes referred to as extroverts. People

who are weak in surgency want to be followers and are not keen to compete or have no desire to influence others. They are usually shy people and are sometimes known as introverts (Lussier and Achua, 2004:30; Lewis *et al.* 2004:433).

- Agreeableness

This dimension deals with all the leadership personalities that pertain to good relationship that a quality leader may foster among his or her subordinates. It answers the question: how important is it for a leader to have good working relationships with his or her subordinates and peers? A person who has strong agreeableness personality is able to get along very well with others. He or she would be characterized as being friendly, warm hearted, easy going, compassionate, and somewhat sociable. A person lacking in this dimension may be described as being cold, difficult to get along with, uncompassionate towards others, unfriendly and unsociable (Fisher and Muller, 2005:10-12).

- Adjustment

The adjustment dimension deals with traits relating to emotional stability. It answers the question; how emotionally stable is the leader being evaluated? Emotional stability is a condition where a leader is always calm even if the situation seems hopeless. To be able to perform well under pressure is a premium for leadership development. Being positive under adversity is the virtue of good leadership. Other components of the adjustment personality are: being relaxed, self-controlled, be able to praise others and being generally secured as a leader. People who are weak on the adjustment dimension are usually nervous when things go wrong, worry too much, insecure, negative when faced with challenges, always criticizing others, emotionally out of control and generally performs poorly under pressure (Dale, 1978:315; Lewis *et al.* 2004:433).

- Conscientiousness

The conscientiousness dimension is concerned with the desire of an individual to achieve. It answers the question; how strong is the leader's desire to be successful? People who are strong on this dimension are responsible and dependable. They have a high degree of credibility and are highly organized. They also have high energy with a great deal of self confidence.

People who are weak in the conscientiousness dimension are said to be irresponsible and undependable. They lack energy and are not confident with themselves (Raelin, 2003:65).

- Open to experience

The open to experience dimension answers the question: how willing is the leader to effect change and introduce new things? Leadership is about change. It mainly focuses on the future using current experiences. Good leaders are constantly scanning the environment for change and are willing to try new things. Leaders who are weak in this dimension will try by all means to avoid change and would not try new things because they do not believe in tomorrow. To them, the current conditions will go on forever (Kotter, 1999:81).

2.5.1.4 Personality traits of effective leaders

The Big Five Model of personalities has offered a logical way of looking at personality traits of all leaders. From weak leaders to effective ones, what the Model demonstrated was that personality traits can be grouped into five dimensions. The question to be answered going forward is: what are the traits of effective leaders? Answers to this question can empower would-be-leaders to acquire these traits for the purpose of improving their leadership skills.

The purpose of this section is to discuss those personality traits that are found in effective leaders. To be an effective leader, one needs to possess certain qualities that would distinguish one from those leaders who are generally been described as being ineffective. These personality traits of effective leaders would be discussed in line with the Big Five Model of personality.

- Dominance

Effective leaders would like to take charge of a situation. They are highly ambitious individuals who will stop at nothing until they achieve the leadership position. They have a burning desire to lead others. Dominance does not mean bullying or being overly bossy, rather it means that they enjoy helping others by performing the leadership function. Since leadership is part of a manager's function, a manager who is not driven by the dominance trait, may not be able to lead others effectively. The management position may be stressful and that means that the people who are elevated to lead others, may need to have a high drive for leadership and they have to enjoy the position of leading others otherwise they may

not do a good job as leaders. Dominance personality is classified under the surgency dimension of the Big Five Model (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003:4-5).

- High energy

High energy leaders are like mountain climbers. They set themselves challenging goals and then they work hard towards achieving those goals. They will stop at nothing until they reach the summit. Effective leaders are not intimidated by unexpected challenges and instead, they view challenges as part of the obstacles to be conquered before reaching the summit. Also, they usually have a high degree of tolerance to stress which means that they are able to endure a great deal of frustrating situations because they set their eyes on the goals through planning and preparation. They have a clear vision of what they want to achieve and then they are able to stretch themselves beyond boundaries for the sole purpose of achieving what they want. Their commitment level is very high (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2006:164).

Leaders who are weak on high level trait have low energy and would avoid tackling stretching goals. They easily get frustrated when things don't turn out according to the plan, they are likely to give up. Also, their commitment level to the set objectives is very low hence the desire to quit when faced with unexpected challenges (Williams *et al.* 1985:343). This personality trait is categorized under the conscientiousness dimension of the Big Five Model.

- Self-confidence

The self-confidence personality trait is concerned with the ability of a leader to be a qualitative decision-maker who is self-assured in his or her capabilities, quality of ideas and judgement, after all, the most critical function of a leader is to strategise for the future and then be able to enlist followers to perform at optimum level for the purpose of achieving the vision set by the leader (Williams *et al.*, 1985:342). It becomes critical to note that if a leader is not able to speak with conviction, followers will find it difficult to perform with high motivation. Motivating others is a primary factor of leadership. Nobody would like to follow a leader who always comes up with weak decisions, bad judgements, lacks self-assurance and is incapable to inspire followers. The self-confidence personality trait can be categorised under the conscientiousness dimension of the Big Five Model (Cooper, 2003:99).

- Locus of control

The locus of control personality trait refers to the leader's view of a situation. This personality trait can be further split into two parts: external locus of control and internal locus of control. Effective leaders view themselves as being in control of their destiny and they believe that in order for them to succeed, they need to "own the process." These leaders are known as internalisers because they tend to embrace their own successes and failures (Tosi *et al.* 2000:49).

Externalisers are those leaders who believe that their demise is externally induced. They tend to blame everyone for their failures and they refuse to accept responsibility for their shortcomings. The locus of control personality trait is categorized under the openness to experience dimension of the Big Five Model (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999:4).

- Stability

Because they have internal locus of control, effective leaders have emotional and mental stability. Their behaviour does not swing to the extreme. Emotional and mental stability is fundamental for the purpose of staying focussed to the goal to be achieved. Stable leaders know their area of weaknesses and would compliment by enlisting others to perform those tasks that they do not do very well rather than being defensive and they tend to know when to lead and when to follow. Effective leaders will probably be in a position to evaluate themselves in terms of their strengths and weaknesses (Lussier and Achua, 2004:35; Fisher and Muller, 2005:11) Leaders who are weak on this trait tend to be emotionally depressed and they end up suffering from acute depression. Their moods swing from being extremely happy to being extremely agitated more especially if things do not go according to plan. They tend to be authoritarian in their approach and are also extremely defensive of their actions. Lack of delegation is another weakness of ineffective leaders. These leaders find it very difficult to stay focussed and as a result, they end up being "jacks of all trades and masters of none." This trait is categorised under the adjustment dimension of the Big Five Model (Yukl, 2004:232).

- Integrity

Integrity is a critical element of leadership. Integrity is a condition where an effective leader displays a great deal of honesty and trustworthiness thereby instilling a condition of trust among followers. Effective leaders usually stand by

their promises. They live by the principle that says "my word is my bond." They know that credibility is the passport to trustworthy leadership.

Lussier and Achua (2004:35) say that the ability of a leader to influence his or her followers is based on integrity. Followers must trust the leader. Unless one is perceived to be trustworthy, it is difficult to retain the loyalty of followers or to obtain cooperation and support from peers and superiors. There is a price to be paid for leadership dishonesty, deceit, manipulative, cheating and lying. It is very difficult to build a united team of followers when the leader is engaged in a strategy of divide and conquer by pitching followers against one another (source: Tosi *et al.*, 2000:41). This trait is classified under the conscientiousness dimension of the Big Five Model.

- Intelligence

Intelligence refers to the ability of a leader to think critically and have sound judgement when solving problems. Cognitive ability is what separate effective leaders from weak ones (Wright, 1996:171). The AmaZulu have a saying that says that "iso liwela umfula ugcwele" which means that a leader should be able to use his or her foresight to identify potential impacts of what is being decided upon. Effective leaders have the ability to use all three sights (Tosi *et al.* 2000:466), that is, hindsight (the ability to learn from past occurrences), insight (the ability to learn from the current conditions) and foresight (the ability to see things happening in the future). One of the things that lead to the downfall of weak leaders is their inability to see things in a clear perspective. They just don't get it. Even if the situation is so bad that it threatens their very existence, they will enter into a denial mode and would *bury their heads in the sand like ostriches* and would refuse to accept the reality of the situation (Tosi *et al.* 2000:455). The Zimbabwean crisis is a case in point. Leaders in that country have lost touch with reality on the ground, and instead, they view the current crisis as being externally driven hence the blaming of external countries. One may argue that external countries did contribute to the crisis by not honouring certain agreements but it is "chicken mentality" to blame everything that has happened in Zimbabwe on external forces. This trait is classified under the adjustment dimension of the Big Five Model (Western, 2008:73).

- Flexibility

Flexibility is the ability to adapt to changing conditions (Bloch and Whiteley, 2003:56). Effective leaders, because they are able to use their foresight, are able to

embrace changing environments without viewing them as threats. Failure to adapt to changing environments is one of the challenges of leadership (Avery, 2004:73-74). Weak leaders relate to changes with resistance and as a result they find themselves being bulldozed by a changing environment. One commentator (unknown) once said that "when the situation changes, everyone goes back to zero." For example, Swiss watch makers dominated the watch making industry up until the invention of a quartz watch which was ironically invented by the Swiss themselves but the watch makers refused to embrace it because it was not mechanical. It is said that Seiko of Japan and Texas Instruments of America bought the technology and within ten years, the Swiss watchmakers were brought to their knees (author unknown). They lost ninety percent of their market share and had to lay off over fifty thousand workers. Enron of America is one recent case in point of what could happen to an institution when the leaders fail to see reality (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:222). This trait is classified under the openness to experience dimension of the Big Five Model.

- Sensitivity to others

Leadership involves dealing with people (Weiss, Molinaro and Davey, 2007:68). Different people have differing needs. An effective leader is the one who creates an environment where people can feel loved, appreciated and respected (Termini, 2007:9-10). Sometimes people resign from institutions not because they don't like the institution *per se* but they quit because they do not get along well with their immediate supervisor (Perry, 2010:108-110). Some leaders are very difficult to work with, they fail to listen to suggestions from their followers and only their voice is the most important even if it is apparent that the follower's ideas are the right ones to follow. Lussier and Achua (2004:36) reiterate the point about being sensitive to others by stating that executive derailment is normally caused by lack of sensitivity. Sensitivity to others is basically about communication (Katzenbach, 1996:120-122). Good communication happens when both parties are treated with respect and dignity. It is hard for a follower to be motivated when the supervisor displays insensitivity towards the welfare of the follower (van Wart, 2008:152). For example, one of the sources of conflict in South African institutions is that black people usually have extended families and when one member dies, the follower may be expected to attend the funeral even if the relation is not as close as it would be defined in the western culture. As a result of taking frequent leave, one leader once asked: "hey my friend, how many times does your mother die? Six months ago you took off because you wanted to attend her funeral and now you tell me that you need some days to go and bury her again?" Sensitivity to others becomes critical in a multi-cultural environment. What may appear strange to

someone who does not know the cultural background, may be a matter of life and death to the person who is culturally involved (Williams *et al.* 1985:64). This trait is categorised under the agreeableness dimension of the Big Five Model.

2.5.1.5 Personality traits and the Achievement Motivation Theory

The purpose of this section is to explain the relation between the personality trait theory and the Achievement Motivation Theory (AMT) as well as the Leader Motive Profile Theory (LMPT). The Achievement Motivation Theory attempts to explain and predict behaviour and performance based on a person's need for achievement, power and affiliation (van Wart, 2008:38-9). On the other hand, the Leader Motive Profile Theory seeks to explain and predict leadership success based on an individual's high need for power (power hungry) that is greater than the need for affiliation with a minimum need for achievement (Lussier and Achua, 2004:40; Buchanan and Badham, 2008:47-8).

- Achievement Motivation Theory

This theory was developed by David McClelland (Hooper, 2006:86) and the purpose was to demonstrate that people have needs and it is the process of satisfying those needs that drive them to act in a particular manner. McClelland went on to categorize the needs into three elements: achievement, power and affiliation. McClelland (Raffel *et al.*, 2009:315) also claims that the desire to satisfy these needs is a subconscious process and the intensity to satisfy them is placed in a continuum. That is, an individual can have a strong desire for either one of the three needs and would be expected to work hard to try and satisfy the desire of that need (Lussier and Achua, 2004:38).

- Need for achievement

To succeed in the field of leadership, a person needs to be self-driven towards attaining high demanding goals (James and Collins, 2008:193). The desire to achieve must be an internally driven desire to accomplish something and individuals who are high on the need for achievement have a strong internal locus of control, self-confidence, and high energy personality traits. Also, an individual with a high need for achievement tend to be characterized as wanting to take personal responsibility for solving problems. In other words, they do not wait for the boss to provide them with solutions all the time. People with a high need for achievement are goal focused individuals (Wexler, 2005:94). They like to set themselves goals that they then try to achieve. These are the people who are in the

forefront of change as they do not like to perform under routine environment. Their aim is to set stretching goals and then take calculated risks to try and achieve those goals. They believe that their success hangs in the achievement of some goal stretching exercise and they are driven by nothing else except the desire to accomplish the goals that they are trying to realize (Levinson, 2006:94). These are the people that are characterized as having personality traits that fall under the conscientiousness dimension of the Big Five Model.

- Need for power

One of the elements in the definition of leadership as it occurs in institutions is the ability of the leader to influence the followers and power is one of the components of influence. To be able to influence others, one must be backed by power and power can be defined as *the ability to direct others to act in a particular way* (Wren *et al.* 2004:311). In managerial leadership, a leader is a person who has been assigned some form of power otherwise, it would be impossible to influence the effort of the followers without some ascribed form of power (Lewis *et al.* 2004:408). The question is, how is the power used, is it used to empower or control followers?

Some people have a strong desire for power because access to power means the ability to influence the conduct of others (Rigg and Richards, 2006:48). Power hungry people are driven by the surgency personality of trait of the Big Five Model and these people like to compete and losing is not on their agenda. They are highly confident people and they are willing and able to take charge of the situation. Also, power driven people have lower desire for affiliation and as a result, they do not worry much about how others feel about them.

- Need for affiliation

Individuals with a strong desire for affiliation have a strong need to develop, maintain and restore close personal relationships (Storey, 2004:87). They are highly sensitive to the needs of others. For leadership purpose, this means that a leader with high need for affiliation would take keen interest in the welfare of his or her people. To leaders with high need for affiliation, people come first. They believe that their role is to help others help themselves. They are usually low on the desire for power as they believe that the role of a leader is to empower others and not to bulldoze them like the power hungry people believe. They view power as an instrument of empowering others and not an instrument of self-aggrandizement (Yukl, 2004:15-16).

- Personality traits and the Leader Motive Profile Theory

The fundamental basis of the Leader Motive Profile Theory is that it also places a high premium on power as a driving force towards leadership positioning (Williams *et al.* 1985:343). It regards power as central position for effective leadership and that power must be greater than the need for affiliation and a moderate need for achievement. In other words, the relationship among the three variables, that is, achievement, power and affiliation is such that the order of desire becomes the following: power-achievement-affiliation (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:204).

- Socialized power

There are two kinds of power a leader may desire according to Lussier and Achua (2004:40). A leader may have a high desire for *personal* or *socialized* power. Personal power is self-conceited power and it is not good for leadership and socialized (shared) power is good power that is used for the benefit of society (Aldag and Brief, 1981:345-347). For example, a leader with socialized power would be sensitive, compassionate and would also project a stable personality towards his or her followers. This means that a leader with socialized power may have low affiliation but would display a great deal of sensitivity towards others (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:127), whereas a leader with high personal desire for personal power would be insensitive, uncaring and would not have a stable personality (Buchanan and Badham, 2008:193). This kind of leader would believe in the culture of 'every-man-for-himself and God-for-us-all' syndrome.

- Achievement

To be successful, leaders generally need to have a reasonable degree of desire for achievement (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:262). These leaders must be driven by high energy, self-confidence and open to experience personality traits. Lussier and Achua (2004:41) say that there are reasons mitigating for moderate desire for achievement by a leader. First, if the leader becomes too ambitious to achieve, they will invariably gravitate towards personal achievement which may lead to leadership derailment. Second, if the leader happens to have a low drive for power, they may not do a good job in terms of encouraging cooperation from followers because they will focus mainly on their own contribution and not be able to work as a collective. For example, the former president Mr. Thabo Mbeki is credited as being a high achiever but he did not do a good job in terms of empowering his followers to take charge after he has left the Office. The moral of the story is that

yes, as a leader, one need to be a little ambitious but not to the point of leaving the followers too far behind otherwise followers will get lost in the process (Williams *et al.* 1985:342).

- Affiliation

The Leader Motive Profile Theory also suggests that effective leaders should have a low need for affiliation for their followers (Buchanan and Badham, 2008:193). The argument behind that is that it may be difficult to discipline followers when one has a great deal of sympathy for them. For example, the hiring of friends and relatives is a serious challenge for South African public institutions (Williams *et al.* 1985:361). The head-hunting of top executives who are buddies of the leader can have serious consequences for both parties more in particular when the incumbent becomes incompetent. This can result in a stressful working environment in the sense that the leader may be unable to discipline the relative who is the follower because that action may go beyond the working environment. For example in one public institution in one of the provinces, former MEC X (member of the executive council) appointed his brother-in-law to head a financing subsidiary of the institution and the brother-in-law ended up being hopelessly incompetent and MEC X was forced to dismiss him (brother-in-law) and that could have caused a serious challenge for both in terms of their family relationships.

2.5.1.6 Personality traits and Theory X and Theory Y

The purpose of this section is to explain how attitudes shape a leader's behaviour towards his or her followers. Attitude is a feeling one has towards someone else or a thing (Gonger and Riggio, 2007:312). It could be positive or negative. Having a positive attitude towards someone may lead to a condition of liking that person. But when one has a negative attitude towards someone or something, chances are that one may develop a feeling of dislike for that person or thing (Gonger and Riggio, 2007:313; Fisher and Muller, 2005:17). For example, if one has a negative feeling towards smoking, most probably one may not choose to smoke but if one admires smokers as being people who are "cool", one may probably end up smoking too.

Theory X and Theory Y were developed by D.M McGregor who postulated in his book "The human Side of Enterprise" that the attitude of a manager towards his or her employees can either be positive or negative (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2000:208). McGregor's argument is that there are two approaches in managerial thinking about what may motivate people. The first approach is that some managers are of

the attitude that people dislike work and would invariably avoid it where possible (Tyson, 2006:194-196). McGregor calls this phenomenon Theory X and because of this view about employees, managers who believe in this approach tend to adopt a coercive and heavy controlling style of leadership for the purpose of ensuring that employees work productively towards reaching institutional objectives (Maurik, 2001:14).

Theory X is particularly prevalent in public institutions where adherence to rules and regulations becomes the order of the day. Any employee who does not *ödance* to the tune is dealt with accordingly. The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995:3.1.2h) calls this phenomenon a *rule-bound culture* and it is regarded as a serious challenge towards effective service delivery by public institutions in South Africa (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:2). Public sector managers are judged by their adherence to rules and regulations and those managers who try to operate outside those rules are quickly brought to book through the disciplinary process (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:2).

McGregor also pointed out that there are managers who view their employees as having a high propensity towards work. To these managers, workers regard work as a natural thing such as play. Given the opportunity, these workers will direct themselves to be effective and productive in any activity that they have chosen. McGregor calls this phenomenon Theory Y (Maurik, 2001:15). Theory Y managers do not use brute force towards their employees, nor they try and influence their employees through bribery and manipulation instead, they offer appropriate rewards that usually appeal to the ego of the workers. Workers commit to institutional objectives on their own volition and power is usually decentralized (delegation) to enable them to work productively. The main thrust of Theory Y is that employees are *self-driven* and they would like to take charge and be responsible for the work they perform without being coerced or bribed. All they crave for is an enabling or empowering leadership so that they can perform optimally.

2.5.1.7 Demise of the trait approach to leadership

The purpose of this section is to explain the reasons that led to the demise of the trait approach to leadership. The previous sections have provided an insight into the value of the personality trait theory of leadership. The fundamental premise of this theory is the hypothesis that personality traits do affect leadership. This hypothesis was an endeavour towards answering the question: does personality

affect leadership? The trait theory has implied that indeed, personality traits do affect leadership and it sought to prove that leaders possess certain qualities that differentiated them from followers. If it were true that leaders have qualities that are different from followers, the aim of leadership research under the auspices of the trait theory was to identify those qualities that leaders have that differentiated them from their followers (van Eeden, 2005:22).

It is apparent that the aim of the trait theory was to create a managerial leadership elite that would then enforce its dominance upon the majority under the guise that only certain individuals are blessed with certain qualities that the majority of the people do not have and the aim was to create a ruling class that would justify its dominance by claiming that its members were born with rare qualities that gave them the right to lead others. The idea was, either one was *born with it* or one was *born without it*. If one were born without these qualities, there was no hope that one would make it as a leader. Maurik (2001:4) supports this view by stating that *the prevailing belief was that leaders were born rather than made and so it was only necessary to define the qualities of a born leader in order to pinpoint those individuals who would take the reins of power in the future*. Indeed as a result of this belief, a number of traits were being discovered and the list began to swell in such a manner that researchers began to worry about the exact nature and utility of those traits.

- Reasons for the demise of the trait theory

In the late 1950s, some researchers began to question the premise that personality traits result in effective leadership. As research in the field of leadership intensified, it became apparent that the trait theory was not able to address some critical questions that researchers wanted to answer. Questions that investigated issues like the following were not adequately resolved by the trait theory (Northouse, 2001:32).

- Endless list of traits

The trait theory failed to demonstrate beyond any reasonable doubt the core traits that are critical for effective leadership. This was exacerbated by the fact that the list of traits kept on growing and growing as more research were conducted on the subject (Williams *et al.* 1985:345; Perry, 2010:78-79).

The trait theory also suffered from *researcher subjectivity* in terms of emphasis. Researchers tended to glorify those traits that they were in favour of and this led to

differences in treatment of those traits. What one researcher saw as being fundamental traits, another researcher would ignore and instead, would recommend different ones (Williams *et al.* 1985:345).

- Situational conditions

The trait theory failed to recognize the fact that leadership may depend on the situation under which the leader finds himself or herself. A leader may excel under one condition and may fail dismally when transferred to another situation. For example, leaders who are excellent in private sector organizations may fail hopelessly when transferred to head public institutions (Tossi *et al.* 2000:461).

- Failure to look at traits in relation to leadership outcomes

Another downfall of the trait theory was that it failed to look at traits in relation to the leadership outcome (Tosi *et al.*, 2000:466). Although the qualities of the leader were acknowledged, how those qualities impacted on the followers was not measured. Followers were regarded as passive participants and as long as the leader had the right qualities, the assumption was that he or she would be able to affect positive outcome without bothering about the actual measure of the outcomes (Aldag and Brief, 1981:312).

- Followers also displayed similar traits

When studies were conducted to determine whether followers were genetically different from their leaders, it was found that no such genetic differences occurred (Fisher and Muller, 2005:10). Followers were just as ambitious as their leaders, just as intelligent if not more intelligent than their leaders. Another point to note is that followers were capable of altering their attitudes depending on the situation (The Hawthorn effect). Likewise, a dreadful employee under one situation may turn out to be a highly productive worker under different situations. Another example is that some people may appear dull and lazy during their young lives only to turn out as super geniuses as they grow older. For example, Bill Gates of Microsoft dropped out of Harvard University but went on to change the course of computer technology in the entire world forever (www.pinoyblogosphere.com/.../bill-gates-talks-about-being-a-harvard-dropout/).

- Difficulty in training people with fixed traits

If one's traits made him or her superman or superwoman, why would they want to change them? The old adage that says one cannot 'teach an old dog new tricks' is valid in this regard. People with highly valued traits showed reluctance to learn new discoveries as they were blinded by their arrogance and pomposity (Aldag and Brief, 1981:312). They showed no propensity to adapt to changing situations because they regarded themselves as divine rulers of others. They simply did not believe that leadership abilities could be acquired through training. Changing their traits meant changing their status and that would not be tolerated hence the resistance to training (Northouse, 2001:32; Lewis *et al.* 2004:404; Bloch and Whiteley, 2003:41).

2.5.2 Behaviour approach to leadership

The leadership traits theory was the first approach to the study of leadership as a component of the management function within private and public institutions (Avery, 2004:70). The limitations of the trait approach as discussed above such as; endless list of traits, ignoring situational conditions, failure to look at traits in relation to the leadership outcomes, failure to realise that followers did have the same traits and the difficulty of training people with fixed traits, led some researchers to focus on other approaches and the behaviour approach was one of the approaches that were created as an alternative to the traits theory.

The purpose of this section is to explain the reasons that led to the creation of the behaviour approach and also to discuss the early theorists and their models that helped to shape the behaviour approach. The contribution made by the behaviour approach to the study of leadership theory will also be discussed and lastly, limitations associated with the behaviour approach will also be discussed.

2.5.2.1 Reasons for developing the behaviour approach

Fleishman (in Northouse, 2001:35) says that the difference between the trait approach and the behaviour approach is that whilst the trait approach focuses on the personality characteristics or qualities of the leader, the behaviour approach focuses on *what the leader does* and how he or she behaves towards the subordinates. In other words, the trait theory's main thrust is to *study the leaders* whereas the main thrust of the behaviour approach is to *study leadership*, which basically, is the study of the leader's actions or behaviour towards followers (Bovaird and Löffler, 2003:179). Maurik (2001:7) amplifies this point by stating

that the fundamental premise of the behaviour approach was to proclaim that leadership could be acquired by anybody through training. This meant that any person who aspired to be an effective leader could improve through leadership training. This doctrine was an attempt at opening up the leadership club to everybody with the right attitude as opposed to the personality trait theory that restricted leadership to a select few who were believed to be the only ones endowed with the leadership qualities. Another point to note as departure from the trait theory is that the behaviour theory began to attach the conduct of leaders insofar as it impacts on the followers. Followers were no longer taken as passive participants but were now regarded as equally important for successful leadership (Tosi *et al.* 2000:457).

2.5.2.2 Proponents of the behaviour approach

The aim of this section is to discuss those pioneers who helped in shaping the behaviour theory. For the purpose of this study, only four of the original models will be discussed. It is important to note that this study is based on the American approach to leadership and as such, the leadership context would be influenced by the social dynamics prevailing at the time in the United States of America. For example, the behaviour theory of leadership came about in the 1940s when the U.S Army experienced a serious shortage of the kind of leaders described by the personality trait approach because of the fact that America found itself being drawn deeper and deeper into the Second World War. Army officers without strong leadership personality traits began to do work that was reserved for leaders with the so called natural traits and people began to comment that "John is not a leader but..." and this began to attract interest in research in this field of leadership as organizations began to recruit leaders who were not strong on personality traits (Maurik, 2001).

Another important point to bear in mind according to Lussier and Achua (2004:64) is that the behaviour approach did not discredit the trait approach instead, it used the qualities as defined by the trait approach to focus on how the behaviour of a leader affect the productivity of followers. Good behaviour was associated with high productivity and bad behaviour was associated with low productivity.

- The University of Iowa leadership styles model

As early as the 1930s, in the University of Iowa, Kurt Lewin and his associates (Hooper, 2006:482) began to investigate the link between the manager's style of leadership and its effect on employee productivity. They discovered that managers

could adopt one of the two styles which they called autocratic style of leadership where the manager decides every facet of the work to be carried out and then would instruct his or her subordinate on how to carry it out. The other style was called the democratic style of leadership where the manager involved his or her subordinate from the design of the work to be done right to its implementation. Another distinguishing feature of the democratic leadership style is that the democratic leader encourages participation in decision-making, involves employees on what to do and delegate powers on how employees should do the work.

Kurt Lewin and associates (van Wart, 2008:74) called their model the leadership styles and was put on a continuum where on the left hand side the autocratic behaviour of the manager was placed and on the right hand side, the democratic style of the manager was plotted and if the manager exhibited a mixture of the two styles, these would be plotted somewhere along the continuum.

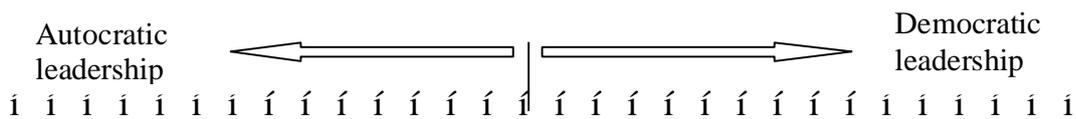


Figure 2.3 The University of Iowa leadership styles model (Sourced from: Lussier and Achua, 2004:65)

- The University of Michigan leadership model

In the mid 1940s to mid 1950s, The University of Michigan as well as the University of Ohio began focusing on the behaviour of managers and their effects on employee performance (Dale, 1978:319; Tosi *et al.* 2000:460). Although these two Universities focused on the same field, their researches were independent of each other. The Michigan Model focused on the following:

Under the auspices of the University of Michigan Survey Research Centre headed by Rensis Likert, research was undertaken for the purpose of determining leadership effectiveness in organizations (Tyson, 2006:35-6). A questionnaire called the 'Survey of Organizations' was created for the purpose of gathering appropriate data on leadership styles. The goal of the research was to classify leaders in terms of their performance as leaders and as a result, leaders were categorized either as effective or ineffective. The other goal of the Michigan Research Project was to identify factors that lead to effective leadership (Stoner, 1982:357; Tosi *et al.* 2000:460).

Two leadership styles were identified under the Michigan leadership Model (Stoner, 1982:357; Tosi *et al.* 2000:460-461). The first one was called *job-centred* leadership style and the second one was named *employee-centred* leadership style. It is interesting to note the similarity between the Michigan Leadership Model and the Iowa Model. They were all one dimensional with two leadership styles and this meant that they would be plotted on a continuum with the opposite extremes being job-centred (autocratic) or employee-centred (democratic).

- Job-centred leadership style

The job centred leadership style meant that the leader focused on the work to be performed and he or she unilaterally did all the planning and then enlisted his or her subordinates in its implementation. The subordinates were closely supervised to make sure that they perform their duties according to the leader's plan. In this style, subordinates did not have much say on how the job was to be designed and carried out, theirs was simply to implement the plan as it was presented. The notion at the time was that as a subordinate, one was paid to work and not to think as the function of decision-making was made an exclusive domain of management. The proponent of this kind of leadership style was Frederick Taylor in his book *Scientific Management Model* (Robbins, 1988:34-35; Tosi *et al.* 2000:6-7).

- Employee-centred leadership style

An employee-centred leader was regarded as someone who places great emphasis on the welfare of workers. This type of leader would ensure that the human needs of employees are taken care of and also, developing good relationship with employees was critical for such a leader. In short, this was a people's leader. A leader who was there to make sure that his or her subordinates were satisfied with the conditions at work, that they were treated as people and not as machines as is the case under the job-centred leadership style. The leader would be sensitive to the needs of subordinates and would communicate so as to foster trust, and develop support and respect while taking care of their general welfare (Morgan,1986:42).

- The University of Ohio leadership model

The University of Ohio leadership model was created under the auspices of The Personnel Research Board of Ohio State University (Clark and Tudor, 2006:36). Ralph Stogdill was the Principal of the Faculty at the time. The research team was also keen to distinguish between effective and ineffective leadership styles and for that purpose, they developed a research tool which they called the *Leader*

Behaviour description questionnaire (LBDQ). Unlike the Michigan data gathering tool, the Ohio tool had two dimensions or leadership types which had 150 examples of definitive leader behaviour (selected from 1800 leadership variables). The leadership dimensions were *initiating structure behaviour* and *consideration behaviour* (Clark and Tudor, 2006:36).

It is once again interesting to note the similarities between the Michigan Model and the Ohio Model. Initiating structure behaviour is the same as job-centred leadership style and consideration behaviour is the same as employee-centred leadership style. The main difference between these models is that whilst the Michigan Model had one dimension with two leadership styles, the Ohio Model had two dimensions and four leadership styles as follows:

- Dimensions
 - Initiating structure behaviour
 - Consideration behaviour
- Leadership styles
 - Low structure and high consideration

Leaders with low structure and high consideration tend to share the process of decision-making with their subordinates using the two-way communication mechanism (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003:20).

- Low structure and low consideration

This leadership style depicts a manager who is weak in both dimensions. The leader is unable to plan effectively what the team must accomplish and also, he or she is not good at handling subordinates humanly (Stoner, 1982:473; Aldag and Brief, 1981:314-315; Perry, 2010:79).

- High structure and low consideration

A manager who is high on structure uses one-way communication channel. The subordinates are not involved in the planning of the work. This type of leader is not very effective in handling subordinates as the focus is mainly on production and subordinates are expected to carry out orders and not discuss planning issues (Stoner, 1982:473; Tosi *et al.* 2000:460).

- High structure and high consideration

A manager who is high on both structure and consideration is regarded as the ideal leader. This leader is a master strategist who is able to enlist his or her followers to perform at their optimum so that there is a win-win situation (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:165). The institution will win from high worker productivity whereas the employee will also win because his or her welfare would be taken care of (job satisfaction).

It is interesting to note at this stage that the study is based on this model. It seeks to investigate how leadership behaviour affects employee morale with the assumption that high morale leads to high productivity (win-win situation).

High	Low structure	High structure
	High consideration	High consideration
Low	Low structure	High structure
	Low consideration	Low consideration
	Low	High

Figure 2.4: The Ohio State University Leadership Model (Sourced from Lussier and Achua, 2004:69)

- Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid

The Leadership Grid Model which was formerly known as the Management Grid was developed by Blake and Mouton of the University of Texas and was published in 1964 (Thomas, 2006:45). The Leadership Grid Model was developed based on the Michigan and Ohio Models. It used the same dimensions found in the Ohio Model changing the names to *concern for production* and *concern for people* (Thomas, 2006:46-47). The two dimensions of concern for people and concern for production are measured on a scale of 1 to 9 and these constitute possible

combinations of 81. This means that a leader's style could fall anywhere within the grid. For example, a leader's style could be measured on the grid as being 1.2, 1.5, 9.5 or 9.9.

The only difference is that instead of having four leadership styles, the Leadership Grid Model has five leadership styles and these are:

- The impoverished leader (1.1)

The impoverished leader is a manager who has low concern for production and also low concern for people. He or she does just the minimum required to remain employed on the job. This leader stands at 1.1 on the leadership grid (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:166).

- The authority-compliance leader (9.1)

On the other hand, a leader whose scores are 9.1 has a high concern for production and the leader will focus on the job to be done and has less concern for people. People are treated as one of the inputs to production and their concerns are kept outside the work environment (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:166).

- The country-club leader (1.9)

The country club manager has high concern for people and low concern for production. The leader strives to maintain a people friendly environment and pays little attention to production. In other words, the subordinates will have an empowering working environment but the job will not be taken seriously (Aldag and Brief, 1981:318).

- The middle-of-the-road leader (5.5)

The middle-of-the-road leader is the one who performs at the middle on both styles. This kind of leader would focus his or her energy 50 percent on production and also he or she would have a 50 percent consideration for the subordinates (Aldag and Brief, 1982:318).

- The team leader (9.9)

The team leader style of leadership is the ideal (perfect) situation. This is the leader who has high concern for both production and people. This is the ultimate

performer. This is someone who is able to set high standards and then also enlist subordinates to perform at maximum level. This means that production will be high and the people will be fully motivated (Lewis *et al.* 2004:412).

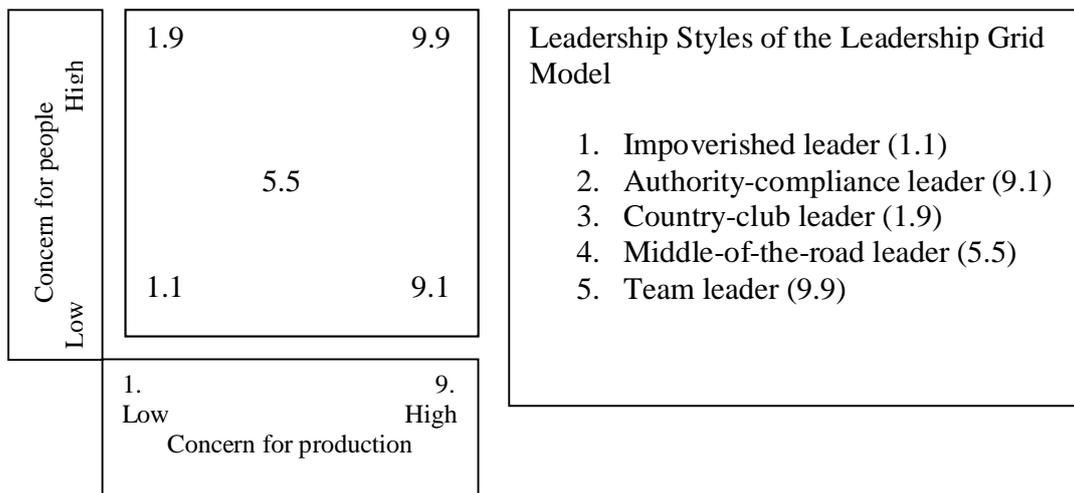


Figure 2.5: The Leadership Grid Model of Blake and Mouton (Sourced from Lussier and Achua, 2004:71)

2.5.2.3 Contribution of the behaviour approach

The contribution of the behaviour approach to leadership is succinctly explained by Northouse (2004:44) where he states that there are four advantages that were brought about by the creation of the behaviour approach:

- The behaviour approach marked major departure from trait approach

Whereas the trait theory contributed by identifying personality traits that are critical to the function of leadership, the behaviour approach although acknowledging the role of personality traits, expanded the leadership theory by including the actions of the leader in respect of the job to be carried out and also, in respect of the relationship of the leader with those he or she leads (Avery, 2004:72-73).

- Conceptualization of leadership behaviour

The behaviour approach succeeded in conceptualising the behaviour of the leader into two dimensions: the work or job to be performed and the relationship issues a leader may have with his or her subordinate (Avery, 2004:72). The underlying

assumption of this approach is that when the leader is performing the leadership function, he or she is essentially wearing two caps or behaviours at the same time and these behaviours are that the leader must focus on both the work to be performed as well as the ability to build the team that is tasked with the responsibility of carrying out the work (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003:19-24).

- Behaviour approach is backed by scientific evidence

The behaviour approach, just as was the case with the trait approach, is also backed by credible research evidence as was explained above. A few of those studies were discussed for the purpose of the study but there are scores of researchers that have subsequently carried out research in this field and up to this day a number of studies are being undertaken under the behaviour approach. For example, this study is part of those studies that are contemporary being undertaken right across the globe (Cooper, 2003:2).

- Behaviour approach offers heuristic approach to leadership theory

For the first time leaders could have a mirror that reflects how they behave when they are engaged in the function of leadership. This meant that leaders could get feed-back regarding their leadership style and one of the underlying assumptions of the behaviour approach is that leadership behaviour is learnable and anyone who wants to improve his or her leadership behaviour can do so through training and coaching. This fundamental assumption was necessary in order to move away from the notion that claimed that leadership qualities are basically inborn. This was an attempt at democratization of the work environment by providing an environment where anyone with the right attitude could learn the tenets of good leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:13).

2.5.2.4 Limitations of the behaviour approach

Just like the trait approach, the behaviour approach is also loaded with controversies. Some writers began to point out a number of shortcomings associated with this approach. Northouse (2004:45) has listed among others the following factors that led researchers to turn to other approaches:

- The behaviour approach has led to inconclusive results

The behaviour approach has not provided evidence that provide a link between task, relations and outcomes such as productivity, morale and job satisfaction.

Sometimes researchers produced contradictory results (Yuki, in Northouse, 2004:45; Avery, 2004:75).

- The behaviour approach has failed to find universal leadership behaviour

The behaviour approach just like the trait approach before it, failed to find universal behaviour that would lead to effective leadership. Researchers tended to emphasise different elements of behaviour. For example, the Michigan Model was born out of 1800 elements of behaviour and these were eventually narrowed down to 1500 elements. It is possible that the 1500 elements were chosen based on the researchers' subjective views of what constituted good leadership behaviour at the time (Wright, 1996:18-19).

- The high-high condition ignores contingency factors

The ideal situation of the behaviour is that the leader should be high on task and also be high on relations, hence the term high-high. This means that the leader should set high performance standards and then enlist his subordinate through democratic leadership to perform at optimum output. The problem with this assumption according to Wright (1996:47) is that it ignores the environment under which a leader may find himself or herself operating. Some situations may require high task orientation while others may demand high people-centred behaviour. A leader who is an excellent performer in the private sector may fail dismally when transferred to the public sector. For example, after 1994, the then minister of finance retired and Derrick Keys was appointed. Derek Keys (former executive chairman of Gencor since 1986) had performed excellently in the private sector but that success could not carry him through in the public sector environment and he ended up quitting without making any major impact in the public sector as was the case in the private sector (www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Derek_Keys).

- The behaviour approach also focuses on the leader

Another weakness of the behaviour approach is that it focuses exclusively on the behaviour of the leader. It assumes that the followers of the leader would behave like a swarm of bees that must follow the queen wherever she migrates. People are not like bees, they may in fact behave quite to the contrary no matter how nice the leader is (Puccio, Murdock and Mance, 2007:11). The assumption that the leader needs to behave democratically so as to raise the morale of the subordinate may be too simplistic if it ignores the *role of the subordinates* in the process and also, the *conditions* under which the process of leadership is taking place is equally

important (Wright, 1996:47). This latter statement has led some researchers to explore the role of the environment in the leadership process and they developed the contingency approach to leadership which will be discussed under the contingency approach. But before discussing the contingency approach, two more leader focussed approaches need amplification. These are: power approach to leadership and transformational approach to leadership.

2.5.3 Power approach to leadership

The definition of leadership as adopted by this study was discussed in the introduction to this chapter as having five dimensions which are: a) there must be a *leader*, b) there must be a *group* of people who must submit to the leadership of the leader, c) the leader must *influence* the group and in turn, the group must also *influence* the leader and d) leadership is a *process* that takes place all the time which means it is not an event that happens once or twice but it is a continuous process as long as the relationship between the leader and the group remains constant, and e) the relationship must be based on a specific *outcome* (Grint, 2005:15). In other words, the leadership equation can be expressed in the following manner: leadership=leader + group + influence + process + outcome.

The power approach to leadership is an attempt at explaining how the leader exerts influence on followers and as such, it also focuses on the leader and how the leader uses power to influence followers to act or behave in a specific manner (Grint, 2005:46). Under this section, the reasons that led to the development of the power approach will be explored and thereafter, the early proponents of the approach and their models will be discussed. The contribution of the power approach to the study of leadership will then be discussed and last but not least, the limitations of the power approach will be investigated.

2.5.3.1 Reasons for developing the power approach

The power approach was brought about by the premise that power is an integral part of leadership (Robbins, 1990:251). In an institutional setting, a leader must have power so as to be able to direct the conduct of followers. Early researchers in the field were guided by this question: *what gives leaders the right to command others to act in a certain manner?* From this question, researchers were able to identify power as being at the centre of leadership in institutions. The next question that was asked was: *what is power and how does one acquire it?* Power was then defined as the *ability to exert influence upon others* (Stoner, 1982:304; Avery, 2004:42). Looking back to the definition of leadership adopted by this study, it is

apparent that the ability to influence and be influenced is driven by forces of power.

The ability to exert influence on others was defined as a “*process of affecting others’ attitudes and behaviour in order to achieve an objective or outcome*” (Lussier and Achua, 2004:102; Macdonald, Burke and Stewart, 2006:80-82). This statement suggests that the ability to influence subordinates in an institutional setting has direct effect on institutional performance. The underlying assumption is that every leader should have the ability to influence his or her subordinates towards the attainment of the stated outcome. A leader without influence would be deemed as being unable to mobilise subordinates towards the realisation of the stated outcome (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:125). For example, should subordinates ignore the leader’s call to work towards the realisation of the stated outcome, the institution would not be able to deliver services to its clients as mandated and this anomaly has been demonstrated in the institutions where violent strikes have taken place such as some of the institutions of higher learning and also, some municipalities of the local government.

2.5.3.2 Proponents of the power approach

In 1959, two researchers, French and Raven conceptualised the power approach in the social sciences by providing a framework under which the power phenomenon could be studied (Northouse, 2001:6). French and Raven postulated that there was a dyadic relationship to power. This meant that both the leader and the led have a role to play in the power equation. For example, the followers must accept the fact that the leader has influence over them and the leader must also recognize the fact that followers may have the ability to resist the influence being exerted (Tosi *et al.* 2000:422).

- Nature of power

According to Stoner (1982:304), power is based on the premise that certain individuals (managers of institutions) have legitimacy or lawfulness or authority because of their positions within institutions to exert influence within prescribed conditions to their followers. For example, before people comply with an instruction, they need to satisfy themselves that the person issuing it has the right to do so. The question to be asked or assumed is, “what gives one the right to tell others what to do?” The answer is imbedded in the assumption that managers are authorised to issue instructions within certain parameters to their subordinates and

that subordinates must accept the instructions as being legitimate and must duly comply (Aldag and Brief, 1981:340).

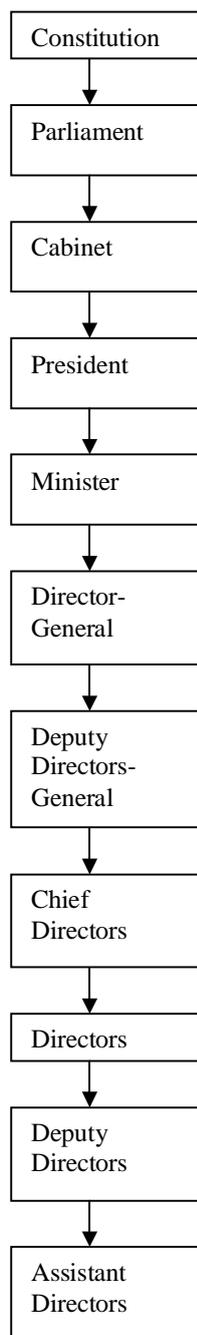
There are three views on the nature of power: the acceptance view, the classical view and the McClelland Model (Williams *et al.* 1985:228) and these are discussed below.

- Acceptance view of nature of power

The classical view of the origin of formal authority implies that as long as the person issuing the instruction is authorized to do so, the receiver of the instruction ought to comply. This view ignores a very serious condition which may be that the receiver of the instruction may refuse to carry out the instruction even if it comes from legitimate source. This has led to the creation of the acceptance view whose main proponent is Chester Barnard (Stoner, 1982:305). This view postulates that in order for an instruction to be carried out, the person who is supposed to do so (subordinate) must first of all, agree with it (accept the instruction). Stoner (1982:305); Dickens and Dickens (1991:361) illuminate this doctrine by stating that the key point is that it is the person that receives the instruction who must decide whether or not to comply with it, that is, to act in accordance with the directives contained in the instructions (Williams *et al.* 1985:228-229). In the acceptance viewpoint, therefore, whether or not authority is present in any particular law or order is determined by the receiver, not the person issuing the order (Tosi *et al.* 2000:328). If the person does not accept the instruction, it simply won't matter whether it originated from the highest authority or not as it will not be

- Classical view of power

The classical view of the nature of power is that formal authority originates at some very high level of society and is distributed all the way down to the lowest levels of management (Stoner, 1982:304; Williams *et al.* 1985:228). For example, in South Africa, the constitution is the highest source of authority that may create a conducive environment for the creation of both public and private institutions. The national institutions known as national departments are public institutions that are authorised to carry out certain government mandates and their source of authority may be understood to be the following: the constitution, the parliament, the cabinet, the president, the minister, the director-general, the deputy-directors-general, the chief directors, the directors, the deputy directors and the assistant directors and this distribution of authority may be illustrated graphically as indicated on figure 2.6 below.



The nature of power in public institutions is such that authority emanates from higher authority. For example, parliament has authority over all the levels below it and the president has authority over all structures below him or her. The minister is the highest authority in a department and this process of power distribution will continue to cascade down to the lowest authority, the assistant director in the graph.

The distribution of power as depicted by the classical model raises a very interesting debate when it comes to whistle-blowing. A junior official may be powerless in terms of reporting maladministration if the act is performed by a higher authority. This is so because the burden of proof may be too complicated for the junior official and should the case be investigated and be found to be baseless, the life of the junior official would be made a living hell.

Another difficulty with this top-down distribution of power is that the higher authority is deemed to have more skills than the lower ranks. It sometimes occurs that a junior official becomes more educated or experienced than the superior authority and this may lead to unnecessary conflicts because the superior authority may feel vulnerable. For example, a director may have a doctoral qualification and be supervised by a chief director who has a junior degree and should the director be asked to present a project in the director-general's office, the chief director may view this situation as serious threat and may adopt a toxic approach towards the learned director to the point of sabotaging projects emanating from him or her (director).

On the other hand, the advantage of the top-down power distribution is that there is a clear line of accountability. These are public institutions funded by tax-payers' monies and as such, clearly defined accountability is critical so as to make sure that prudent use of public funds is promoted.

Figure 2.6: Simplified classical view of power distribution (Adapted from Stoner (1982:305))

Carried out (Grint, 2005:46). For example, some motorists may decide to ignore a road sign instruction that fixes the maximum speed to be driven at 60km even if they are aware that exceeding this limit may result in criminal charges. The question is, why do some motorists ignore road signs given the risk of being charged with traffic offences? The answer is provided by the acceptance view when it claims that it is the person who receives the instruction that will decide

how to react to it. The choice could be to comply or not to comply (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:145).

Chester Barnard has, according to Stoner (1982:305), defined the conditions under which a person will accept an instruction from higher authority into four dimensions that needs to be present simultaneously:

- The person who receives the instruction must be capable of and willing to understand it.
- At the time when the instruction was being decided upon, the receiver must believe that it is not in conflict with the purpose of the institution.
- At the time of deciding on how to react to the instruction, the receiver must be convinced that it is in line with his or her personal interest or objective.
- The receiver must be able, mentally and physically, to carry out the instruction.

- David McClelland Model of nature of power (in Stoner, 1982:308)

According to the McClelland Model, there are two dimensions of power: a positive dimension and a negative dimension of power (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:261). The negative dimension is expressed in terms of the propensity to dominate others. Some individuals are born with the inclination to command others and they use power as an instrument of expressing their will over others. This Model implies a condition usually known as *zero-sum power* arrangement. This phenomenon means that if two people are in a power relationship, the first person will have hundred percent power, and the second person will have zero percent power (the winner takes all mentality) (Stoner, 1982:308; Williams *et al.* 1985:361).

The positive dimension of power is best reflected by a concern for institutional goals and this implies that power will be decentralized so that even the subordinates will have a share in the design of the instruction instead of being receivers of instructions all the time (Avery, 2004:44-45). This means that power will be distributed in a *win-win* format as the leader would always seek the approval of his or her subordinates before making a decision regarding the work to be carried out. The leader is said to exert influence rather than the use of formal power to direct the conduct of his or her subordinates. Whilst the negative view of power leads to passive participation, the positive view implies active engagement of subordinates from the designing of tasks to be performed right down to the

implementation of those tasks. This is sometimes called *democratic approach* to power utilisation and this means that subordinates would be encouraged to function as teams, would be supported in their quest to realise institutional objectives and would be rewarded for their positive efforts and these measures would be expected to lead to morale boosting conditions for subordinates (Stoner, 1982:308; Day, Zaccaro and Halpin, 2004:92-93).

- Sources of power

The French and Raven Model (van Wart, 2008:99) identified five dimensions of power as tabled below and these dimensions of power are: legitimate (position) power, coercive power, reward power, expert power and referent power. These dimensions were attempts at explaining the kinds of power that a manager could possess and use when dealing with his or her subordinates. It has been discussed above that some theorists approached the phenomenon of power from the manager's view (formal or position power) whilst other researchers approached it from the subordinate's point of view (personal power). French and Raven (van Wart, 2008:99) came up with an integrative model so that both views could be presented as one model. At the centre of the French and Raven Model, is the view that a manager has both formal or (position) and personal power and that in the main the type of power the manager chooses to employ, will determine the degree of influence the manager would have in issuing instructions and soliciting compliance by subordinates. Lussier and Achua (2004:102) have argued that what is of paramount importance to note is the fact that power is not normally used in directing the conduct of subordinates but it is the perception of power rather than the use of it that induces compliance. For example, if one is confronted by a criminal wielding a firearm, one would normally comply with the instructions issued by the criminal with the hope that the actual power possessed by the criminal (to pull the trigger) would not be acted upon. Likewise, in every institution, it is a universal perception that managers have formal power over their subordinates and because of that perception, subordinates would normally be able to comply with instructions issued by superiors without asking the source of that authority to issue directives (Tosi *et al.* 2000:424).

Personal power on the other hand can be possessed by both manager and subordinate (Lussier and Achua, 2004:103; Buchanan and Badham, 2008:47-8). Personal power is based on behavioural derivatives. This is when a manager tries to influence his or her subordinates by using charisma so that subordinates end up developing the desire to model their behaviour based on the way the manager

projects himself or herself towards them. For example, most people would like to model their political leadership on Nelson Mandela's charisma.

One of the challenges for South African leaders of institutions is that there are very few well known outstanding leaders (directors-general and chief executive officers) with highly inspiring charismatic leadership and as a result, the upcoming rank and file, do not have leadership role models. Almost every public institution is embroiled in serious internal power struggles that have resulted in clan formation and this phenomenon is being reported repeatedly in the media, for example, present leadership squabbles at the South African Airways (SAA), Spoornet, South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), Eskom, UNISA, Johannesburg Metro and others (Mantashe in revealing look at ANC -disarrayø The Mercury, January 25, 2010:2; Minister sued for Arms Secrets. Sunday Tribune, August 16, 2009: Page5; Cabinet Knew of ex-CEO's super settlement- SAA Multimillion payout still making waves. The Star, March 25, 2009:5).

- Legitimate or position power

When a public institution is being created or restructured, a number of functional units are designed and at the end, the organogram of the institution is produced and it is this organogram that indicates how power is distributed throughout the institution (Fisher and Muller, 2005:16-17). To determine the power a manager has, one needs to establish the position of that manager in terms of the organogram (Crandall, 2007:310). For example, a manager who heads a functional unit will normally have more power than any manager who operates within that functional unit (below the manager who heads the unit). This implies that formal or position power is awarded by the structure of the institution (Macdonald *et al.* 2006:85). To further illustrate the point using a university example, a dean of a faculty has more power over the teaching and non-teaching personnel within that faculty and that power is awarded by the structural position of being head of faculty.

It is the possession of structural power that gives managers authority to instruct subordinates to perform directed instructions within institutions and without it, serious conflicts would ensue (Buchanan and Badham, 2008:50). The question that was asked in the beginning of this section about 'what gives one the right to tell others what to do?' can be answered in this way: one has the right to tell others what to do based on one's *formal or positional power*. This implies that the conduct of an employee who consistently refuses to accept instructions emanating from his or her supervisor may be charged for *insubordination* (refusing to accept instruction from superior) provided the instruction was within the authority of the

superior (van Wart, 2008:97; Hunt *et al.* 1988:75). This is supported by the classical view on the nature of power that has provided the normative view that every subordinate must accept and carry out instructions issued by superior authority as long as it is in line with the Chester Barnard Model which indicates that: firstly, the person who receives the instruction must be capable of and willing to understand it, secondly, at the time when the instruction was being decided upon, the receiver must believe that it is not in conflict with the purpose of the institution, thirdly, at the time of deciding on how to react to the instruction, the receiver must be convinced that it is in line with his or her personal interest or objective, and fourthly, the receiver must be able, mentally and physically, to carry out the instruction (Tosi *et al.* 2000:426).

- Coercive power

Coercive power involves punishments and the withholding of rewards in order to influence compliance (Fisher and Muller, 2005:16). It is the equalizer where open insubordination is the order of the day. Insubordination may be punished within the power inherent in the manager's authority. For example, if a subordinate constantly refuses to carry out instructions given by the manager, the disciplinary measures that may be taken by the manager may involve the use of coercive force such as reprimands, probation, suspension or even dismissal (Hooper, 2006:281). Employees would normally do as requested as a result of the fear of being subjected to coercive power and the results of which could be that the subordinate may be awarded poor performance evaluations, the loss of annual bonus and salary increase, demotion, verbal abuse, humiliation, and ostracism. Coercive power is the sjambok that a manager may use to force compliance with lawfully directed instructions. It is the ultimate bitter pill that can be inflicted to a subordinate and as such, most subordinates do as they are told bearing in mind that failure to abide may lead to the use of coercive force against them (Macdonald *et al.* 2006:80).

It is important to note as pointed out by Lussier and Achua (2004:106) that coercive power works well if the offenders are in the minority within the manager's group of subordinates. Should the entire group be in a state of insubordination, the manager may not be able to use this type of power (Tosi *et al.* 2000:427). For example, the apartheid system survived as long as the majority of black people accepted it but after June 1976, black people started to resist the system under the propaganda of *making the minority government ungovernable* and as a result of the resistance to the apartheid system exerted from within and outside the country, the apartheid authorities had to agree to the abandonment of the system and that led to the first democratic election of April 1994.

- Reward power

Reward power refers to a condition where the manager is able to influence the conduct of a subordinate based on the ability of the manager to award rewards to the subordinate (Fisher and Muller, 2005:16). For example, the power of managers to evaluate subordinates for the purpose of awarding performance bonuses and promotions may induce subordinates to perform obediently. This implies that even if a subordinate would not have been happy to perform the task given, but because of the fear of losing out on performance bonus and the possibility of promotion, he or she would try to perform at the level that will solicit approval from the manager so as to qualify for the rewards (Stoner, 1982:306; Tosi *et al.* 2000:426).

- Expert power

Expert power refers to the expertise a person possesses (van Wart, 2008:97). A manager is deemed to be more knowledgeable than the subordinate and as such, the subordinate would abide by the instruction coming from the manager because of the perception that the manager knows what's best for the unit (Vecchio, 2007:310). Earlier in this chapter it was argued that unfortunately, some subordinates are more experienced and highly qualified than the manager and that may lead to conflicts as the subordinates may realise the shortcomings of the manager. Managers who find themselves faced with this challenge will normally resort to coercive power as they try to force compliance from subordinates. One of the principles of leadership coaching is that the subordinate should not be allowed to coach the manager as this may indicate that the manager lacks expert power which is deemed to be a primary requirement for one to operate as manager of others (Stoner, 1982:306; Tosi *et al.* 2000:427).

- Referent power

Referent power can be defined as the type of managerial power that is based on charisma and Buchanan and Badham (2008:48) define it as "power that is based on the belief of followers that the leader has desirable abilities and personality traits that can and should be copied." In other words, successful managers influence their subordinates to model their leadership behaviour based on the leadership behaviour of the managers. Managers who use referent power act as role models for their subordinates and the subordinates would then strive to emulate the leadership practices of the manager. Stoner (1982:306-307) amplifies this point by stating that referent power that may be held by an individual is largely based on the desire of the admiring person (influencee) to identify with or imitate the person who is doing

the influencing (influencer). For example, popular, conscientious managers will have referent power if subordinates are motivated to emulate their work habits. This implies that managers need to regard leadership as a relationship rather than a formal process. Stoner (1982:306) claims that if a manager lacks expert power, particularly a newly appointed one, they need to build strong personal relations with their subordinates so that the subordinates could then support the manager with the necessary technical skills required. For example, a newly appointed young doctor will have to build good relations with the experienced nurses so that they could offer guidance on certain procedures in the ward (Lewis *et al.* 2004:407).

One of the doctrines of good leadership is that managers must produce competent leaders who will take over after them and it is a crime against subordinates to suppress their leadership spirit for one's own jealousy (Wright, 1996:96). If one's subordinates show high propensity to grow within the institution, that individual should be encouraged by all means and not be branded a "radical" because he or she is thinking "outside the box." The old adage that says "today's pigs are tomorrow's bacon" is still a valid euphemism in leadership development. People that are brutalised and despised may end up being bosses of tomorrow. For example, when President Thabo Mbeki fired his deputy Jacob Zuma, he did not anticipate a situation where Jacob Zuma would be elected president of the African National Congress (ANC) and subsequently was elected president of the Republic of South Africa.

2.5.3.3 Contribution of the power approach

The power approach contributed to the study of leadership by illuminating the role of power in a superior-subordinate relationship (Tosi *et al.* 2000:422-423). Another important contribution of the power approach is that research has been conducted to determine whether effective leaders have or use different types of power than ineffective leaders, and to determine how much a leader uses each type of power (Williams, 2004:98). How and what kind of power a manager chooses to use, will determine the degree of success that a manager will have in dealing with his or her subordinates and what is important is that the power approach has created a condition where a manager can choose how he or she wants to use the power vested in him or her (Williams *et al.* 1985:229-230). Successful leaders seem to favour *personal* power than *position* power (Lussier and Achua, 2004:111; Williams *et al.* 1985:230). This implies that power is a necessary element of leadership as it creates order within institutions. Managers are authorised or given some power to direct the efforts of their subordinates and a manager without power is no manager at all. Members of institutions will probably know and understand

the power relations as stratified by the structure of the institution and this will enable them to accept and submit to superior authority so that the institution can produce its intended objectives.

Power is also an important element in terms of sorting out potential legal matters that may arise as a result of carrying out instructions as issued by a manager. For example, a superior who gives a subordinate an order that results in a legal challenge would be held accountable for the conduct of the subordinate since he or she is viewed as a source of authority from which subordinates are expected to act. A classical example is police brutality where the commander instructs the police to shoot to kill during a demonstration and should somebody be fatally wounded, the commander may be held accountable for he or she was the one who gave that particular order (Stoner, 1982:317; Williams et al. 1985:235; Tosi *et al.* 2000:424).

2.5.3.4 Limitations of the power approach

Just like the behaviour approach, the power approach has neglected the situation under which different managers operate (Aldag and Brief, 1981:345). Managers cannot use the same influencing strategy in all situations and it may be necessary to vary the tactics as warranted by the situation (Aldag and Brief, 1981:319; Tosi *et al.* 2000:461-466). For example, a leader of university professors may not use the same influencing tactics as a leader of a platoon of soldiers. The two situations are not the same. The university environment would encourage a degree of independent thinking of the subordinates whereas the army environment might be more formal and rigid and subordinates may not be afforded the opportunity to engage with superiors in a way of coming up with alternative solutions (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999:120).

2.5.4 Transformational leadership approach

The purpose of this section is to discuss the value of the transformational approach to the study of leadership. Like the previously discussed approaches, that is, trait approach, behaviour approach and power approach, the transformational approach is also leader-focussed. That means that it studies the role of the leader in the leadership equation that was postulated in the definition of leadership as presented in the beginning of this chapter (see section 2.4). This section will begin by explaining the reasons that led to the development of the transformational approach. It will then proceed by discussing early researchers and their models that helped in shaping the study of leadership using this approach. This will be followed by a discussion of the contribution of the transformational approach to

the study of leadership and finally, limitations associated with this approach will also be mentioned.

2.5.4.1 Reasons for developing the transformational leadership approach

Up to this point, the approaches to leadership have been largely based on the transactional approach paradigm which requires that a public manager should interact with his or her subordinates in such a manner that produces a win-win situation (Tosi *et al.* 2000:472-475). This implies that the outcome of the leadership process between the manager and his or her subordinates will largely be based on a negotiated settlement (trade-offs) based on the current status quo. That means that the fundamental platform under which the leadership process happens does not change, hence the term *transactional* leadership. Burns as quoted by Northouse (2001:132) states that transactional leadership is concerned with the bulk of leadership models that place their primary focus on the exchanges that take place between managers and their subordinates. Northouse (2001:132) goes on to provide the following examples: politicians who win votes by promising potential voters that there would be no tax increase if they are elected, are demonstrating transactional leadership. Managers who offer promotions to subordinates who excel in their performance are also exhibiting transactional leadership.

On the other hand, the transformational approach to leadership is a process whereby individuals undergo change that leads to them being transformed into a new order. Transformational leadership is concerned with values, ethics, standards and long-term objectives (Northouse, 2001:131). From Northouse's definition, it is clear that at the centre of the transformational approach lies the doctrine that says in order for an institution to perform at its optimum level, it has to undergo a fundamental shift away from what it is doing currently. To transform therefore, is to move from the current position to completely new terrain (to be born again).

To transform an institution or unit of an institution, a clearly defined shared vision should be propagated by the manager so that subordinates could be able to gravitate towards achieving the new objectives (Tosi *et al.* 2000:473). This argument is succinctly advocated by Lussier and Achua (2004:355) wherein they state that 'transformational leadership focuses on a leader's transforming abilities, rather than on personal characteristics and follower relations. Transformational leaders are known for moving and changing things *'in a big way,'* by communicating to followers a special vision of the future, tapping into followers' higher ideals and motives.' A case in point is that in South Africa, after the 1994 democratic elections, there was a huge buzz about how the public service should

be transformed and this process culminated in the production of the *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service 1995*. Indeed one could argue that a lot was achieved under this model. There was a drastic increase of historically disadvantaged individuals (HDIs) that were employed by public institutions and it is difficult to imagine for instance, that the Department of Agriculture, other than in the homelands, did not have black technocrats. Blacks were either employed as drivers, messengers and cleaners and none was employed in a position of leadership. The situation changed dramatically after 1994 to the extent that most of the higher positions in the Department are now occupied by black people. But the question still remains whether replacing white technocrats with black ones is in fact "transformation" if the fundamental culture of these institutions remains unchanged. That is, the same rules and procedures that blacks fought against are still intact except that they now serve a different elite than the one before 1994.

It is equally interesting to note the number of control mechanisms being exerted by Departments such as National Treasury (financial regulations) Department of Public Service and Administration (human resources) and others. These controls have tended to hinder rather than enable effective performance of public institutions. For example, the procurement of developmental funding for farmers is riddled with a number of control mechanisms to such an extent that it becomes impossible to provide funding to farmers at the right place and in the right time. For example, the Department of Agriculture came up with a micro financing scheme for farmers called Micro Agricultural Financial Institutions of South Africa (MAFISA) and it was decided that in order to make the Scheme effective, an independent institution should be created that will then be responsible for the implementation of the agricultural financing programme. This was rejected by National Treasury who recommended that the programme should be administered within the Department of Agriculture through the Land Bank and not by another independent institution. Whether or not that recommendation will lead to effective implementation of the fund, remains to be seen. These issues will also be explored further under the contingency approach (section 2.5.5).

2.5.4.2 Proponents of the transformational approach

According to Northouse (2001:132), the term *transformational leadership* was first used by Downton as early as 1973, thereafter, it was popularised by Burns in his work entitled "Leadership" which was published in 1978. Burns was a political sociologist who observed that some leaders such as Gandhi and King Jr were able to appeal to the aspirations of their followers with such verve and alacrity and that at the end, both leader and the followers were able to raise the level of motivation

and morality. For example, whilst Gandhi was fighting against the injustices caused by the apartheid system in South Africa, he found himself filled with intense desire to go back to India to raise the hopes and demands of millions of Indians that eventually led to their emancipation from colonialism and in the process he got changed himself. Adolf Hitler was one of the leaders who had such a gift at appealing to the emotions of his followers to the point of mesmerising them away from reality. His emotional appeal propelled him from an insignificant army officer to the position of president (Führer) (Kellerman, 2004:26-27).

What is at the centre of the transformational leadership theory is the premise that the role of the leader is to energise followers to change to a new paradigm by appealing to the things that are fundamental for their existence (Tosi *et al.* 2000:473). For example, some Islamic followers are capable of being motivated by their leaders to the point of committing suicide bombings so as to realise their fundamental objective of self-determination and freedom from neo-colonialism. The question is: what could drive a person to blow himself or herself up knowingly that once the button has been pressed, his or her life would be terminated? The answer may be provided by the transformational leadership paradigm where people may be psychological indoctrinated so that they cease to fight for their own interest but instead, they should fight for the group or organisation's cause.

Nelson Mandela is another example of a transformational leader; after his release from prison, he was able to mobilise his people to demand democratic elections and that process moved the South African population to another set of paradigm and as a result, the first democratic elections were held in 1994 and he became the first democratically elected president of the Republic of South Africa (Gerzon, 2006:48).

- Charismatic versus transformational leadership

It was Max Weber who offered a conceptualisation of the charisma phenomenon (Glassman and Swatos, 1986:1). To Max Weber, charisma is a special personality characteristic that gives a person superhuman or exceptional powers and is reserved for a few, is of divine origin, and results in the person being treated as a leader (Northouse, 2001:133; Tosi *et al.* 2000:440). Weber's definition implies that charismatic leaders are people who are born with the ability to create a shared vision which is capable of magnetising followers to enlist in the realisation of the vision as espoused by the charismatic leader.

To some writers, charismatic and transformational leadership is one and the same thing (Lussier and Achua, 2004:356). They contend that a transformational leader needs to possess charismatic qualities to be able to energise followers to share and support the new vision that is being propagated by the leader. On the other hand, some writers believe that there are fundamental differences between the two concepts. According to Lussier and Achua, there is a general agreement among writers that charismatic leaders are by nature, transformational but not all transformational leaders are charismatic. For example, Nelson Mandela was quite charismatic as a leader and on the other hand, Thabo Mbeki was not charismatic and yet he was a strong visionary more in particular in the handling of the economy.

Another important point to amplify is that by nature, charismatic leadership is normally short-lived. Charismatic leaders project such high levels of energy and in the process, they tend to burn out quickly (Weiss *et al.* 2007:8). They are like comets; they radiate so much energy and need to move on once the crisis that made them leaders has been eliminated. In extreme situations, if they do not move on, they end up being killed by the forces that are not happy with the new changes that are being propagated. For example, Gandhi, King Jr and J.F. Kennedy were all highly charismatic leaders and they were violently killed by those forces that were opposed to what was being propagated. If they stay too long, followers begin to notice shortcomings which may antagonise them. For instance, Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe was a highly revered charismatic leader but because he stayed too long, his followers began to notice serious shortcomings which have led to the alienation of some of his followers who ended up forming new political parties in opposition to ZANU-PF.

Charismatic leaders are usually created out of chaos. For example, if there was no brutal segregation in South Africa, leaders such as Gandhi and Mandela may not have been created. The major debate among writers as mentioned by Lussier and Achua (2004:341) is the locus of charismatic leadership. What are forces that propel some people to thrive as charismatic leaders? Is it because they are born charismatic leaders or do they become charismatic leaders in response to a distressful situation?

Some writers are of the view that because charismatic leaders have certain inborn qualities, they are able to articulate a clear vision to their followers regardless of the situation (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 2005:489). Leadership qualities that are necessary for a charismatic leader include among others the following: a strong sense of vision, exceptional communication skills, strong conviction,

trustworthiness, high self-confidence and intelligence, high energy and orientation (Gillette and McCollom, 1995:269). Supporters of this view would argue that leaders like King Jr and Gandhi had these qualities regardless of the situation and that's why they were so successful in mobilising their constituencies and if they did not possess these qualities, they would not have been successful irrespective of the situation. In other words, they did what they did because of who they were.

On the other side of this argument, there are some writers who hold the view that it is the situation that creates charismatic leaders (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995:489). The removal of the distressful situation from the equation would not create the opportunity for charismatic leadership. In other words, charismatic leaders thrive on chaos.

The third view of charismatic leadership acknowledges the presence of the two conditions, that is, there must be a distressful situation and also, that there must be someone who has the ability to energise people to take action (Kottler and Englar-Carlson, 2010:45-6). However, a third element must also be added and that is, the people must be willing and able to support the views of the charismatic leader based on their perceptions regarding the situation and their propensity to change the status quo (Lussier and Achua, 2004:342). For example, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) of Zimbabwe, for a number of years could not unseat Robert Mugabe until the people of Zimbabwe were convinced that Mugabe's Regime was no longer serving their interest and it was only then that the MDC became a force to reckon with. In other words, it is people's perception of the situation that enables charismatic leadership to thrive and without their support, it wouldn't matter how charismatic a leader can be, he or she would not make a significant impact unless supported by the affected people. This view is true particularly for institutional change efforts. If the person who is introducing the change is not backed up by the employees who are significant for the change to happen, resistance to change would frustrate any attempt to change the status quo no matter how charismatic the person is (Lussier and Achua, 2004:342).

- Transformational leadership factors

What are the forces that make certain individuals succeed as transformational leaders? Bass and Avolio have listed four transformational leadership factors that must be present in order to motivate followers to do more than the expected (Northouse, 2001:138; Tosi *et al.* 2000:473). Kuhnert is quoted by Northouse (2001:138) as having stated that "individuals who exhibit transformational leadership often have a strong set of *internal values* and *ideals*, and they are

effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good rather than their own self-interests. These transformational leadership factors are the following: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Tosi *et al.* 2000:473-474).

- Idealised influence

Idealised influence refers to the leader's ability to act as role-model for the followers (Crandall, 2007:90). Because of his or her charisma, followers would like to identify themselves with such a leader, and also, they would want to emulate the behaviour of such a leader. Idealised influence means that the leader must provide exemplary leadership that attracts followers to want to act likewise and to do that, the leader must uphold very high standards of moral and ethical conduct and should be relied upon to do the right thing. In return, followers would place a very high degree of respectability and trust. A leader with idealised influence would then be able to provide followers with a shared vision and a sense of clearly defined purpose (Crandall, 2007:90).

- Inspirational motivation

Transformation leaders must have the ability to inspire their followers towards achieving the shared vision of the institution. To be inspirational, the leader needs to be able to communicate high expectations to followers and he or she must also be capable to motivate followers to become committed to the shared vision of the institution (Crandall, 2007:90). To achieve this, the leader would use symbols and emotional appeals to direct the efforts of followers towards group goals rather than to become self-centred. This leader would be known as a team-builder who is able to transcend beyond the boundaries of silo thinking. To be a team-builder, means that the leader must inspire cooperative work ethics so that each subordinate should focus on the "bigger picture" as opposed to self-serving interests (Cooper, 2003:28).

- Intellectual stimulation

Intellectual stimulation refers to a situation where the leader is able to stimulate followers to "think outside the box" so that they can begin to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs as well as those of the leader and the institution (Crandall, 2007:101). Subordinates are encouraged to experiment and come up with new ways of solving institutional problems. People would normally be able to commit to a decision that they were involved with from the beginning so

that whatever decision was arrived at, they should take ownership of. To have a shared vision, simply means that there was a negotiated process that must have taken place before the vision was drafted hence the ownership. It is difficult to share in a vision that was crafted by one person in disregard of the views of the people that would eventually be expected to implement it (Cooper, 2003:28).

- Individualised consideration

Individualised consideration refers to a situation where the leader empowers his or her followers by conducting coaching and mentoring (Storey, 2004:177). This is where the emotional side of subordinates are taken care of. The leader would try to listen to the needs of subordinates with the view of assisting them to overcome obstacles and challenges that may occur. When faced with a difficult situation, subordinates may exhibit a sense of frustration and despair but if the leader happens to be encouraging them to endure rather than criticising them, they may be able to overcome whatever challenge they are facing as a group or as individuals. For example, a manager may observe that a particular employee always comes late to work, and instead of shouting and vilifying the employee, would go to the affected employee and try to establish the cause of late coming. The reason could be that the employee lives in an area that has poor transport system and as such, the manager needs to take that into consideration when dealing with that particular employee otherwise, the situation may become highly toxic should the manager keep on rebuking and vilifying (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003:103; Crandall, 2007:90).

2.5.4.3 Contribution of the transformational approach

The environment under which institutions operate is constantly changing. This is particularly prevalent in the public service where ministers and directors-general come and go all the time and as a result, the incoming ones always would try and change some of the features of the institutions so as to be able to implement their own vision. Transformational leadership is highly adaptive to changes in the environment, both internally and externally. The transformational approach to leadership has contributed a number of strategies that are highly effective in handling rapidly changing and turbulent environments (Tosi *et al.* 2000:472). The following four strategies are the most fundamental contributions to the theory of transformational leadership:

- Transformational leadership revolves around the creation of a shared vision

At the centre of the transformational approach, is the underlying premise that transformational leaders are strategic vision creators (Tosi *et al.* 2000:473). The vision becomes a negotiated settlement as it incorporates views from all corners of the institution and that is why it is sometimes known as the ‘shared vision.’ It is a shared vision because every member of that institution or unit has contributed and there is an overwhelming support from most members of that institution. This then implies that the vision becomes a focal point for transformational leadership. It gives the leader and the institution a conceptual roadmap that gives indication regarding the direction that should be taken in order to fulfil the objectives created under the vision. Another fundamental usefulness of creating a shared vision is that it provides a platform where meaning and clarity of the identity of the institution are clearly understood by the majority of its employees (Northouse, 2001:145; Perry, 2010:28-29).

- Transformational leadership involves empowerment of subordinates

Transformational leadership seeks to empower and nurture subordinates so that they could be able to embrace change. Transformational leaders are able to persuade subordinates to raise the level of their consciousness so that they should transcend their own self-interest for the sake of others (Perry, 2010:403). Contribution to group performance as opposed to individual glory is central to the transformational approach. This is particularly important for public institutions who are notoriously known for having a bureaucratic culture that does not respond fast enough to service delivery. This approach requires that units within institutions should cooperate with one another instead of operating in silos (Northouse, 2001:144). For example, within the Department of Agriculture, there are a number of directorates that are responsible for service delivery to farmers such as the provision of finance, provision of training and capacity building, and provision of farming technologies for agricultural production. Unfortunately, these directorates do not cooperate properly but instead, each directorate would render its services on a unilateral bases and this has resulted in poor service delivery and a great deal of confusion to farmers.

- Transformational leaders act as change agents for their institutions

To be able to adapt to a changing environment, the leader must be the first to sense the need for change (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:181). A leader who is oblivious to change signals would find himself or herself overtaken by events and this may lead

to resistance to change which may bring hardships not only to the leader but also to the subordinates (Avery, 2004:32-33). The transformational leadership approach has contributed by requiring that the leader should be the one to sniff out the air for the purpose of identifying changing conditions within or outside the institution so that new strategies could be developed that would deal with the challenges brought about by the changing environment (Perry, 2010:484-489). To be able to create change, transformational leaders become strong role models for their subordinates. To be a role model, a leader needs to have developed high moral values and a self-determined sense of identity. They must develop a state of being confident, competent, and articulate and be able to express a highly defined vision (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:184-185). This implies that transformational leaders must be the first to take the plunge into the unknown so that they become exemplary to their subordinates. A leader who expects subordinates to change but he or she remains transactional, will not be able to motivate subordinates to change (Richards and Clark, 2006:80; Irby, 2006:130-133; James and Collins, 2008:116). Subordinates would respect and emulate a leader who is willing and able to jump first and then they will follow. This is the essence of leadership, leaders must lead by examples.

- Transformational leaders act as social architects

Every institution has its culture (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:86). Sometimes the culture of an institution can be positive and sometimes it can hinder effective performance (Tosi *et al.* 2000:356). It is the role of the transformational leader to study the culture of the institution with the view of changing it so that it is in line with the new vision (Fulop and Linstead, 1999:181). By its very nature, transformational leadership requires that the leader must be able to study the attitudes and taboos of the institution otherwise, it would be fruitless to try and change an institution with culture that is out of sync with the new vision (Perry, 2010:287-288). If the culture is ignored, fierce resistance shall be unleashed by the beneficiaries of the present status quo (Perry, 2010:288). This means that in order to enlist subordinates to follow a new vision, the culture of the manner in which things are done in the institution must be thoroughly investigated and properly understood because the success of the transformational leader depends on how institutional culture is managed (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003:116).

2.5.4.4 Limitations of the transformational approach

Like the previously discussed approaches, the transformational approach has its own limitations. The following are some of those limitations inherent in this approach as provided by Northouse (2001:146):

- The transformational approach lacks conceptual clarity

According to Northouse (2001:146), it is difficult to define precisely the kind of factors that are universal in the conceptualization of the transformational approach. Writers have listed factors such as: creating a shared vision, motivating subordinates, being a change agent, building trust, mentoring and coaching of subordinates, acting as a cultural modifier, and being morally correct as being some of the many factors that are categorised under this approach. Another problem with this approach is that different writers place different emphasis on these factors and that leads to debate as to which ones are of critical importance for the conceptualisation of the approach (Avery, 2004:96-98).

- The transformational approach is based on personality traits

Technically, the transformational approach can be regarded as a resurgent of the personality trait theory. Just like the trait approach, it claims that transformational leaders are born and not made and this makes it difficult to train other leaders to follow in the footsteps of transformational leaders (Avery, 2004:96). For example, there can only be one Nelson Mandela and no one can have the same qualities that he has because of the belief that he was born with certain qualities which are not found in the majority of South Africans. This makes it difficult to step into the shoes of a transformational leader because followers would immediately spot the difference. This has been evident with Thabo Mbeki who took over after Mandela. It was not easy for him to emulate the charisma of Mandela.

- The transformational approach is based on qualitative research

Research on the transformational approach is based largely on qualitative data that is collected from top leaders of institutions (Avery, 2004:98). The problem with this approach is that it becomes unclear whether the same conditions could apply in all levels of the institutions. For instance, creating a vision is the exclusive domain of top management and one wonders if lower level managers can realistically be expected to create a vision that is adopted by the entire institution (Tosi *et al.* 2000:473). Usually, lower level managers are expected to implement the vision

and not alter it because any attempt to alter the vision from top management, may be regarded as insubordination. Data that was collected from top managers by means of interviews may not provide credible evidence that the approach can be applicable to all levels (Avery, 2004:96-98). To confirm the universality of this approach, quantitative research will have to be conducted in all levels of management within an institution. Northouse (2001:148) acknowledges that some quantitative research has been reported by Bass but he also laments the fact that research is not enough to draw credible conclusions as to the universality of the approach.

- The transformational approach has the potential of being abused

Charisma can lead to fanaticism. Hitler is a striking example of a leader that managed to persuade his followers to adopt a self destructive vision. Psychological indoctrination is at the centre of the transformational approach because of the fact that the ultimate objective of the leader is to energise followers by selective propaganda to embrace a new vision which may not be to the benefit of the very followers (Grint, 2005:7). Sometimes leaders may push their hidden agendas under the guise of championing change (Weiss *et al.* 2007:16). For example, an institution may undergo a restructuring exercise purely to destroy someone who is regarded as a liability to the powers that be. For example, the investigative unit of the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) known as the Scorpions was liquidated purely because they began targeting some of the powerful individuals within the African National Congress (ANC) (www.mg.co.za/article/2008-01-21-scorpions-disbanding-is-to-protect-anc). It is perhaps true when they say "a dog should not bite the hand that feeds it."

- The transformational approach is elitist

The transformational approach seems to imply that only the leader has the ability to create a compelling vision yet it is possible that the vision came from other leaders within the institution. The contribution of other people is usually not acknowledged so that the impression that is created is that the leader has single-handedly created the vision because of his or her supernatural powers. For example, it is doubtful whether Mandela would have been so famous as a transformational leader had he not been supported by those people who were close to him. But all the credits went to one man, Nelson Mandela and no one is being acknowledged as having contributed to the success of Mandela's vision. This issue is particularly worrying when one thinks of the efforts of men and women who contribute so much to the success of an institution and end up not being recognised

(Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999:459-460). The people who write speeches for politicians hardly get any recognition and there are many other activities that are being performed by junior personnel that end up making the leader looking good but they (junior managers) end up getting nothing for it. Who wrote the famous speech of President Thabo Mbeki titled 'I am an African?' Nobody wants to know and all that matters is that it was said by President Thabo Mbeki (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999:459-460).

2.5.5 Contingency approach to leadership

The definition of leadership as adopted by this study was discussed in the introduction to this chapter (see section 2.4) as having five dimensions which are: a) there must be a **leader**, b) there must be a **group** of people who must submit to the leadership of the leader, c) the leader must **influence** the group and in turn, the group must also **influence** the leader and d) leadership is a **process** that takes place all the time which means it is not an event that happens once or twice but it is a continuous process as long as the relationship between the leader and the group remains constant, and e) the relationship must be based on a specific **outcome**. In other words, the leadership equation can be expressed in the following manner: leadership=leader + group + influence + process + outcome.

Up to so far, it has been stated that the four previously discussed approaches (trait, behaviour, power and transformational) have focussed solely on the *leader*. Some researchers began to focus on the *group* (morale, motivation and group behaviour) as well as the *situation* (contingency, normative decision and path-goal). These can be expressed graphically as indicated on figure 2.7 on page 98.

When the leader-focussed approaches (trait, behaviour, power and transformational) failed to identify those behaviours that are necessary for a *high-high* (high on performance and also high on concern for people) leadership condition, some researchers began to look for answers by examining the role of the situation under which leadership is taking place.

The purpose of this section is to explore those factors that led to the creation of the contingency approach to leadership and also discuss the main proponents of the contingency approach. The contribution made by this approach will also be discussed and finally, the limitations of this approach will then be explained.

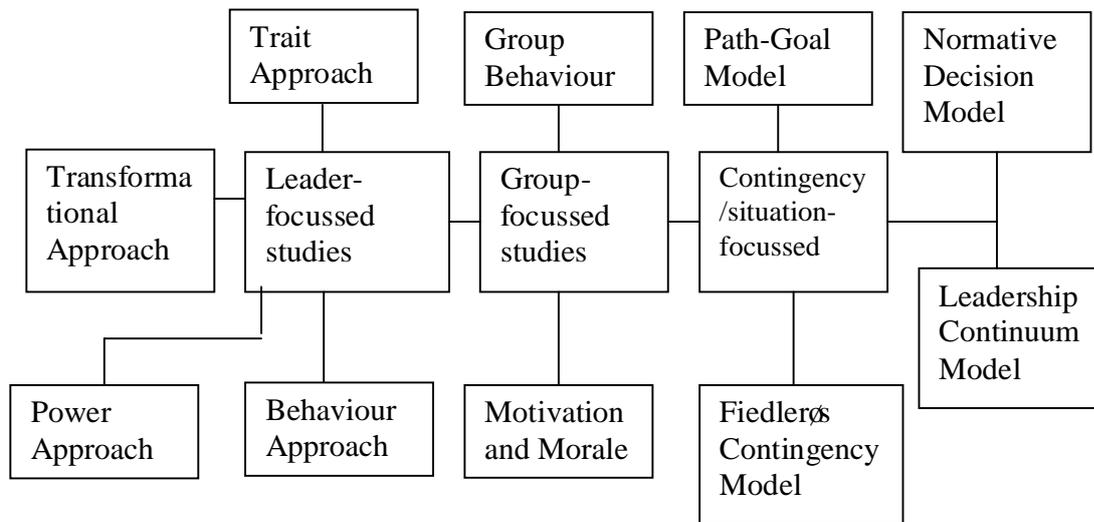


Figure 2.7: Leadership theory analysis framework (Source: own view)

2.5.5.1 Reasons for developing the contingency approach

The contingency approach was developed as an attempt to view leadership not only from the leader's angle but also from the angle of followers and also, the situation under which the leadership process takes place (Nelson and Quick, 2005:263). The contingency approach was developed as a leadership integrating mechanism. Its purpose was to integrate leader-focussed approaches with follower-focussed as well as situation-focussed approaches. Lussier and Achua (2004:140) amplify this point by stating that leader-focussed approaches tried to establish a universal leadership theory that would apply in all leadership conditions and unfortunately, that did not happen and as a result, towards the late 1960s, it became obvious that there was no theory that would apply universally in all situations and that led to the development of the contingency theory which as has been explained above, tried to integrate leader-focussed theories with follower-focussed as well as situation-focussed ones.

The contingency approach to leadership states that in order for a leader to be effective, he or she must consider the type of followers he or she is dealing with as well as the nature of the environment under which the leadership process is happening (Hatch, 1997:76-78). Contingency means 'it depends on other things.' For effective leadership, there needs to be an appropriate 'fit' between the behaviour or leadership style of the leader and the attitudes and ability of the followers and also the type of environment under which the leadership process is being conducted (Lussier and Achua, 2004:140; Dym and Hutson, 2005:40). For example, the Derrick Keys story that was discussed earlier in this chapter served as

a classical example where a private sector success story can be a dismal failure in the public sector precisely because of the different environments. Derrick Keys was a successful banker who was then recruited as Minister of Finance in the 90s and he could not function successfully purely because the financial system in government is different from the one found in the private sector (www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Derek_Keys).

2.5.5.2 Proponents of the contingency approach

For the purposes of this study, four models of the contingency theory will be discussed under this section. These are: Fiedler's contingency leadership model, leadership continuum model, path-goal leadership model and normative leadership model.

- Fiedler's contingency model

Fiedler proposed the contingency model as an alternative to the Michigan and Ohio studies that dedicated their focus on the behaviour of the leader and in the process; they ignored the condition under which the leadership process is taking place (Nelson and Quick, 2005:263). These two studies as it has been discussed previously, were behavioural in their approach and looked at the leadership role as being the ability to motivate subordinate to perform at optimal level (high-high). They suggested that efficiency in production came about as a result of the leader's behaviour towards his or her people. Towards the end of 1960, it became apparent that these models were not able to apply universally in all situations and that led to other proposals regarding leadership models such as the contingency model proposed by Fiedler who was an Austrian psychologist born in 1922 (Lussier, 2003:414). Fiedler's model approached the theory of leadership from the premise that suggested that leader effectiveness is essentially determined by selecting the right kind of leader for a certain situation or changing the situation to fit the style of the particular leader (Nelson and Quick, 2005:263). In other words, leadership effectiveness would be dependent upon the leader's style of leadership and the favourableness of the situation. This assumption implies that some leaders do better than others in some certain conditions but they may fail dismally in a different environment. Fiedler's model suggests that in order to comprehend the forces that make or break leaders, one needs to look at the personality traits and behaviour of the leader and also to determine the nature of the situation under which the leader is performing including the type of followers the leader has (Thomas, 2006:62-64; Griffin, 2005:56).

Just like the behaviouralist, Fiedler acknowledged the fact that leaders have distinct personalities (traits) and he then proposed that the reason why the behaviour approach is not capable of being applied universally, is because of the fact that it ignores situational factors (Grint, 2005:9). Fiedler postulated that in order for a leader to be effective, certain situational factors need to be taken into account such as leader-member relations, structure of the task to be performed and the positional power of the leader (Thomas, 2006:62-64). These situational factors are amplified below as follows:

- Leader-member relations

Just like the behaviouralists, Fiedler acknowledged that the nature of the relationship between the leader and the subordinates can affect the ability of the leader to motivate his or her subordinates to perform optimally (Tosi *et al.* 2000:464). If the group atmosphere is positive, subordinates would display a high degree of confidence, loyalty and admiration to their leader. The flipside of the coin is that if the group atmosphere is negative, subordinates would display a spirit of no confidence, disloyalty and ill-feeling towards their leader (Wright, 1996:50).

- Task structure

Fiedler proposed that the nature of the task to be performed can affect the leadership function in the sense that if the task is highly structured (standardised), the leader would be able to lead his or her subordinates effectively, but, if the task to be performed is unstructured, it would be difficult to lead subordinates effectively. Task that are structured tend to give more control to the leader as opposed to unstructured ones. For example, an office manager has more control over her staff than a sales manager who has salespeople who are travelling countrywide (Wright, 1996:50).

- Positional power

Positional power refers to the amount of authority a leader has to reward and punish subordinates. Positional power is said to be strong if the leader has the ability to hire and fire, promote or raise rewards for subordinates. Poor positional power where the leader cannot hire or fire or raise rewards for subordinates may significantly affect the leader's ability to control subordinates. For example, because of the nature of the public service in terms of personnel administration, it is not easy to fire subordinates and as a result, managers find themselves facing a toxic situation which they can do nothing about to the point where subordinates

show open insubordination. But private sector managers have more control in terms of positional power as they are able to hire and fire subordinates within reasonable boundaries, but even there, the situation is getting tougher because of employee unionisation (Wright, 1996:50).

How favourable the situation is to the leadership process, is determined by these three situational factors. Fiedler's contingency model postulated that a leader's effectiveness is based on these situational factors which are a result of interaction of two leadership dimensions: leadership style and situational favourableness (Wright, 1996:50). To prove his theory, Fiedler developed a measuring instrument which he called the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale for the purpose of measuring the leader's leadership orientation (how the leadership process will be handled under various conditions) (Cooper, 2003:71).

- The least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale

The least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale was developed by Fiedler for the purpose of measuring the three situational factors mentioned above which are: leader-member relationship, task structure and positional power (Williams *et al.* 1985:346).

The leader-member factor is used to measure the relationship a leader has with his or her subordinates (Griffin, 2005:560-562). This is approached from the leader's perception towards his or her subordinates. The leader-member relationship can be described as being good or poor. If the relationship is viewed as being good, the implication is that the leader is people-centred but if it is poor, the leader is assumed to be task oriented. Another important point to make regarding this factor is that, if the relationship is *good*, the leader will gravitate towards task orientation but if it is *poor*, the leader would move from being task oriented towards leader-member relationship (Nelson and Quick, 2005:263-264).

The task to be performed relates to the degree to which it is structured. A structured task gives the leader a high degree of control whereas an unstructured task makes it difficult for the leader to control what the subordinates are doing. The task can be classified as being *repetitive* or *non-repetitive*. Positional power does affect the control the leader has on his or her subordinates. Positional power is classified as being *strong* or *weak*. Strong positional power gives control to the leader whereas weak positional power diminishes the leader's control over subordinates (Tosi *et al.* 464).

From the LPC data, Fiedler was able to develop eight possible outcomes (octants) that were available to any leader. These outcomes were determined by data extracted from the LPC. For example, if the leader-member relations are good and the task to be performed is repetitive, and the leader has strong positional power, the *octant* indicator will be 1 and this means that the leadership style to be applied should be the one that is *task oriented* (figure 2.8). The reason is that if the leader has good rapport with his or her subordinates, and the work is standardised, then the leader must focus on achieving the intended results. If the leader-member relations are still good and the task is structured but positional power is weak, the leader should still focus on the task. Fiedler's model is depicted graphically below:

Fiedler's Contingency Model							
Good leader-member relations				Poor leader-member relations			
High structure		Low structure		High structure		Low structure	
Strong power	Weak power	Strong power	Weak power	Strong power	Weak power	Strong power	Weak power
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Task-oriented style	Task-oriented style	Task-oriented style	Relations-oriented style	Relations-oriented style	Relations-oriented style	Relations-oriented style	Task-oriented style

Figure 2.8: Fiedler's Contingency Model (Adapted from Northouse, 2001:77)

From the combination of leader-member relations, the nature of the task and the position power available to the leader, eight outcomes are possible. For example, good leader-member relations can produce four outcomes, that is, good relations, high task structure and strong power calls for a task oriented leadership style. Good leader-member relations, high task structure with weak power base also calls for a task oriented leadership style. But if the leader is facing a situation where the relations are good, the task structure is low and the power is also weak (octant 4), the leadership to be adopted should be relations-related. Why? The reason is that it is effective for the leader to rely on good relations where he or she has no control over what his or her people are doing because of the task being non-standard and the situation is also exacerbated by the fact that position power is also weak. Octant 8 on the other hand, depicts a situation where the leader has poor relations with his or her subordinates, is operating under non-standardised structure and has no position power. The best he or she can do is to adopt a task-oriented style. The reason is that by focusing on the job, the leader can be effective because he or she

has no power to discipline subordinates and most probably that is why the relations are not good because subordinates are aware that the leader is powerless.

Lussier and Achua (2004:144) suggest that if the leader's LPC style matches the situation, the leader should not change anything and only if the LPC style differs with the situation that a change is necessary so as to match the LPC of the leader with the situation. Fiedler seems to imply that the leadership personality of the leader should not be changed (cannot teach an old dog new tricks) instead, the leader must be assisted by changing the situation and if that is not possible, the leader should be transferred to a more suitable environment (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2006:372).

- Leadership continuum model

The leadership continuum model was independently developed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt about the same time as Fiedler's work in the early 1950s (Lussier and Achua, 2004:146). The basic premise of this model is the assertion that leadership behaviours can be plotted along a continuum between two variables: from being leader-centred to being subordinate-centred leadership behaviour. The leadership continuum model is essentially about the decision-making process. It postulates that decisions made regarding the task to be performed can either be made by the leader or the leader can delegate his subordinates to decide how the work should be carried out. Just like Fiedler, Tannenbaum and Schmidt also proposed that decision-making is a process that involves issues about the leaders, issues about the subordinates and also, issues about the situation (Thomas, 2006:122).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (in Thomas, 2006:122) identified seven leadership styles that are available to a leader to choose from (see figure 2.9). In other words, for the purpose of maximising performance, the leader would be expected to choose one of the seven leadership styles that is appropriate to the prevailing situation. But to be able to choose the right leadership style under this model, three conditions regarding the leader, the subordinates and the situation need to be taken into consideration and these are: the personality and behavioural preferences of the leader based on experience, expectations, values, background, knowledge, feeling of security and confidence in the subordinates. The leader must also consider the level of maturity of the subordinates in terms of their educational background, their expectations as well as their willingness and ability to do the job. For example, if subordinates show enthusiasm in doing the job, more decision-making powers would be delegated as opposed to a situation where they show resistance to perform the task. The environment under which the job is to be performed must

also be considered and factors such as the size of the institution, the culture of the institution, technology used and the objectives of the institution should be factored into the model. The leadership continuum model can be depicted graphically as according to the following figure.

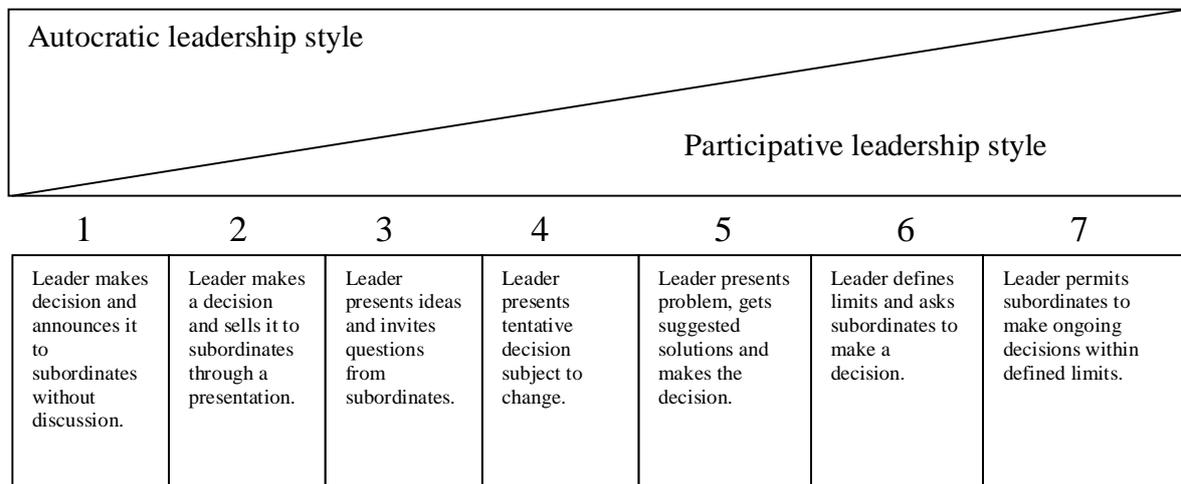


Figure 2.9: Leadership Continuum Model (Sourced from Lussier and Achua, 2004:147)

Figure 2.9 is a one-dimensional model that is similar to the Michigan model (see figure 2.3) where two variables are placed at the extreme ends of the scale. Moving from left to right depicts a situation where the leader begins with total power over subordinates but gradually begins to transfer or delegate some of the power until the seventh stage is reached where subordinates are given authority to design how the task is to be planned and implemented. At that stage, the leader acts as a mentor or coach who supports the efforts of the group and in turn, the group takes full ownership of the decision-making process to the point of task implementation. On the opposite side of the model, a leader may start at stage seven where subordinates enjoy full control of the decision-making process (democratic leadership) and end up at stage one where total decision-making becomes the exclusive domain of the leader (autocratic leadership) and anything in between will oscillate between autocratic and democratic leadership styles. For example, at stage five, the leader is both autocratic and democratic in the sense that the task to be performed would be introduced by the leader but instead of prescribing how it should be carried out, he or she would then ask subordinates to present implementation solutions (Thomas, 2006:122).

- Path-goal leadership model

The path-goal leadership model can be defined as that kind of leadership model that determines the leadership style that is appropriate to the situation that will maximise performance and job satisfaction (Lussier and Achua, 2004: 149; Griffin, 2005:562-564). Basically, this model is an attempt at raising the motivation of subordinates so that they can reach their goals (create the path that will lead to goal attainment). Leadership is then regarded as the act of enabling subordinates to reach their goals by eliminating hurdles or challenges that may stand in their way. Northouse (2001:89) claims that the main aim of the path-goal model is to raise employee morale which in turn is expected to lead to superior productivity by paying attention to employee motivation. The assumption is that motivated subordinates are happy (satisfied) people who are willing and able to perform at an optimal level (raised productivity).

The path-goal leadership model was originally proposed by M.G. Evans but was subsequently refined by Robert House in 1971(Lussier and Achua, 2004:148; Hunt, 1988:30). The model is based on the premise that there are four leadership styles that a leader could use for the purpose of motivating subordinates: directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented leadership styles.

- Directive leadership style

The directive leadership style characterises a leader who is task oriented. The leader leads or directs subordinates by issuing instructions about the task to be performed, how it should be carried out with clearly defined measures or standards and time-frames for completion. This approach is similar to the strategic planning approach so favoured by public institutions where strategic objectives with stated outcomes and timeframes are normally stated (Lussier and Achua, 2004:148; James and Collins, 2008:72-73).

- Supportive leadership style

Supportive leadership is concerned with the wellbeing of subordinates. The leader ensures that human needs of subordinates are being considered. This leader is what can be referred to as a people-centred leader who is always approachable and genuinely friendly towards subordinates and who goes out of his or her way to make sure that subordinates' human needs are attended to. A supportive leader is a humanist who believes that subordinates come to work with their emotional needs that if not addressed, may affect their performance. For example, a subordinate

who has a domestic problem will not perform optimally unless assisted to deal with it effectively (Lussier and Achua, 2004:148; Tyson, 2006:313).

- Participative leadership style

A participative leader is the one who involves subordinates in the decision-making process. The decision-making process is democratised and made consultative so that subordinates are given the platform to participate in every stage of the process. Participative leadership ensures that decisions taken carries the support of those who will do the implementation so that buy-in is solicited to ensure that there would be no resistance from decision implementers (Lussier and Achua, 2004:148; Garson and Williams, 1982:103).

- Achievement oriented leadership style

Achievement oriented leadership is characterised by the setting of high standards or goals for subordinates. The achievement oriented leader has a high degree of confidence in the ability of subordinates to accomplish the set goals. Setting high standards for subordinates implies that the achievement oriented leader will always seek new challenging opportunities for the group as soon as they begin to accomplish the ones they are currently busy with. This can be compared to mountain climbers; as soon as they conquer a particular mountain, they immediately develop the propensity to attempt another one that is a bit higher than the one they have just conquered. The thrill is in the conquering so that eventually, the highest of them all is conquered (Everard and Burrow, 1996:662).

What is of particular interest with the path-goal model is the fact that it does not have personality traits and or behavioural variables and the reason is that the leader is supposed to employ the right leadership style regardless of his or her personality or behaviour (Lussier and Achua, 2004:149; Hunt *et al.* 1988:30). Just like Fiedler's contingency model, the success of the leader in motivating subordinates is also dependent upon certain situational factors which are: characteristics of the subordinates and environmental dynamics (Hunt *et al.* 1988:47-48).

- Characteristics of subordinates

Certain forces regarding subordinates can either facilitate or derail the efforts of the leader to support subordinates to attain the stated goal (Nelson and Quick, 2005:265-266). These forces include among others the following:

- Authoritarianism which refers to the nature of position power and its use that is preferred by subordinates.
- Locus of control which refers to the degree to which subordinates believe they control the process of achieving the stated goal. Internal locus of control is a condition where subordinates believe that they control the implementation of the stated objective and external locus is where the subordinates feel that the process of goal implementation is externally driven.
- Ability of the subordinates to perform the task can also affect their effort of goal realisation.

- Environmental dynamics

Just like Fiedler, House also believes that task structure, which is the degree of standardisation of the job, has a bearing on the success of the leadership process (Hunt *et al.* 1988:58). Formal authority is also an issue with this model as it was an issue with Fiedler's contingency model. The leader can either have strong or weak positional power. However, House has added another variable and that variable relates to the nature of the relationship among subordinates *inter se* (among themselves). Subordinates can succeed in goal attainment if they work as a team that functions cooperatively and if there are frictions among the group, goal attainment would be compromised (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:237).

- Normative leadership model

The normative leadership model was designed as an instrument that links leadership with the decision-making process. Its main contribution to the leadership theory is essentially the setting of rules (norms) that govern the selection of the best leadership style that a manager may apply to a given situation (Lussier and Achua, 2004:153; van Wart, 2008:210-212). The main proponent of this approach is Victor Vroom and associates from Yale University. In 2000, Vroom published a revised version of the normative leadership approach which he called "Leadership and the Decision-making Process." The normative leadership model offers five leadership styles, seven questions (norms) that may be asked to arrive at the right leadership style and it consists of two decision factors or trees from which the leadership process may be directed (Raffel *et al.* 2009:260). These dimensions of the normative leadership model are expatiated below as follows:

- Normative leadership participation styles

The normative leadership approach has five leadership styles from which a manager may adopt depending on the situation and the nature of the group. The basic assumption of this approach is that the leader has the power to make the decision, the decision to be made is specific and there are specific followers to participate in the process. The five leadership styles available to a leader are: unilateral decision-making, individual consultation, group consultation, facilitation and delegation (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001:440).

- Unilateral decision-making

This is the leadership style where the leader makes the decision unilaterally and then issue instructions to subordinates on how it should be carried out. Subordinates do not take part in the formulation of the decision and their role is to implement it without giving inputs on how it should be implemented. This style is the same as the autocratic style that has been discussed above (see figure 2.9).

- Individual consultation

In this style, the leader consults with subordinates on an individual basis to solicit their inputs prior to making the decision.

- Group consultation

Subordinates are consulted as a group so that their inputs can be incorporated into the decision which is still made by the leader.

- Facilitation

In this leadership style, the leader facilitates discussions on the problems to be solved and then allows the group to make recommendations on the best alternatives for the resolution of the problem and once a decision has been taken, the leader simply adopts the chosen alternatives. This is similar to the participative approach that was discussed in one of the previously discussed models (see figure 2.9).

- Delegation

In the delegation leadership style, the leader empowers his or her subordinates to discuss and decide on the right alternatives for the resolution of the problem at hand. The leader does not influence the decision-making process since subordinates are given authority to decide on the issue as they see it and the leader would be bound by the decision taken by subordinates.

- Normative questions to establish appropriate leadership style

The distinctive feature of the normative leadership approach is its reliance on specific questions that a leader needs to interrogate before choosing the particular leadership style to be adopted. There are seven standard questions associated with this approach and these are: decision-significance, importance of commitment, leader expertise, likelihood of commitment, group support for objectives, group expertise, and team competence (Van Wart, 2008:211-212).

- Decision-significance

This question is designed to interrogate issues around the nature and importance of the decision to be formulated. If the answer to the question 'how significant is the decision to the success of the institution?' is, highly significant, then the decision is likely to be made by the leader but if the decision to be made carries a low rating in terms of institutional goals, then it can be delegated to subordinates so that the leader can focus on high level strategic issues (Nelson and Quick, 2005:266-267).

- Importance of commitment

This question looks at issues of subordinate commitment and if it is expected that commitment from subordinates is key to the implementation of the decision, then it makes sense to solicit their 'buy-in' right from the start of the decision-making process so that when the decision is made, support from subordinates is high. But if subordinate commitment is not an issue, the leader may decide on the subject without consulting (Lussier, 2003:418-420).

- Leader expertise

The leader is likely to make unilateral decisions if he or she is an expert on the issues to be decided upon, but if the subordinates have more knowledge on the

subject, the leader would be bound to solicit their support and guidance (Tosi *et al.* 2000:312-314).

- Likelihood of commitment

If it is obvious that the decision made by the leader would appease subordinates, there would be no need for consultation but where there is a probability that subordinates may not like the decision made by the leader, consultation would have to be made to ensure that there would be no resistance going forward (Nankervis, 2005:91).

- Group support for objectives

If the support for institutional objectives is low, it indicates that subordinates were not involved in the formulation of those objectives and high support for institutional objectives is a product of participatory processes where subordinates were given the opportunity to interrogate the decision-making process. Alienated subordinates are not going to own the objectives which do not represent their inputs and the leader would find it difficult to motivate them to embrace those institutional objectives (Lewis *et al.* 2004:194).

- Group expertise

If subordinates are knowledgeable about the issues to be solved by the decision-making process, their participation must be solicited but if they are not so knowledgeable, the leader would mostly make unilateral decisions (Nelson and Quick, 2005:183-186).

- Team competence

If the ability of the individual subordinate to work as a team is high, participation must be solicited but if the ability to work as a team is low, then the leader may adopt a unilateral leadership style:

- Decision factors that influence the choice of leadership style

The choice of leadership style in this approach is also informed by two situational factors: time-driven and development-driven decision factors (Tyson, 2006:17).

- Time-driven decision factor

Time can be a critical factor in decision-making. It sometimes happens that a decision must be made as speedily as possible and in that case, the involvement of subordinates in a lengthy time consuming processes can be costly and if the focus is on timely decision-making, then the leader would most likely be the one to make that decision. This implies that the value of the decision is based on time (bounded rationality) and not on the development of subordinates. Time-driven decisions are by the nature, short-term strategies (satisficing) (Tosi *et al.* 2000:314-315).

- Development-driven decision factor

Under this factor, the emphasis is on the development of subordinates. Subordinates' participation in the decision-making process is by its nature, educational because it requires that subordinates should contribute or be part of the decision-making process and to be able to contribute meaningfully, subordinates need to be knowledgeable in the issues being decided upon, otherwise, they will not be able to contribute meaningfully on issues that they know little about. This option has a long-term outlook as it normally takes time for subordinates to master the decision-making process and the implication is that the leader is placing more emphasis on the development of subordinates than time consideration. In other words, empowerment of subordinates takes precedent over time-cost-considerations (Lussier, 2003:419-420).

This means that where the involvement of subordinates is encouraged, the outcome will be development driven. On the other hand, the leader is likely to ignore the development of subordinates if the decision is based on time considerations. Time-driven institutions are not interested in empowering their people, instead, they usually recruit experienced professionals who need minimum capacity building and mentoring. South Africa is one of those countries that prefer the time-driven approach because of heavy reliance on experienced people and one wonders as to who should provide training opportunities for the hundreds of graduates that are produced by tertiary institutions every year. South African private and public institutions need to begin to see themselves as centres of continuous learning where people could be given the opportunity to be grown agriculturally so that the skills level of all sectors can be increased with the aim of developing local professionals that would be able to perform at any situation (Perry, 2010:557).

2.5.5.3 Contribution of the contingency approach

Before the development of the contingency theory, both the trait and the behaviour approaches were attempts to discover the best leadership style that would prevail in all situations. These theories were commonly known as *universal theories* because of the belief at the time that through the use of these theories, a universal model that would apply in all situations with any subordinates would be developed (Raffel *et al.* 2009:259). In other words, the aim of the trait and the behaviour approaches was to establish a universal leadership theory that would prevail in all situations.

In the 1960s, it became apparent that such a model was not going to be developed within these approaches (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003:24). Another shortcoming of these theories was that they focussed exclusively on the activities and personality of the leader and the role of the subordinates and the nature of the situation were largely ignored. In other words, leadership was viewed from the leader's point of view with the assumption that the subordinates and the situation would automatically synchronize with the leadership personality and style of the leader.

Some researchers began to explore the influences of both the subordinates and the situation in the leadership paradigm and that led to the development of the contingency approach to leadership which focussed not only on the leadership style and personality of the leader but also on the role of the followers as well as the nature of the environment under which leadership is being practised (Stoner, 1982:53-54; Nelson and Quick, 2005:268). The major contribution of the contingency theory lies in the fact that it offered a *system approach* to the theory of leadership by postulating that leadership is a function of a number of elements or variables that need to be considered before the right leadership style can be adopted (Wright, 1996:55). These variables were then categorised under three dimensions which are: leader, subordinates and the type of work to be performed (situation or environment). To contingency theorists, leadership theory was a function of the leader, the subordinates and the working environment (Thomas, 2006:62-63).

2.5.5.4 Limitations of the contingency approach

Just like the trait and the behaviour approaches, contingency theories failed to come with a universal paradigm that would be applicable universally. This is indicated by the many approaches within this theory such as those that have been discussed in this section and these were: Fiedler's contingency theory, leadership

continuum theory, path-goal and the normative decision theory. Different researchers have offered different models and that has contributed to the challenge of developing a universal leadership theory (Williams *et al.* 1985:348). Criticism of the contingency approach is provided by Northouse in the following manner:

- Fiedler's contingency model

According to Northouse (2001:80), Fiedler's contingency model suffers from the following challenges: firstly, it fails to give adequate explanation as to why certain leadership styles are more successful in one situation and a dismal failure in another. Secondly, the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) is a difficult instrument to work with as it does not correlate well with other leadership measures as it measures the leadership style of the leader by asking how that particular leader relates to his or her subordinates. This is problematic as it positions the leader to answer questions based on his or her preferences and obviously if the leader is task-directed, he or she would regard least preferred workers as a stumbling block towards goal realisation whereas a people-centred leader would view the same workers in a positive light because the leader's intention would be to get along with people. Thirdly, the LPC is cumbersome to administer as it has a number of variables to work with such as leader-member, task structure and position power. Lastly, Fiedler's contingency model fails to offer institutions clearly defined alternatives when there is a mismatch between the leader and the situation. The assertion that the situation should be changed so as to accommodate the leadership style of the leader is difficult to implement in practice. Institutions may prefer the opposite, that is, they may expect the leader to alter his or her leadership style so as to fit into the situation (Northouse 2001:80; Tosi *et al.* 2000:461).

- Leadership continuum model

The major criticism levelled against the leadership continuum model is the fact that the three factors that must be considered when selecting a particular leadership style are somewhat subjective. The model does not offer clearly defined analysis in terms of determining the right style to use. In other words, it is not clear as to how and when should one choose the appropriate style to use (Lussier and Achua, 2004:145; Lussier, 2003:415-416).

- Path-goal model

The first criticism of this model is that it is too cumbersome and as a result, it is difficult to objectively choose the right combination of variables to work with. For

example, four leadership styles are provided from which one should be combined with tasks which have different degrees of structure, for goals with different levels of clarity for workers at different levels of ability for institutions with different degrees of formal authority. Secondly, the model fails to give explicit explanation in terms of the relationship between leadership style and worker motivation. Although the proponents of this model asserts that it combines leadership and expectancy theory which is essentially about how subordinates get motivated, the model does not describe how a leader could use the various leadership styles so as to help subordinates to feel competent and confident about their performance. Thirdly, there is a danger of creating a dependency syndrome as this model suggests that the leader should provide coaching and guidance so as to assist subordinates to reach their potential. Too much "baby-sitting" can lead to dependency in the sense that subordinates would feel that it is the responsibility of their manager to make them proficient performers and that has the potential of rendering them non-enterprising (Northouse, 2001:97-98; Aldag and Brief, 1981:324-325).

- Normative decision model

The main weakness of the normative decision model is that it is also cumbersome to apply in practice. Selecting the right approach within the model is very difficult let alone the fact that the selected approach must be pitted against a seven-question decision tree every time a leader has to make a decision (Lussier and Achua, 2004:157; Tosi *et al.* 2000:312-314).

2.6 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to construct a foundation for the study by embarking on a literature review to discover critical theories that helped in the moulding of the leadership approach. The theories that were discussed in this chapter were selected based on their appropriateness to the study. The outcome of this chapter has been the revelation that there are many definitions of the leadership theory and as such, the literature has failed to provide a universal definition because of the many approaches that are provided by writers in this field. It was Stogdill (in Northouse, 2001:2) who pointed out that writers view the function of leadership according to the discipline being followed. Stogdill (in Northouse, 2001:2) argues that writers in the field of leadership sought to define the leadership concept using different typologies (approaches) such as the following: leadership viewed as a focus of group processes, leadership viewed as personality and its effects, leadership viewed as the art of inducing compliance,

leadership viewed as the exercise of power and influence, leadership viewed as an act or behaviour, leadership viewed as a form of persuasion, leadership viewed as an instrument of goal achievement, leadership viewed as an emerging effect of interaction, leadership viewed as a differentiated role, leadership viewed as the initiation of structure, and, leadership viewed as a combination of some elements as mentioned above. For the purpose of this study, leadership was then defined as a *process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.*

The first approach to be discussed was the trait approach which was the first leadership theory to be developed in the field of managerial leadership. Managerial leadership is an attempt at explaining how managers in private and public institutions ought to practise the function of leadership. The managerial leadership phenomenon became a subject of enquiry because of the proliferation of private and public institutions in the early 1940s. The discussions in this approach centred on the leader and how his or her personality traits impact or affect subordinates. Discussions in this approach were centred on the following issues: personality trait originators which were classified into two factors: genetically created and environmentally driven. The benefits of classifying personality traits were discussed. The section also discussed the Big Five Model which is used to analyse personality traits into five dimensions as follows: surgency, agreeableness, adjustment, conscientiousness, and open to experience.

The personality traits of effective leaders were also discussed and these were identified as: dominance, high energy, self-confidence, locus of control, stability, integrity, intelligence, flexibility and sensitivity to others. This was followed by a discussion on the following theories: Achievement Motivation Theory, the Leader Motive Profile Theory, Theory X and Theory Y. Finally, the demise of the trait approach was discussed.

The behaviour approach was discussed next and the discussion began by providing the reasons that led to the development of this approach. The section proceeded by identifying early proponents who were instrumental in the development of this approach. Early models within the behaviour approach were also identified as the University of Iowa Leadership Styles Model, the University of Michigan Leadership Model, the University of Ohio Leadership Model and the Leadership Grid Model of Blake and Mouton. The section proceeded by discussing the contribution made by this approach and finally, this section was concluded by the discussion of limitations associated with the behaviour approach.

The power approach was the third in line and the discussion began by explaining the reasons that led to its development. This was then followed by a discussion of the early proponents of this approach and this section also included a discussion on the nature of power and sources of power. The section closed by offering a discussion on the contribution of the power approach as well as the limitations associated with this approach.

The fourth approach to be discussed was the transformational approach to leadership which looked at issues such as those reasons that led to the development of this approach and this was followed by a discussion of the early proponents of this approach. This discussion then concluded by explaining how this approach contributed to the study of leadership in general as well as the limitations that are associated with the transformational approach.

The fifth and final leadership approach to be discussed was the contingency leadership theory and the section began by explaining the reasons that led to the development of this approach. This was followed by a discussion of the early proponents and their models that helped in the shaping of the approach. Leadership models were discussed as follows: Fiedler's contingency model, the leadership continuum model, path-goal leadership model, and the normative leadership model. The section concluded by discussing the contributions to the study of leadership by this approach as well as the limitations that are inherent in this approach.

The next chapter will provide a general discussion of the morale theory so that the reader can appreciate the connection between *leadership* and *morale*.

CHAPTER 3

THE MORALE THEORY

“There’s a high price to pay for low morale. No, make that an enormous price. So, what does it cost an organisation when morale hits bottom? Well, what’s the cost of turnover, bad attitudes, decreased productivity, low self-esteem, poor performance, and absenteeism, and lousy customer service?” Anne Bruce.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 presented a discussion on the conceptualisation of the leadership phenomenon and this was carried out through the analysis of a number of approaches to the study of leadership such as: the trait approach, the behaviour approach, the transformational approach, the power approach, the path-goal approach, Fiedler’s contingency model, the normative decision model and the leadership continuum model. These approaches were then categorised into three dimensions: leader-focussed, group focused and situation-focussed.

Chapter 2 also examined those approaches that were leader-focused and situation-focused and deliberately omitted those that are *group-focused* such as group behaviour, motivation and morale. The main aim of this chapter is to discuss *group-focused* approaches focussing specifically on morale. This is informed by the premise that the *fundamental objective of leadership is to foster high morale among subordinates* so that they could provide *superior performance* which in turn should culminate in *effective and efficient realisation of goals* (Smith, 1997:219; Northouse, 2001:3; Lewis *et al.* 2004:117; Williams *et al.* 1985:333). This premise is the foundation of this study and to clarify the point further, the premise is presented graphically below in the following manner:

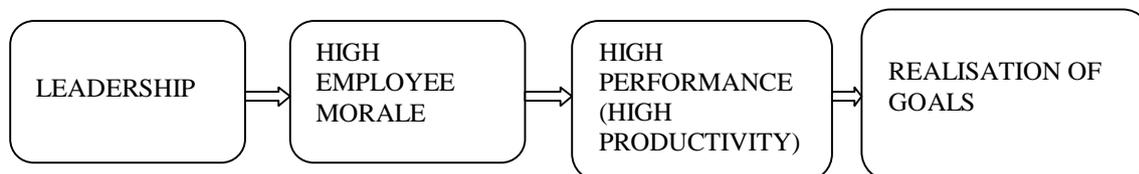


Figure 3.1: Role of leadership in the raising of productivity in public institutions (Source: own)

According to figure 3.1 above, the role of leadership is to generate high positive employee morale which is expected to drive employees to raise their performance

or productivity and that should result in the effective and efficient delivery of services to the public. For example, the Department of Agriculture is entrusted with the responsibility of supporting the farming community to produce food and fibre so that each and every individual could be assured of food security. In this instance, leadership effectiveness would be judged by the level of agricultural productivity in South Africa, which at this point, is hopelessly low (Du Toit, 2002:22; Centre for Development Enterprise, 2005:10; DAFF, 2009:23). The positive outcome of high agricultural productivity is the lowering of food prices which eventually assists in the lowering of inflation.

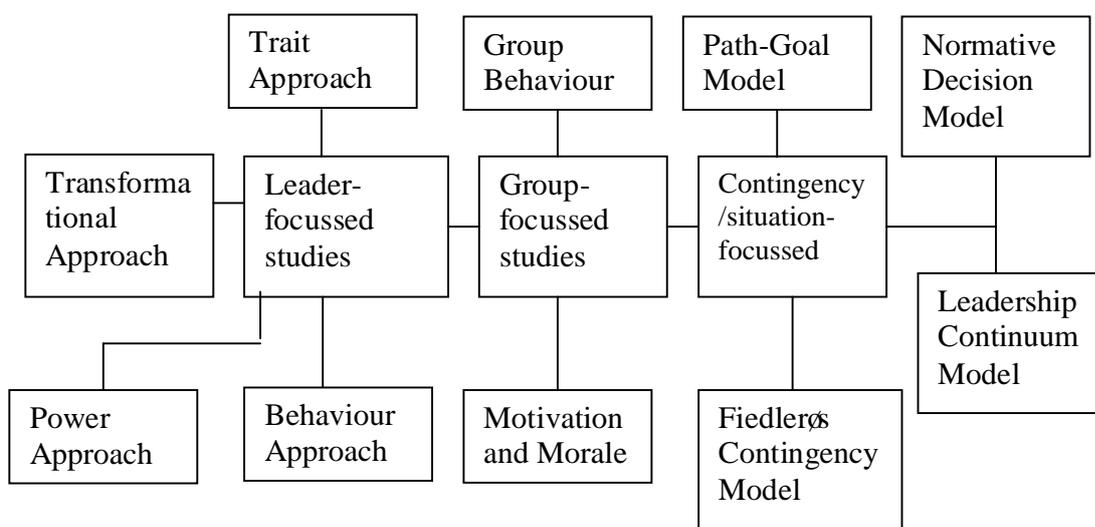


Figure 3.2: Leadership theory analysis framework (Source: own)

The leadership theory analysis framework that was constructed in chapter 2 (see figure 2.7) is presented below for the purpose of assisting the reader to further comprehend the interrelatedness of these approaches. The first objective of this chapter is to provide a conceptual definition of the morale theory by presenting three models of morale such as the Lawrence Model, The Porter, Lawler and Hackman Model, and the Schwartz Model. This will be followed by a discussion of the differences between morale and three other related concepts which are *job satisfaction*, *esprit de corps*, and *motivation*. The second objective is to explain how the morale phenomenon can affect institutional performance. In other words, this section will table those benefits that may accrue to an institution as a result of high morale being fostered by the leadership of that institution. Morale *per se* is not the ultimate prize that an institution can wish for. The ultimate objective is how morale can act as a *catalyst* for institutional *superior* performance and superior performance means that institutional goals will be implemented or realised effectively and efficiently. And last but not least, the chapter will end by providing

concluding remarks of salient points that would have emerged during discussions of the concepts presented in this chapter.

The leadership analysis framework is presented below for the purpose of integrating the morale theory into the broader leadership theory. The aim is to demonstrate that morale is part of leadership.

3.2 MEANING OF MORALE

The leadership theory analysis framework depicted above presents a platform on which the role of leadership in employee performance can be analysed. Employee performance is the ultimate objective of leadership but somewhere between leadership and employee performance lies a *grand canyon* called *employee morale*. The term *morale* has no relation with the term *moral* which means *standards of behaviour or principles of right and wrong* (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. *moral*). Just like leadership, the definition of morale is also riddled with controversies. There are as many definitions of morale as there are many writers on this phenomenon (Lawrence, 1966:1). Some writers view morale as an *individualistic phenomenon* while others view it as a *group phenomenon* (Hershey, 1985:1; Arrow, Mcgrath and Berdahl, 2000:3). Both Lawrence and Hershey contend that the definition of morale is further complicated by the use of terms such as job satisfaction, job attitudes, motivation, job frustration and group dynamics (Lawrence, 1966:1; Hershey, 1985:1). Yoder as quoted by Lawrence (1966:4) seems to suggest an interesting compromise between the terms job satisfaction and morale. His suggestion is that the term *job satisfaction* should be used as a measure of *individual psychological factors* and the term *morale* should be used to denote *group psychological factors*.

The debate about whether morale is an individual or group issue can be better understood by making an example using a bee colony. Although each bee is equally important in the gathering of nectar for the purpose of honey production, a single bee can hardly collect enough nectar to fill the honey combs as required by the colony. However, it is the *sum total* of all the nectar gatherers that enables the colony to produce enough honey that will sustain the colony and should one bee develop a negative attitude towards nectar collection, this will not affect the overall collection of nectar. But should all the bees gang up and refuse to go and collect nectar, the entire colony may be seriously affected in terms of honey production. It is possible to study the behaviour and characteristics of a single bee but if that is done in isolation, it may not project the true picture about the behaviour and subsequent impact of the entire colony. For example, if one bee attacks a human-

being or any other animal, the effect is very minimal but an attack from the entire colony can have a devastating consequence on the victim.

Turning the same argument to institutional productivity, a single worker may affect the institution negligibly but a group of workers working cooperatively can achieve unbelievable results and on the other hand, a group of employees working cooperatively against their institution may inflict a serious damage should they decide to embark on a wildcat industrial action for instance (Arrow *et al.* 17-19). Likewise, one employee who has high morale may not change much if the other employees are having negative feelings about the work environment. In fact, the other workers may view him or her as an *impimpi* (sell-out or management informant).

The approach adopted by this study is that *morale is a group phenomenon* and this is informed by the definition of leadership that was postulated in chapter 1 (see section 1.13.10) which is supported by the leadership analysis framework as depicted in figure 3.1. For the purpose of this study, morale is defined as; “*all psychological factors or forces that influence the performance of a group.*” This definition is further validated by Lawrence (1966:9) where he states that “the term morale includes all those psychological factors which lead workers to do what the organization (i.e. management) expects from them or which deter them from doing what the organization expects of them.” The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary 1995, s.v. morale) defines morale as “the amount of confidence, enthusiasm, determination, etc that a person or group has at a particular time.” The Oxford definition is corroborated by Hershey (1985:ii) where he states that “morale is a degree of enthusiasm that a group has for its objective.” Hershey is also of the view that morale should be considered a state of being and this can be likened to an individual’s state of health. This implies that the morale of a group is not constant rather, it can change any given moment. The definition as postulated above implies the existence of two dimensions: psychological factors (attitudes), and performance (employee productivity). What is most important is to note that there is a *causal relationship* between the two. The causal relationship is assumed to be that employees’ psychological factors have a direct bearing on their work performance (Lawrence, 1966:10; Arrow *et al.* 2000.40-41). Employee attitudes are said to be gravitating between being positive and being negative. Positive attitude leads to positive employee performance whereas, negative attitudes are associated with bad employee performance. In other words, morale is like a double-edged sword. If it swings to the right, it infuses tremendous positive energy that propels employees to perform at a superior level. But if it swings to the left, it may produce such a high

negative energy that may inflict serious damage to the operations of an institution. The obvious fact here is that leadership would always strive to engender an environment that would result in the production of positive morale as this should contribute to high employee productivity.

The questions that one may ask are: what constitute employee psychological factors (attitudes) and are employee psychological factors the only variables that may affect employee performance? Answers to these questions are provided by Lawrence (1966:10), Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975:225), and Schwartz (1980:483) where they provide models that depicts those factors that have a direct bearing on employee performance.

Lawrence categorised those factors into two dimensions that he called *technical factors and morale factors*. His deductive reasoning is that employee performance is a function of technical assets that are provided by the institution to the employee (both physical and non-physical resources) that are associated with the job to be performed and also the psychological or attitudes of the employees who must perform the job. Lawrence goes on and argues that it is no use equipping workers with technical resources if their attitudes are left in the negative. The implication of Lawrence's proposition is that both technical resources and employee attitudes (psychological factors) should be treated as being equally important. For example, a car manufacturer who has invested billions of rands in technical resources may not reap the advantages of economies of scale if the workers keep on embarking on industrial actions because they are not happy with their working environment. Economies of scale can only be reaped where there is harmony on the shop floor so that workers could then use the technology provided to produce not only at optimum level but also at highly qualitative level.

It is interesting to note from Lawrence's model that the approach he has adopted in constructing his model embraces the concept of morale as having been composed of a number of factors (system approach) such as individual factors, group factors and situational factors. According to Lawrence (1966:10) the concept of morale is made up of these three factors (individual, group and situation). This model seems to support the argument that was presented in chapter 2 (see section 2.5) where issues of different approaches to leadership were presented to validate the argument that the leadership phenomenon is not a unidirectional concept but instead, it is a complex matter which cannot be presented under one approach or model. Lawrence's model is depicted in figure 3.3 below as follows:

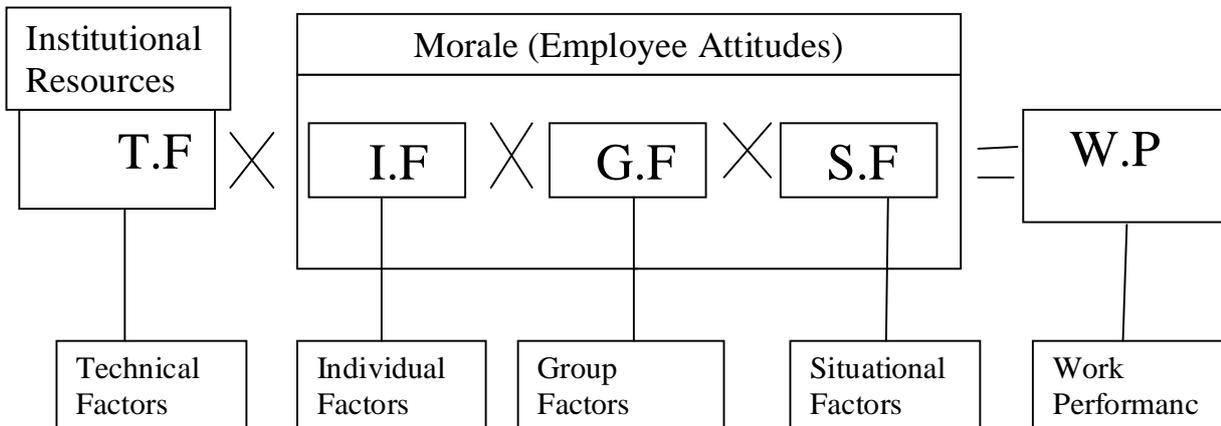


Figure 3.3: Work Performance Model (Adapted from Lawrence, 1966:1)

3.2.1 The Lawrence Model of Morale

The Lawrence Model consists of a number of factors that are regarded as drivers of morale. These factors are discussed below in the following order: technical factors, individual factors, group factors, and situational factors.

3.2.1.1 Technical factors

As has been explained above, technical factors are all physical and non-physical resources that are provided by the institution for the purpose of enabling employees to perform optimally. These are sometimes called "non-human" factors of production (Crosby and Bryson, 2005:247). Such resources would normally include among others, things such as machinery and equipments, institutional processes, institutional policies and procedures including strategies (Lawrence, 1966:10; Crosby and Bryson, 2005:156-161; Arrow *et al.* 2000:115).

3.2.1.2 Individual factors

Individual factors that may affect work performance may include but not limited to: age and work experience, qualification, motivation, resistance to change, sense of responsibility and perception of the work situation (Tindale, 1998:12; Levine and Moreland, 2006:11; Barker, Wahlers, Watson and Kibler, 1991:65).

3.2.1.3 Group factors

Factors that may affect performance include the following: group structure, group interaction, group supervision and leadership, group outside influence and group incentives (Levine and Moreland, 2006:11-19; Barker *et al.* 1991:66).

3.2.1.4 Situational factors

Situational factors that may affect work performance according to Lawrence (1966:73) may include among others, the following: intrinsic features of the job (level and difficulty, fatigue and interest), extrinsic features of the job (hours of work, organisation of work, and location of work) and incentives related to the job (financial incentives, knowledge of results, opportunities for promotion and empowerment in decision-making).

3.2.2 The Porter, Lawler and Hackman Model of Morale

Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975:221) argue that morale is affected by a number of institutional systems and processes as well as social influences of the group. This point is also raised by Lawrence (figure 3.3) where he has provided a discussion on the role of *institutional resources* in the morale equation. They point out (Porter *et al.* 1975:221) that morale may be affected by *institutional design*, *institutional practices* and *social influences* as depicted by figure 3.4 below. The institutional design dimension refers to those factors that have helped to shape the structural configuration of the institution (Crosby and Bryson, 2005:81). The institutional practices dimension is concerned with all managerial practices that are directed at employees (Crosby and Bryson, 2005:29-32). The social influences dimension of the model is concerned with those social factors that may produce positive or negative employee reaction against the institution. The model is discussed further in the following sections.

3.2.2.1 Institutional design

Institutional design refers to the manner in which the institution is configured. Schwartz (1980:209) makes an important comment when he claims that 'to organise is to arrange or form into a coherent whole. In management, organising involves dealing with various individuals and groups of individuals, each of whom performs a function needed to achieve a result. *Organising directly affects the efficiency with which human and other resources* are used and therefore is very important in managing.' How does organising affect the efficiency with which

human and other resources are used? If the structure is constructed in such a way that people are incorrectly placed, or where the structure itself does not address the issues that are contained in the strategy of the institution, a situation will arise where groups within the institution will begin to pull in different directions and that has the potential of causing a great deal of stress among institutional groups which in turn has the potential of lowering group morale. This argument is also confirmed by Porter *et al.* (1975:221) where they point out that "among the many influences on the work behaviour of individuals in institutional settings, none is more important or more pervasive than the design of the institution itself." Another point that needs mentioning here is that people spend years learning a particular skill and if the structure is altered in such a way that people find it difficult to perform their functions according to the acquired skills, those that are affected by the changes will offer a formidable resistance against the new structure. For example, closing a faculty of a university and then place those lecturers under another faculty may cause a serious resistance by those affected by this new arrangement as they would regard themselves as victims of the new order. Two more factors of institutional design that may raise or lower group morale are: contextual factors, and work design factors.

Porter *et al.* (1975:225) define contextual factors as those factors that are somehow external to the institutional basic structure and functioning but have the potential to affect it. The main point that is made here is that these exogenous factors affect the institution from the "outside in" and the institution is regarded as a recipient rather than an initiator of these factors. Factors such as the *environment* under which the institution operates, the *technology* available to be adopted, and the type of *human resources* available to be employed, have an impact on group behaviour (Tsoukas, 1994:86). For example, the work performed by members of the police can either be fulfilling or be extremely depressing as a result of the neighbourhood (environment) the police station is situated. One would expect to find that police whose station is in the middle of Soweto may be more stressed than those whose station is around Sandton. This situation can also be exacerbated by the type of technology used by those police stations. Where appropriate police technology is applied, cops would be able to apprehend more criminals and that may raise morale among members. Human resource capability is a big issue in South Africa since 1994. This means that failure to hire competent leaders in the police force may demoralise the rank and file and that may lead to low group morale.

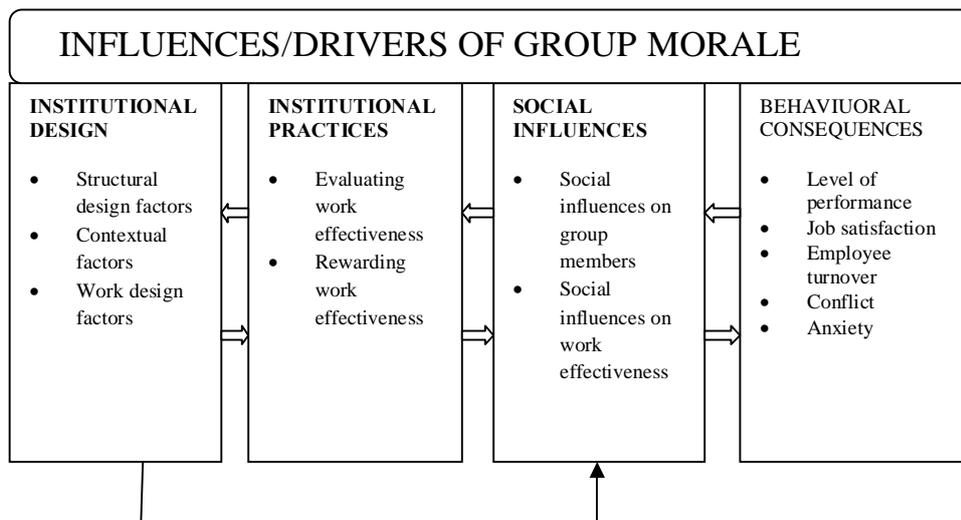


Figure 3.4: Drivers of group morale (Adapted from Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1975:223)

It was Adam Smith (Lipsey and Courant, 1996:49) who initially wrote about job specialisation during the industrial development in Britain. Smith observed the work performed by workers in a pin making factory and noted that ten workers each specialising in one unique process were able to produce 48 000 pins in one day whereas if there were no specialisation the same workers would only produce around 20 pins per day (Bobbitt *et al.* 1978:59-60). Specialisation has enabled mass production of goods which in turn has driven the cost of production low and this has benefitted humanity the world over. However, there is a dark side to job specialisation that may affect employee morale negatively. Work motivation and productivity of groups within institutions is substantially influenced by the manner in which jobs and tasks are designed (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1989:438-439). This problem was initially identified by Carl Marx and Friedrich Engels who regarded the practice of division of work as a ploy by management to weaken the expertise of workers by a process of *work alienation* whereby each worker is allowed to know and master only one part of the manufacturing process which renders him powerless in terms of the total production processes of the firm (Harris and Hartman, 2002:81). This is how Marx and Engels (in Stoner, 1982:254) thought of the system of work specialisation in the middle of the nineteenth century. 'The division of labour offers us the first example of how man's own deed becomes an alien power opposed to him which enslaves him instead of being controlled by him. For as soon as the distribution of labour comes into being, each man has a particular, exclusive activity...from which he cannot escape. He is a hunter, a fisherman, a shepherd and must remain so if he does not want to lose his means of livelihood'. Marx and Engels were concerned that workers were losing their expert

power and that situation was going to lead to their total subjugation by management (Grint, 1995:178).

Another dark side of work specialisation is the worker boredom that comes about because of doing repetitive work day in day out. It was management writers such as Argyris, Herzberg and McGregor who pointed out the challenges associated with extreme work simplification to the welfare of workers (Ritchie and Thompson, 1988:102). These writers claimed that the practice of oversimplification of work has an adverse effect in the welfare of the workers in the sense that workers feel that the tasks that they are performing would be unpleasantly monotonous and unsatisfying. This in turn would lead to a situation where workers begin to lose their sense of autonomy which renders them powerless, bored and highly dependent (Bobbitt *et al.* 1978:87).

To reduce the element of work alienation and boredom, work must be designed in such a way that the morale of the group is uplifted. Job enrichment, which is the process of making group work more interesting, becomes a crucial answer to the challenges associated with extreme job specialisation (Ritchie and Thomson, 1988:1-07).

3.2.2.2 Institutional practices

This section deals with issues of work assessment and the rewards that are provided by the institution to the group. The performance assessment process can be very confrontational and demoralising more in particular, where the leader and the group do not agree on the outcomes of the assessment process (Gregson and Livesey, 1983:227-228). This situation can be further aggravated by a situation where the superior chooses to assess group members on individual basis that results in a situation where some members of the same group are rated lower than some of their colleagues. Given the conflicts that are present in the performance assessment process, it is not surprising that leaders and subordinates both often have ambivalent feelings about participating in the process. From the leader's point of view, being in the position of evaluating someone's performance and giving feedback is not very pleasant (Northcraft and Neale, 1990:566-567). Many leaders feel that the performance assessment process places them in the position of "playing the role of a hanging judge."

On the other hand, subordinates do want to be assessed but they do not want to be given negative feedback as they attach extrinsic value to the assessment process in terms of financial and promotional rewards (Griffin, 2005:452-453). In other

words, group members' desire to take part in the assessment process is driven by a wish for positive outcome so that they can be entitled to the merit awards and the prospects of promotion to higher ranks. Unfortunately, where the results are not so positive, the group can be demoralised and this can lead to a conflict between the leader and the group to the point where the group can gang against the leader more especially if they suspect that the leader has robbed them of their rightful rewards (Forster, 2005:186-187).

The assessment of work is an important part of managerial leadership because managers are able to measure the contribution of every individual to the realisation of institutional goals (Gregson and Livesey, 1983:59). However, the situation has been abused by some leaders who decided to use it as an instrument of punishment to those members of their groups who seem not to tow the line. Biasness in the assessment process has led to a situation where some institutions are beginning to advocate a system of *uniform rewards* across the board regardless of the assessment results (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1989:759-761). However, there is also a side effect of this approach as it will discourage genuine initiatives among group members. Members may be reluctant to take initiatives as they would be aware that their efforts would yield the same rewards as those members who are not so enterprising (social loafing). Social loafing is a group phenomenon whereby certain members of the group contribute less effort than they would have contributed had they been working alone (Northcraft and Neale, 1990:298).

3.2.2.3 Social influences

Leadership as defined in chapter 1 (see section 1.12.6) is essentially about directing a group of individuals to perform some work that should contribute to the realisation of the stated goals of the institution. However, groups have their own dynamics that have the potential of influencing the conduct or behaviour of individual members. Group influence can bring positive attitude to individual members but at the same time, it can foster negative feelings to individual members towards the leader or even towards the institution as a whole (Arrow *et al.* 2000:12-19). Porter *et al.* (1975:368) support this view by saying that "the other people we work with in an institution can profoundly affect our thoughts and behaviours in that institution. Ultimately, the effectiveness of the institution itself can be strongly influenced by the nature of the interpersonal activities which take place within it." The main question pertinent to this section is: how do groups affect the attitude and behaviour of their members? Answers to this question are provided by the theory of group norms which is a process that enables a group to set cultural boundaries that are unique to the particular group (Levine and

Moreland, 2006:65-67). In other words, group culture sets the agenda on how group members should behave towards one another which in turn may influence their behaviour towards the institution itself (Burtis and Turman, 2006:132). For example, managers of banks are expected to wear formal wear and if a newly appointed manager comes to work wearing tekkies and shorts, he might receive a huge disapproval from other managers and that may discourage him or her to come to work wearing informal clothes in the future. In other words, group norms refer to a condition where members of a group are expected to subscribe to the cultural practices of that particular group (Levine and Moreland, 2006:67).

As time goes by, members of a group will form expectations regarding the manner in which members of that group should behave and pressure will be exerted to group members to ensure that all members conform to the expected norm (Griffin, 2005:629). In a situation where a group member violates such group norms, the other members will try to persuade the derailing member to conform and if the derailing member persists, the other members may eventually ostracise the derailing member completely from taking part in group activities. It is the fear of being ostracised from the group that encourages most members of a group to conform to group norms (Burtis and Turman, 2006:12-13). The dark side of group norms for leadership and morale is that, should the group behaviour in question be negative towards the leader or institution, the result may lead to demoralisation of the group. For example, when the majority of workers vote in favour of an industrial strike against the institution, the minority of workers who do not want to go on strike have no choice but to join their striking comrades and this phenomenon has led to a situation where a number of workers end up being hurt or killed just because they do not want to partake in an industrial strike.

This argument is summed up nicely by Dale (1978:326) where he argues that "but if working in groups may stimulate people to develop new ideas and raise their productivity, group solidarity may also influence them to cut down production and to set group standards far below what they might be, as Frederick Taylor found out. Group solidarity may also produce resistance to change or acceptance of it, and the task of the administrator is to use group dynamics in such a way that the solidarity of the group contributes to a favourable attitude toward high standards and acceptance of necessary changes."

From Dale's argument, one can deduce that group morale is driven by group norms and the group can exert influence on group members in terms of accepting or rejecting instructions coming from the leader. If the leader is unable to foster positive group energy, the situation can develop into a full blown confrontation

that may have serious consequences for both parties. This argument in fact confirms some of the theories that were presented in chapter 2 (see section 2.5) where it was argued that the leadership function is about channelling group efforts towards the attainment of institutional goals but that cannot be achieved where there is polarisation between the group and the leader and if that happens, group morale will take a deep and that will have an adverse effect on group performance (Griffin, 2005:623). Leadership as depicted by figure 3.1 is essentially about fostering a spirit of positive morale by *aligning group norms with institutional goals* so that members of the group can work productively (Griffin, 2005;621).

3.2.3 The Schwartz Model of Morale

According to Schwartz (1980:483), group morale can be categorised into two dimensions: *morale stimulants* and *morale depressants*. He defines high morale as a confident, resolute, often self-sacrificing attitude of a group that has strong faith in its leadership and believes institutional goals can be achieved. Low morale is just the opposite. It is characterised by depression, lack of confidence, and a negative (≠who gives a damn) attitude towards the achievement of a goal (Schwartz, 1980:483). Schwartz has further delineated the dimensions into a number of factors that are classified as morale stimulants and morale depressants as depicted by figure 3.5 below. These factors are basically two sides of the same coin. That is, the same factor can be described as either a stimulant or a depressant. The Schwartz model just like the previously discussed two models, also employs the principle of the *contingency* theory, that is, group morale is assumed to be *dependent upon the situation being provided* by the leader or the institution. In other words, group morale depends on something (situation) that is created by the leader for the group. This point is strongly supported by Porter *et al.* (1975:406) where they argue that “When a group becomes able to make more open and conscious choices about the use of those discretionary stimuli under its control to deal with issues of conformity and deviance, the *long-term effectiveness of the group should be greatly enhanced*”. Basically, what this means is that if leaders expect high performance from their groups, leaders need to create *enabling conditions* that would then empower groups to provide superior outputs (Arrow *et al.* 2000:125).

The Schwartz model is discussed below as follows:

3.2.3.1 Factors that stimulate group morale

Schwartz (1980:483) proposes that group morale can be stimulated by ensuring that the following factors are provided so that they act as stimulants for the group. In other words, group morale depends on these factors or conditions:

- Institutional objectives/goals are in line with what the group wants

Group morale can be greatly enhanced where the group finds congruency between their expectations and the institutional goal being pursued. The definition provided in chapter 1 (see section 1.12.6) in terms of leadership is somewhat misleading as it seems to place more focus on the goals of the institution at the expense of group aspirations (what's in it for us?). Surely, if the group feels that the implementation of the institutional goals has no corresponding benefits to the group, the morale of the group will be somewhat affected (Griffin, 2005:523-524). For example, it is of no use to try and persuade teachers to work their bones out for the purpose of improving the standard of education if they will not be fairly compensated for taking that initiative. In this example, *being fairly compensated* can be the primary motivation that would trigger high morale among teachers to contribute superior teaching that in turn would meet the institutional goal of producing capable learners. *Social loafing* is partly caused by the 'what's in it for us' syndrome where the group finds no fair rewards for producing superior performance in line with the institutional goals (Lussier and Achua, 2004:181). This argument will be explored further under section 3.5.2 in this chapter where the expectancy model will be discussed.

- Chances of success in achieving the objectives are good

The setting of group goals must be done in line with the group's capability to achieve such goals. For example, in order for the police to perform the duties of apprehending criminals, they must be trained adequately and also, they must be provided with the necessary police resources so that the goal of apprehending all criminals thereby reducing the frequency of crime in the neighbourhood can be achieved. Setting a standard that requires the police to reduce criminal activities in the area whilst ignoring their proper training needs and also the under-provision of necessary resources may be a recipe for low police morale which is the case in South Africa. This may even lead to police suicides (Cop suicide rate up, says DA; call for probe into stress levels. 2008. Daily News. 8 February:3).

- Members of the group take pride in being part of the institution

The bureaucratic stratification of functions in the public sector has always produced the *silo existence of groups*. Silo existence of groups happens when various groups within the same institution do not *synergise or integrate* their functions so that the institution can perform as an integrated machine. Silo existence by nature, is divisive in the sense that some groups whose leaders are not able to market them to the top leadership, may find themselves being sidelined and this may bring a feeling of alienation to members of the neglected groups. The harnessing of all groups to the *ōsame wagonō* may help alleviate the alienation syndrome so that all groups see themselves as being not only part of the institution but also as major contributors to the realisation of the overall institutional goal. It is only at that point that all groups within the institution may take pride in being part of the institution which in itself is a vital tonic for boosting high group morale (Bobbitt et al. 1978:237-42).

- The work is interesting and satisfies the need of group members

This point was also identified by the Porter, Lawler and Hackman model that has been discussed above under section 3.2.2.1 that most people join institutions with the belief that they will be allowed to use the expertise that they acquired during their formal training years. For example, a person may spend over three years of tertiary training learning to practise as a nurse and if suddenly, the same person is asked to do some work which is outside the nursing training, that individual may end up being bored and alienated. The issue of job satisfaction was also identified under the Porter, Lawler and Hackman model where it was mentioned that job boredom was a product of job over-specialisation where members of a group are expected to perform monotonous tasks day-in-day-out (see section 3.2.2.1).

- Members of the group being permitted to participate in at least part of the decision-making process

Chapter 2 dealt extensively with the issue of group participation in the decision-making process (see section 2.5.2.2). Consultation was identified as one of the main group morale boosters that a leader can employ. It was argued that when a group becomes part of the decision-making process in respect of their work, chances are that the group would enthusiastically support the decision because their concerns would have been incorporated therein. Another critical importance of consultation is that it fosters a spirit of *camaraderie* between the leader and the

group so that the group also feels that they are an important part of the institution as it was discussed above (Newman, Warren and Schnee, 1982:392).

Factors that raise and lower morale

Morale stimulants	Morale depressants
1. Institutional objectives are in line with what the group wants.	Management forces an objective on personnel against their wishes.
2. Chances of success in achieving the objectives are good.	The cause appears doomed even before the effort is started.
3. Members of the group take pride in being part of the institution.	The institution has a bad reputation among its employees.
4. The work is interesting and satisfies the need of group members.	The work is dull and highly repetitious and lends itself to a half-hearted effort.
5. Members of the group are permitted to participate in at least part of the decision-making process.	Management issues orders in a dictatorial fashion. Little freedom of expression is tolerated.
6. Supervision is no tighter than necessary, and pressure on the group is minimised.	Supervision is very strict, and heavy pressure is placed on workers to conform to work rules.

Table 3.5: Factors that raise and lower morale (Sourced from Schwartz, 1980:483)

- Supervision is no tighter than necessary, and pressure on the group is minimised

This point is closely related to the previous one where it was mentioned that consultation is a major morale booster for the group. Tighter supervision is a condition where the leader does not trust the capability of the group to perform the tasks being given. Tighter supervision can be a breeding ground for low morale and discontentment among group members. Delegation of some of the supervisory duties to the group itself signifies a condition of trust between the leader and the group and after all, one of the main functions of leadership is the ability of the

leader to groom or build capacity to the members of the group so that the group can perform their duties even if the leader is not present. Close supervision of subordinates may be an indicator that the leader has failed to delegate (Termini, 2007:172-73).

This section was presented to support the operational definition that was presented above. Some of these arguments that are contained in Lawrence's model will be discussed further under various headings that are presented below. The discussion that will be presented below is going to explain the difference between the morale concept and other similar concepts such as job satisfaction, esprit de corps, and motivation.

3.3 MORALE AND JOB SATISFACTION

The purpose of this section is to compare and contrast morale and job satisfaction so as to be able to answer the question whether job satisfaction has a direct bearing on morale. In other words, the section endeavours to explain whether job satisfaction affect employee morale. This section will begin by providing a definition of the job satisfaction concept and then it will proceed by offering a discussion on the components of the job satisfaction model and last but not least, the similarities and or differences between morale and job satisfaction will be explained.

3.3.1 Definition of job satisfaction

Agho (1989:2) has defined job satisfaction as "the degree to which individuals like their jobs." The phrase "like their jobs" denotes a state of the mind or attitude an individual may hold in relation to the job they occupy in an institutional setting. Agho (1989:2) further asserts that job satisfaction can also be regarded as a model that is concerned with the emotional condition of employees driven by their perception of their jobs in an institution setting. In other words, job satisfaction tries to measure the degree of happiness (satisfaction) displayed by employees in respect of their jobs (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995:64). The premise is that job satisfaction affects job performance (Sonnentag, 2002:202; Mondy and Premeaux, 1993:450) and the assumption is that happy employees are productive employees. Lock (1976) is quoted by Pinder (2008:108) as having defined job satisfaction as an "emotional reaction that people feel after they appraise their jobs *vis-a-vis* their values." It is implied in this definition that people would attach meanings to their jobs based on their values. For example, some people may find working as sex workers fulfilling whilst others may view such work as being diabolic and would

rather choose to suffer the consequences of not being able to generate income for themselves than work as sex workers.

3.3.2 Components of the job satisfaction model

In this section, an attempt will be made to try and unpack the job satisfaction concept so that its nature can be clearly understood. If job satisfaction can be regarded as a psychological state that influences job perception that an employee may hold in a given moment, what are its main components? The job satisfaction model presented in this section is based on the works of Latham and Locke as presented on page 204 in the book, **“Psychological Management of Individual Performance”** that was compiled by Sonnentag (2002:204). Latham and Lock calls it the high performance cycle model (HPC) and this model simply postulates that job satisfaction which results in employee commitment to institutional goals and willingness to accept future challenges (Sonnentag, 2002:204; Pierce and Dunham, 1990:282; Schermerhorn, 1996:136) is influenced by a number of variables that may be categorised under the following dimensions: job demands, job performance, and contingent rewards. The model is presented below as figure 3.6 and also, a brief discussion of its dimensions is provided.

3.3.2.1 Job demands

The psychological expectation of an individual is also affected by the nature of the tasks to be performed and also the ability of the individual to perform those tasks. The job demands dimension looks at those issues that are related to the nature of the job itself and the ability of the individual to perform optimally based on the requirement of the tasks to be performed (Sonnentag, 2002:204; Wren and Voich, 1984:455). Two variables will be discussed in this section; they are job challenge or setting of high goals and self-efficacy.

- Job challenge (setting of high goals)

Goal-setting is defined by Heap (1992:40) as “the determination of the objectives to be achieved by the organisation as a whole (senior management) or by specific subunits (middle and junior management.” This implies that before people are hired, the objectives to be achieved must be clearly articulated. The main issue in this section is whether the setting of higher goals will lead to high performance which in turn contributes to job satisfaction. A number of commentators seem to agree that there is enough research that supports the hypothesis that the setting of high goals does lead to superior performance (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio,

2007:68-69; Pinder, 2008:392; Sonnentag, 2002:204-212). Sonnentag (2002:212) goes on to suggest that empirical findings continue to support the hypothesis that specified stretch goals do lead to the highest level of performance. In short, one can assume, given the amount of empirical evidence, that the setting of specific stretching goals does inspire employees to perform at optimal level and that being that, it is one of the contributors to job satisfaction (von Haller-Gilmer and Deci, 1977).

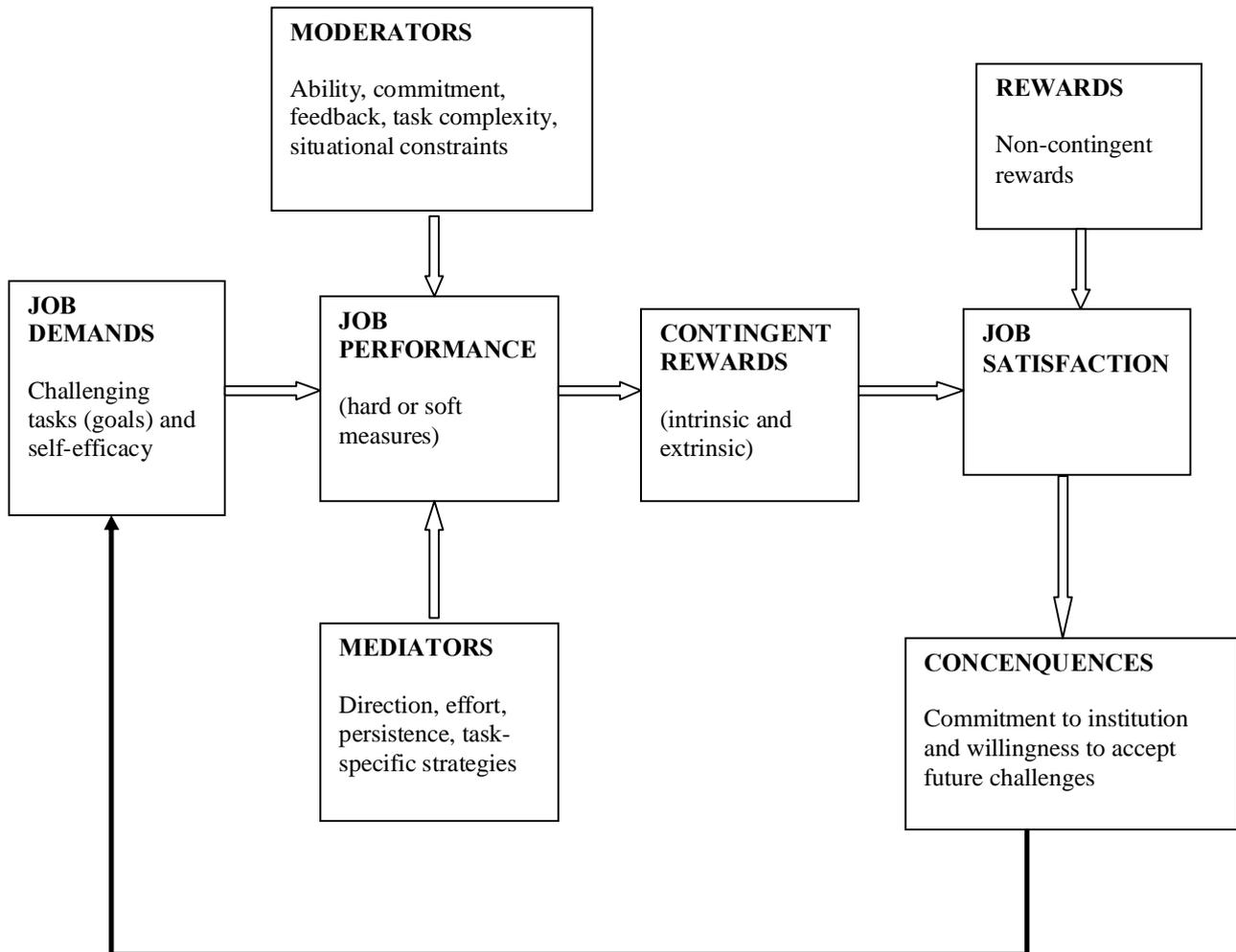


Figure 3.6: Latham and Locke's high performance cycle model (Adapted from Sonnentag, 2002:204)

- Self-efficacy

If the setting of stretch goals lead to higher performance, how come most people are average performers? This question implies that there are other forces that play a vital role behind goal setting and one of those forces is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined by Latham (2007:72) as "one's belief that one can execute a given

behaviour in a given setting.ö The Chinese philosopher Confucius is credited as having said that öpeople are essentially born with the same abilities but they differ in their commitmentö (author unknown). Self-efficacy is the confidence one has about one's ability to carry-out a specific objective. For example, if one sets himself or herself the challenge of climbing the highest mountain in Africa (Mount Kilimanjaro), one can achieve such a goal after convincing oneself that such an act can be realised based on one's own ability to undertake such a perilous journey. Somebody once said that öone's attitude determines one's level of altitudeö (author unknown). This statement is further confirmed by Bandura who is quoted by Latham (2007:72) as having said that öthe likelihood that people will act on the outcomes they expect prospective performances to produce depends on their beliefs about whether or not they can produce those performances. A strong sense of coping efficacy reduces vulnerability to stress and depression in taxing situations and strengthens resiliency to adversity.ö Goal-setting, according to the preceding arguments can be successful if it is backed by a strong desire and also a strong belief in one's ability that such an objective can be achieved. In other words, what is more important than the ability to carry out a stated objective, is the belief one holds regarding one's ability to implement the stated objective (Latham, 2007:73).

3.3.2.2 Job performance

The job demands dimension as discussed above looked at goal-setting and self-efficacy. This is followed by the job performance dimension. The job demands dimension is essentially about establishing the objectives to be achieved in carrying out a particular job and also, it looks at the attitude of the person who is going to do the job in terms of self-belief in carrying out such task. On the other hand, the job performance dimension is concerned with issues of goal implementation. These can be regarded as ödeal breakers or ödeal enhancers.ö In other words, employee job satisfaction is also affected by these variables. Employee effectiveness in job performance is influenced by a number of factors among which the following will be considered: performance mediators and performance moderators (Northcraft and Neale, 1990:553-554). These variables are further discussed below as follows:

- Performance mediators

Performance mediators and moderators are those factors that have a direct influence on how the job is to be implemented and as such, they may exert tremendous influence on employee job satisfaction. They are listed by Sonnentag

(2002:215) as being the following: direction, effort, persistence and task-specific strategies.

- Direction

The direction concept can be likened to the game of cricket where the catching player is expected to “keep his eyes on the ball.” Keeping his eyes on the ball, the player has one objective, that is, to make sure that he catches the ball and not drop it because if the ball is dropped, it may have a devastating outcome on the bowling team. For employee performance, “keeping eyes on the ball” means focusing on the set goal with verve and alacrity. This concept, according to Sonnentag (2002:215), was proposed by Bagozzi and Warshaw. Bagozzi and Warshaw (in Sonnentag, 2002:215) postulated that staying focused on the set goal requires determination based on behavioural intentions. This means that employee goal direction is a product of a conscientious decision that is made for the sole desire to accomplish a clearly defined objective. This is important because any deviation from the set goal may lead to multiple goals that may be in conflict with one another and that may seriously affect employee job satisfaction.

- Effort

Employee effort in carrying out the task at hand is influenced by the difficulty of the task to be performed, and, according to Rasch and Tossi task difficulty is positively related to effort which in turn is positively related to job performance (in Sonnentag, 2002:208; Wellington and Foster, 2009:103). This implies that a difficult task will trigger higher employee effort and an easy task will require minimum effort from the employee. This is particularly true when one considers the effects of monotonous jobs on the effort of employees. Boredom may be the unintended consequence of subjecting employees to routine operations (Griffin, 2005:521).

- Persistence

Persistence refers to the ability of the employee to stick to or carry on no matter how difficult the task is. Employees probably know that promotions are based on the ability of the individual to “stay the course” no matter what. The accomplishment of difficult assignments is a sign of commitment and a gratifying experience to the employee. To use the mountain climbing analogy that was presented under self-efficacy, one will reach the summit of the mountain provided one sticks to the plan no matter how unforgiving the weather is. Staying the course

is the only evidence of the determination to succeed. According to Multon *et al.* (in Sonnentag, 2002:2008), this factor is closely linked with the self-efficacy concept that was presented under job demands above.

- Task-specific strategies

Task-specific strategies refer to the ability of the individual to devise ways and means on how the task at hand is to be carried-out. This is where the overall goal is broken down into specific milestones so that the accomplishment of each milestone, leads closer to the accomplishment of the main task itself. The sum total of all the milestones must invariably lead to the accomplishment of the stated goal (Sonnentag, 2002:216; Watson, 2006:310-12). For example, the launching of satellites involves numerous complicated procedures and each procedure must be carried-out with such impeccable precision because failure to do so, may render the mission doomed. In other words, employees will find a complicated task satisfying if there are clearly defined plans to be followed on how to accomplish the task at hand.

- Performance moderators

Performance moderators are also concerned with issues of goal implementation and they are regarded as all those factors that have the ability to enhance effective implementation of goals. Performance moderators are listed as being the following: ability, commitment, feedback, task complexity and situational constraints (Sonnentag, 2002:216-220; Webber, Morgan and Browne, 1985:96).

- Ability

This section deals with issues of employee work experience. The ability to carry out a given task is partly influenced by past performances in relation to the task at hand. Sonnentag (2002:218) has identified two conditions that are related to an employee's ability to do the job and these are specific difficult *learning-based* goal and specific *outcome-based* goal. The implication of the first condition is that it is no use setting high outcome-based goals for inexperienced employees as they will not have the capacity to deliver hence, the recommendation that more emphasis should be placed on learning. For instance, newly recruited air pilots are initially put on flight simulators before they are exposed to an aircraft and one should imagine what can happen if they were put on actual flight controls immediately after recruitment. The second condition refers to a situation where the employee has acquired the necessary skills to do the job and in this instance, job performance

should be outcome-based because the employee has acquired the necessary skills to perform (Pierce and Dunham, 1990:276). For example, taking experienced employees to attend courses may not be effective as these employees may be bored and even be discouraged and what they want is action where they can display their acquired ability. Public institutions in South Africa are fond of sending employees to attend courses without creating the necessary environment that will enable employees to practice what they have learnt and this practice can lead to frustration and boredom on the part of the affected employees. In short, people should not be trained for the sake of training but should be trained for the sake of acquiring practical skills that they can use in the work environment. These arguments are supported by a number of empirical findings including among others, those listed by Sonnentag (2002:217-218).

- Situational constraints

Goal attainment is also affected by the environment in which the employee is operating. Situational factors can include among others the following: leadership, size of the group, vision and culture of the institution, political climate, economic climate and technological environment. For example, if the political environment does not allow the activity to take place, the goal may not be effectively realised and a case in point is where a local government identifies an area for formal housing development only to find out that informal settlement has mushroomed over-night and that may pose a challenge in terms of evicting those people who have settled informally (Sonnentag, 2002:218-19; van Fleet, 1991:138).

- Feedback

Feedback is a condition where communication about the status of the set goal is transmitted to the people who are implementing the goal. Feedback can be positive or negative. Research according to Sonnentag (2002:219) seems to suggest that employee job satisfaction is directly affected by feedback. Where positive feedback is provided, job satisfaction becomes high and where negative feedback is provided, job satisfaction seems to take a dive (Mondy and Premeaux, 1993:313). For example, most public institutions seem to communicate with their employees when there are problems and when things are done properly, very little feedback is transmitted back to the employee who did the job. When an employee receives a call from the higher authority about a submission that was sent to the head of the institution, one is immediately put on the back foot because the probability is that something needs correction or additional information. But once that is done and accepted, no one will call the employee to inform him or her that

the submission was accepted with enthusiasm. Feedback is one of those factors that can motivate employees beyond expectations and on the other hand, if handled negatively, it can lead to serious demoralisation of employees. Sonnentag (2002:219) puts it succinctly when she says that "feedback allows people to track progress in relation to the goal and also to provide information bearing on one's degree of enactive mastery, which in turn affects self-efficacy." This statement implies that failure to provide appropriate feedback is a serious violation of an employee's right because the employee will not be in a position to gauge his or her contribution to the realisation of the institution's ultimate objectives.

- Commitment

There is an old adage that says "one can take a horse to the river but one cannot force the horse to drink." This implies that sometimes the institution can provide all the necessary assets but if the employees are not committed to the cause, nothing can be accomplished effectively. Goal commitment is the ultimate force behind effective implementation of objectives and it is the early warning system for employee job satisfaction. Committed employees are productive employees and this argument is supported by empirical studies some of which are mentioned by Sonnentag (2002:220). In conclusion, Sonnentag (2002:220) says that "Goal commitment can affect performance directly when goal difficulty is held constant and is at a high level." For example, one hears it almost frequently how uncommitted some public officials are when carrying out their duties and as a result the image portraying public officials is that of "lazy bums who are earning huge salaries that are supported by taxation of struggling citizens and yet they do nothing." (Lazy public officials should be sacked. 2009. Sunday Tribune. 1 November:23).

3.3.2.3 Contingent rewards

So far, two main components of the job satisfaction model were discussed. These were identified as job demands and job performance. It was argued that job demands dimension deals with goal-setting and that the job performance dimension was explained as the implementation stage of the stated goal. This section presents the contingent rewards (incentives) component of the model. The contingent rewards dimension explores the benefits/rewards that accrue to the employee for implementing the goal. It answers the question "What's in it for me?" in other words, why should an employee work his or her heart out doing the job they are supposed to accomplish? The section consists of two factors: intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards. Luthans *et al.* (2007:150) argue strongly that

particularly relevant to the workplace is the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators on creativity. This simply means that whilst the set goal of the institution provide the agenda for employee performance, people are likely to commit if their individual internal and external aspirations are also taken into account. These factors are discussed further hereunder.

- Intrinsic rewards

Intrinsic rewards refer to the inner gratification an individual derives or receives for doing something. The concept is clearly defined by Pinder (2008:81) as "Behaviour that is performed for its own sake rather than for the purpose of acquiring any material or social rewards." Deci quoted by Pinder (2008:81) defines it as "those activities or behaviours that a person engages in to feel competent and self-determining". For example, the determination to climb the highest mountain in the world is based on the individual's inner aspirations and not on monetary gains. The definition offered by Pinder is somewhat contradictory especially the last part where he says that intrinsic behaviour is not directed at acquiring "social rewards". Surely, people risk their lives climbing mountains partly for the recognition they receive from society, otherwise, there would be no propensity to climb mountains if no one were to appreciate such endeavour.

Pinder (2008:82) seems to suggest that there are three conditions that must be present for a person to be intrinsically motivated: first, the person must feel free of pressures such as rewards and potential punishments, second, the individual must feel that their behaviour is autonomous and that there is no external influence or control. This means that the person should have complete freedom in identifying alternatives, evaluating those alternatives and making choices. Third, the individual must feel challenged by the assignment chosen. For example, Sir Richard Branson the tycoon of Virgin Empire loves to challenge himself in the field of aviation. He once tried to fly around the world using a hot-air balloon (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/richard_branson).

- Extrinsic rewards

Whilst intrinsic rewards or incentives deal with those factors that are internally generated, extrinsic rewards refer to the externally generated factors such as financial rewards, nature of the leadership, and working environment including relationship with peers (Pinder, 2008:83). The main difference between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards is that intrinsic rewards are personal drivers (self-driven goals) whereas extrinsic rewards are externally induced (the person is told what to

do and how to do it). For example, the jobs that most people do are usually designed or influenced by others (supervisors) and the financial rewards one derives as a result of job performance are also largely determined by the institution (Pinder, 2008:83).

There are ample empirical findings that support the view that extrinsic rewards do affect job performance (Luthans *et al.* 2007:150). However, the debate seems to gravitate around whether there is a causal relationship between the two variables, that is, do extrinsic factors affect or have a negative impact on intrinsic motivators? Some writers contend that too much of extrinsic rewards will kill the enterprising spirit of people. For example, paying people more money will negatively affect their inner self-drive (Latham, 2007:102-104; Pinder, 2008:87-89). But Pinder (2008:88-89) quotes Cameron and Pierce (1994) as having suggested that extrinsic motivators will affect intrinsic ones based on the intention or purpose for which they are used. For example, extrinsic rewards can facilitate or hinder performance and self-efficacy depending on how they are perceived by the employees. If employees are of the view that the extrinsic motivators are used for the purpose of conveying particular information, then they will have positive effects on intrinsic motivation (positive praising of an employee for a job well done may induce him or her to work even harder long after the praise was given). On the other hand, if the employee is of the view that extrinsic motivators are used as control mechanisms, that is, rewards offered to employees for a task that they perform well, would be regarded as means to control and would not induce self-driven propensity to increase productivity. In short, Cameron and Pierce (in Pinder, 2008:88-89) are making a point that what is important to note in this debate is that it is the manner or purpose for which extrinsic motivators are used that will determine the kind of outcome that will flow from the relationship between these variables. In other words, "what one puts in, is what one will get out."

3.3.3 Job satisfaction as a component of employee morale

The outputs or consequences as suggested by the Locke and Latham job satisfaction model that is depicted in Sonnentag (2002:204), is that employees who are job satisfied will show *commitment* to the institution and will also display *willingness to accept* future changes. The argument that has led to the discussion of the job satisfaction model was sparked off by Lawrence (1966:3-4) where he asserts that "an important feature to emerge from consideration of the individual-emphasis in morale is the extent to which the term *satisfaction* is used as equivalent to *morale*. He goes on to argue that although it is agreed that the concept of morale embraces feelings of satisfaction, the two terms are not

synonymous and Hershey (1985:i) also supports this argument by stating that some writers have equated morale with job satisfaction and in his view, these concepts are quite separate and should be treated differently.

The purpose of this section is to compare and contrast job satisfaction with morale so as to ascertain whether or not they are synonymous with each other. To begin with, one needs to revisit the operational definitions that were provided in respect of these concepts and from there, one will be able to deduce if there are differences or not. The definition of morale was provided as follows: *all psychological factors or forces that influence the performance of a group*. This definition was further reinforced by the Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. 'morale') where it is stated that morale is "*the amount of confidence, enthusiasm, determination, etc that a person or group has at a particular time.*" These definitions seem to suggest that morale is a state of mind (psychological feeling) that a person or group has at a particular point in time. The most important point here is that morale is the effect of some other factors. In other words, there must be certain factors or variables that are responsible or that can affect morale. For instance, if one examines the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary definition, one can clearly identify three elements of morale, that is, *confidence, enthusiasm and determination*. If one wanted to measure the level of morale of a particular group, one would simply investigate those variables that can affect confidence, enthusiasm and determination of that particular group. The major issue here is the identification of the causal variables, that is, if morale is a psychological state of mind or condition, what are those variables that can cause or affect it positively or negatively? To answer this question, the debate must now point in the direction of job satisfaction to check if it is not one of those variables that can affect morale.

Job satisfaction was defined as "the degree to which individuals like their jobs" (see section 3.3.1 above). From this definition, a model was provided that looked at the components of the job satisfaction model. These were identified as being job demands, job performance and contingent rewards. The ultimate outputs of the job satisfaction model were identified as *commitment* to the institution and *willingness to accept* future changes. These outputs are part of the psychological feeling a group of employees may display at a particular point in time and that being the case, one can deduce that job satisfaction is a component part of morale. For example, if a group of employees are satisfied with their jobs, their morale would be expected to be positive and on the other hand if they display unhappiness with their jobs, their morale would be assumed to be low, hence the adage, "a happy employee is a productive employee."

In conclusion, one can safely declare that from the definitions provided above, there seems to be a relationship between morale and job satisfaction and the nature of the relationship is that job satisfaction is one of those variables that affect morale. The other variables that will deal with determiners of morale namely esprit de corps and group motivation would be identified under the sections below.

3.4 MORALE AND ESPRIT DE CORPS

The purpose of this section is to discuss the relationship between morale and *esprit de corps*. Like job satisfaction, esprit de corps is closely linked to morale and some writers have used these two concepts as if they were synonymous with each other (Bruce, 2003:3). The section will begin by providing a definition of the esprit de corps concept and then a theoretical foundation will be established and the purpose here is to draw a line between morale and *esprit de corps*. Finally, the section will provide the nature of the relationship between these two concepts so that the reader can appreciate the difference as well as the relationship thereof.

3.4.1 Definition of esprit de corps

If morale is defined as *“all psychological factors or forces that influence the performance of a group”*, *esprit de corps* is the *“loyalty and other feelings that unite members of a group”* (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary 1995, s.v. *“morale”*). *Esprit de corps*, sometimes called *team or group spirit* (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary 1995, s.v. *“esprit de corps”*) is the *mortar that binds* the group together. Some groups may mix but they may not blend. Groups that do not blend can be likened to the mixture of water and oil. Although the mixture is mixed in one container, the result is that as soon as the mixture settles, the elements begin to separate so that the water begins to sink in the bottom and the oil begins to float on top. Esprit de corps is therefore, the degree of blending that a group exhibit. A group can have a strong bond or it can have a weak bond and this can be plotted on a continuum where the extremes can be plotted as strong bond and weak bond at the extreme opposite sides of the continuum and can also assume any value along the continuum. The definition of esprit de corps can be illustrated by making an analogy with a group of lions that hunt together. When a group of lions hunt cooperatively, they are able to bring down a large prey such as a buffalo or a giraffe. But that can only happen if the lions unite for the purpose of achieving the ultimate objective of providing food for the entire pride. This is the common spirit of *“comradeship and a strong sense of enthusiasm and dedication to a common goal that unites a group”* (www.answers.com/topic/morale).

Bruce (2003:3) explains the concept in the following manner: “*esprit de corps* is a French term that refers to a sense of unity and common purpose among members of a group.” Bruce is also of the view that *esprit de corps* is a critical element of morale as she tries to link the two by stating that “if you and your employees are going to co-create a high morale workplace, then you must have *esprit de corps* because morale can exist only when people feel special.” However, Bruce is also one of those writers who believe that morale is an individual not a group phenomenon. As far as she is concerned, morale is an individual phenomenon and *esprit de corps* is a group phenomenon as she claims that “what morale is to individuals, *esprit de corps* is to the group. They really reinforce each other.” (Bruce, 2003:3).

If Bruce’s premise that *esprit de corps* or team spirit is central to group morale, what then are the elements of the *esprit de corps* phenomenon? In other words, what are the driving forces or conditions that must be present in a group so that the group can be regarded as being highly spirited? Answers to these questions are provided in the following section. The purpose is to provide a model where the *esprit de corps* phenomenon can be explained.

3.4.2 Elements of the *esprit de corps* phenomenon

Before one can provide a model of the *esprit de corps* phenomenon, one needs to explain yet another situation where misunderstanding could ensue. This pertains to the use of the terms *teams* and *groups*. When is a team a team and a group a group? And what is actually the relationship between these two concepts? These concepts are clearly defined by Cannon and Griffith (2007:3) in the following style: teams are subunits of groups and they are usually created to accomplish a specific or narrow mission than groups. For example, an institution may wish to implement a particular project and to do that people may be drawn from a number of functional units and once assembled, those individuals can then be regarded as a team. But once the project is completed, those people usually go back to their specific functions within the institutions. Cannon and Griffith (2007:3) also provide four characteristics of teams. Firstly, teams are designed for a specific objective as was mentioned in the example above. Secondly, there must be a strong degree of interdependence between members of a team so as to be able to harness the different skills that are brought in by these different team members. Thirdly, team members are assigned specific tasks that if one member fails to perform the assigned task, the mission to be accomplished would severely be hampered or would simply not be realized. Fourthly, members of the team must be given a

clearly defined structure so that each team member is aware about the different roles played by all members of the team.

On the other hand, a group is defined in an institutional set-up as a function or a work unit such as the accounting department, stores department or human resource department. In government institutions in South Africa, these are referred to as *directorates*. For instance, at the time of writing this thesis, the Department of Agriculture has thirty-eight directorates named appropriately as: Human Resources Management, Security Services, Employee Development, Budgets and Reporting, Supply Chain Management, Financial Administration, Facilities and Travel Management, Strategic Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation, Agricultural Information Services, Information and Communication Technology, International Relations, Intergovernmental and Stakeholder Relations, Legal Services, Plant Production, Animal Production, Food Security, Genetic Resources, Land Use and Soil Management, Water Use and Irrigation Development, Agricultural Engineering Services, Land Settlement, Agricultural Development Finance, Business and Entrepreneurial Development, Agricultural Disaster Management, Education, Training and Extension Services, Research and Technology Development, Grootfontein Agricultural Development Institute, International Trade, Marketing, Economic Services, Agricultural Statistics, Plant Health, Agricultural Products Inspection Services, Bio-Safety, Food Safety and Quality Assurance, Animal Health and Veterinary Quarantine, and Public Health.

The difference between teams and groups can also be illustrated by making use of a national sports team like the *Ama-bokoboko* (Springboks) Rugby Team of South Africa. The players that play for the *Ama-bokoboko* are usually selected from a *group of players* who play for their local clubs in provinces and once selected, they are usually called the *national rugby team* whose specific mission is to compete against other international rugby teams and win. What is of particular interest here is that players are selected based on their ability to play in certain positions so that all the positions should have competent players and that is why, when a team wins, people refer to it as a *balanced team*. And once the international competitions are over, players usually go back to their respective clubs where they compete in the domestic rugby league. Even at domestic level, clubs have a specified number or group of players from whom the coach can select the team that will play on a given day. In this instance, the term *group* is used to refer to the entire population of players that a club has and the term *team* is used to denote the specific individual players that would be selected to play in a particular match. The point that is being made here is that teams are subsets of groups and according to Cannon and Griffith (2007:3), "all teams are groups but not all groups should be considered teams."

Perhaps the underlying criterion should be guarded by the following question: Were the members of the team chosen from a population larger than the team itself? If the answer is yes, then it must be regarded as a team. But if the entire population of the members of the team are expected to contribute as a unit towards the realization of the goal being pursued, then the team should be considered as a group. For example, in a primitive society, one may have a group of hunters or a group of gatherers (these are the functions that certain members of that society are permanently assigned to do).

After providing a lengthy definition of the two crucial concepts, the attention is now turning to the *esprit de corps* theory. The reader is reminded that *esprit de corps* was also defined as the *team spirit* or *group spirit* (see section 3.4.1 above) and it is clear that some writers have used these terms interchangeably and that is why it became necessary to provide the above definitions of these concepts. Likewise, this thesis will regard these concepts as synonymous but the reader must bear in mind that the thrust of this thesis is on group development and that means that even where the term *team* is used, it should be understood in the context of it forming part of group theory.

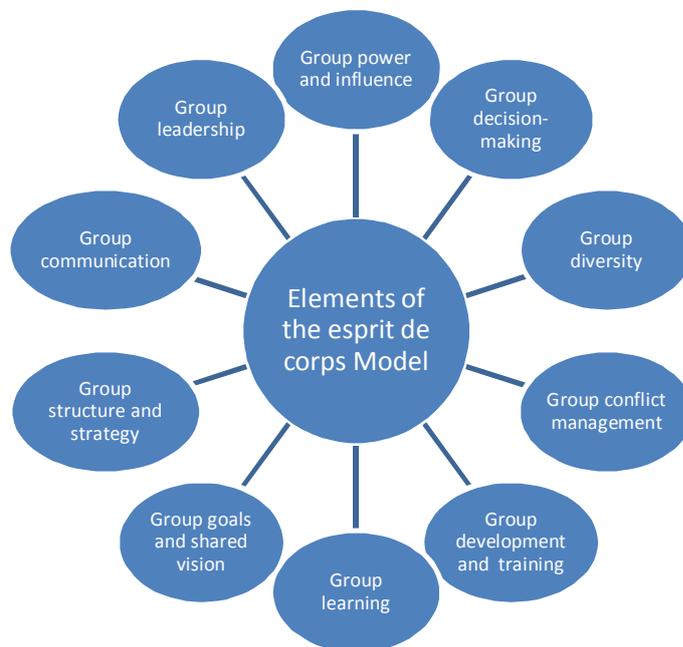


Figure 3.7: Elements of the *esprit de corps* model (Adapted from Cannon and Griffith, 2007: 11)

If it is accepted that *esprit de corps* is the same thing as group spirit, then the theory offered by Cannon and Griffith on group development (2007:11) should be adopted by this thesis. Cannon and Griffith (2007:11) have postulated a model that they call *components of effective groups* and it is the elements of this model that will form a cornerstone of the *esprit de corps* model. The central assumption here is that if all these elements are present in a positive manner, then *esprit de corps* of the group is expected to be high and that may in turn contribute to the high morale of the group. Cannon and Griffith's model is presented hereunder as follows: group goals and shared vision, group structure and strategy, group communication, group leadership, group power and influence, group decision-making, group diversity, group conflict management, group development and training, and group learning.

3.4.2.1 Group goals and shared vision

In chapter 2, as part of the definition of leadership, the purpose or goal for which a group is established was mentioned as being central to the study of leadership. In other words, at the centre of group formation is the objective to be realized and this implies that before a group is constituted, a clear definition of its objectives should be clearly articulated.

Group goals or objectives in an institutional setting are usually informed by the vision of that institution (Forster, 2005:46). It is apparent that if the vision of the institution is not shared and owned by members of the group, the understanding and adoption of group goals will be seriously compromised. These sentiments are echoed by Cannon and Griffith (2007:25) wherein they state that "group members must know why the group exists and what they are trying to accomplish. Goal ambiguity can produce frustration, apathy, cynicism and even hostility toward the leader. Leaders have the challenging task of not only helping their groups define clear, measurable goals but also to instil a shared commitment to achieve those goals." In other words, the most important element of leadership is to create an environment where members of a group are able to share and also believe in the vision being pursued by the institution. A dangerous assumption is for a leader to assume that members of the group understand the vision of the institution. Having a clear understanding of the vision is usually not enough. The leader needs to preach the vision until all members of the group share and own it as if it were their own. Alienation of group members from their institution is usually aggravated by lack of common understanding and ownership of the vision of the institution. Eventually, members of the group end up not seeing clearly how their efforts contribute to the overall performance of the institution (Bruce, 2003:76-78; Cannon and Griffith, 2007:12).

3.4.2.2 Group structure and strategy

Once the vision, mission and goals of the group are properly understood and shared by members of the group, the next process is to consider the composition of the group and also allocate clearly defined responsibilities for each member of the group. This is where the competency of every member is now put into good use so that each member of the group begins to contribute to the goals of the group. At this stage, it becomes imperative for the leader of the group to ensure that all members of the group are competent in carrying out the duties that they were selected to perform. This is where the issue of *selecting or hiring the right people* becomes crucial. A group may have the correct mission and goals but if its members are not competent in carrying out those goals, the group will soon disintegrate or it will end up performing at subminimum level (Cannon and Griffith, 2007:44).

To understand the importance of effective group structure and strategy, one can make an example using a musical orchestra. Once the song to be played has been selected, members of the orchestra must begin to play their part and this assumes that each musician is competent enough to play the instrument that he or she is expected to play. Another important factor to consider here is that competency in playing a musical instrument is not enough. Each musician must be able to read music and also be able to function productively in a group. Musicians must also observe the norms and procedures that are necessary for the effective performance of the orchestra. A musician who is drunk may not be useful to the orchestra and that may seriously affect the performance of the band more in particular if the drunken musician is expected to play a central role in the rendition of the song. In other words, in order for a group to perform with high spirit, clarification of roles is paramount and also, the group will have the need to create norms and procedures for the purpose of directing the effort of each member towards the realization of group goals (Barker *et al.* 1991:64-67).

3.4.2.3 Group communication

Once group goals, structure and strategy are put in place, the next thing to consider is the way the group communicates endogenously and exogenously. The culture of clear and openness in communication is central to the performance of the group (Dyer, Dyer and Dyer, 2007:59). According to Dyer *et al.* there are two elements that are critical for good communication within a group. Firstly, the group must have *open communication*. This means that all members of the group must have the chance to express their feelings without fear of victimisation. This is easier said

than done more in particular in some public institutions. Leaders in these institutions can inflict serious punishment to those employees who seem to be expressing views that are contrary to those of the leader. Two instruments are usually used to punish radicals and these are constantly low performance evaluation scores so that the person does not qualify for merit awards and also the rejection of a person for promotional opportunities within the institution.

Suppression of genuine expression of personal feelings has led to a situation where most members of a group becomes fearful and as a result, they hide their true feelings by pretending to be in agreement with what is being proposed and as a result of that, their contributions to the goal of the group become substandard and lacking in commitment (Pinder, 2008:394). It is often said that when a leader calls his employees to a meeting, the hidden agenda is that the leader wants to sell his or her ideas to the subordinates whose role is to validate the leader's thoughts rather than them expressing their true feelings about the things being discussed (Huszczko, 2004:118-22).

Secondly, Dyer *et al.* (2007:59) claim that in order to foster open communication, group members must be afforded the opportunity to *give and receive feedback*. Giving and receiving feedback is however, not a simple matter. Issues of ethics need to be addressed. No one wants to be humiliated in an open forum. For example, in a certain public institution, there was a change in the political leadership (ministers). The new minister went all over accusing the director-general of incompetency. This sort of behaviour raises ethical issues around the minister. Issues of negative feedback need to be handled privately so that the person affected is not humiliated. Human dignity must at all times be observed so that people are not put under unnecessary stress. In other words, feedback must be given in such a manner that the person involved own-up to it so that they are able to feel personally responsible for the undesirable outcome rather than being paraded in a public arena like a conquered leader during the times of the Roman Empire. Feedback is the barometer through which the contribution of members of the group is evaluated. Not to give feedback is equally devastating to group members as they often end up not knowing whether or not their contribution adds value towards the realisation of group goals.

3.4.2.4 Group leadership

Chapter 2 provided an extensive discussion on leadership. Some writers even described leadership as a continuum with two variables that lie at the extreme opposite sides to each other. These variables were defined as brutal or task-

oriented leadership. On the other extreme, lies the employee-centred or people-empowering leader. To give further illustration of the leadership concept, the example about an orchestra that was provided above can be used. The successful performance of the orchestra largely depends on the conductor. If the conductor chooses to brutalise some musicians, this may affect their play during performance and the result may not be inspiring to the audience. Cannon and Griffith (2007:13), put it succinctly when they state that "the actions of the leader are often a critical determinant of whether the group moves toward its potential, stagnates, or drifts into a dysfunctional spiral." Indeed, part of the aim of this thesis is to study exactly what Cannon and Griffith are talking about when they say that the leadership function can destroy or build super-performing groups. The answer is quite simple; *effective leadership* may result in *high group performance* and *ineffective leadership* may result in *low group performance*.

3.4.2.5 Group power and influence

Issues of power in groups were discussed in chapter 2 and it was postulated that power is an integral part of leadership. Group leaders have formal power which is bestowed upon them by virtue of the fact that they are appointed to lead their respective groups. The issue is not that a leader has power but it is about how the leader uses the power to influence the group. Esprit de corps would usually be enhanced if the leader shares his or her power with the group so that the group could be empowered to make certain decisions regarding group matters (Northcraft and Neale, 1990;433). Decision-making is largely backed up by power and no group can have effective decision-making powers if it does not possess some degree of power. For example, police have certain power that enable them to make necessary arrest of offenders and what is of particular interest is the manner in which the cops uses this power when arresting a suspect. Police cannot simply beat up a suspect just because the suspect seems to resist arrest. If the police choose to molest the suspect, they can find themselves being charged for assault and some criminals know that and they may try to provoke the cops so that they can then claim that they were assaulted and forced to make a confession (Cops Could be Probed for Assault on Cellphone Thug; Robed Argentinian Visitor calls for Actions worst form of Police Brutality. The Saturday Star. July 10:9).

Kanter in Cannon and Griffith (2007:13) makes a valid point when he suggests that no group member should have too much power as this may affect the collective functioning of the group and on the other hand, too little power given to members of a group who are supposed to direct the efforts of the group may equally be disruptive because the group will simply ignore the instruction given as they are

aware that it does not carry forceable sanctions (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1989:101). In short, a group that has power that is distributed accordingly, may exhibit high group spirit because it will be able to make crucial decision at the right time as warranted by the situation. For example, members of a group of soldiers that are engaged in specific operations are given certain powers so as to deal with any eventuality that may arise whilst combating the enemy.

3.4.2.6 Group decision-making

Group decision-making is closely linked to the power that the group has. In other words, a group can only make a decision within its power perimeters (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1989:137-138). The main issue here is the quality of the decision made as a result of the process that is at the disposal of the group. The downside of group decision-making can be that some members may try to push their own hidden agendas and as a result that may lead to a wrong or power decision outcome (Griffin, 2005:293-294). For example, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) is required by law to have a board that is expected to provide leadership and advice on corporate governance issues of the Corporation. But instead of playing a positive role, the Board decided to engage itself in petty squabbles that led to its own demise and also, as a result of the hidden agenda of some Board members, decisions taken were in the main not in the interest of the SABC. Eventually, the Board was dissolved during June 2009 after undergoing a hammering by parliamentarians (MPs will dissolve SABC Board. The Saturday Star. June 27: 2009:2).

In conclusion, *esprit de corps* would be enhanced in a situation where members are given some leeway in decision-making so that the end result is the *ownership of the decision outcome* by all members of the group.

3.4.2.7 Group diversity

Group diversity refers to the composition and culture of the group (Forster, 2005:212). On the positive side, group diversity can greatly enhance the *esprit de corps* of the group in the sense that members with different skills and talent can uplift the performance of the group (Conger and Riggio, 2007:288-292). On the downside, group diversity can inflict a serious dent on the *esprit de corps* of the group. For example, a group of farmers in a village who decide to establish an agricultural cooperative that would act as a business outlet and input supply may consist of both male and female members who may also be young and old. The problem here is that in most tribal areas, culture does not allow women to lead men

and as a result, the chairperson is usually a man and even if it becomes apparent that the chairperson is grossly incompetent, the women would be powerless to oust him and replace him with a competent lady member (Grint, 1995:164). Again in some African cultures, young people may not be expected to express their opinions where there are village elders in the gathering and that may render youth members to take a passive stance even if they are not necessarily in favour of what is being decided upon (Grint, 1995:164-165).

3.4.2.8 Group conflict management

Somebody once said that *“if two people agree, one of them is not thinking”* (author unknown) and in IsiZulu, there is a saying that says *“abantu abayi nganxanye njengamanzi”* (people do not flow towards the same direction like water). Group conflict is an integral part of groups and unfortunately, the term is usually used to denote negative or serious group disagreements (Crosby and Bryson, 2005:68-69). Group conflict can contribute positively to the existence of the group. For example, doing things or *“thinking out of the box”* may be a necessary slogan to move the group from its current unproductive state to a position where change is introduced that may result in tremendous success to the group. However, the introduction of new technology may bring a situation where some members of the group are in favour of such changes and on the other hand, some members may feel threatened by the new technology and may offer stiff resistance to its adoption (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1989:681). *Esprit de corps* can be enhanced by effective group conflict resolution so that all members of the group should feel and actually believe that their concerns have been adequately addressed and does not provide just a cosmetic exercise of their issues but that a genuine attempt to address them is being undertaken by the group leader (Harris and Hartman, 2002:383-388).

3.4.2.9 Group development and training

Capacity building and training are one of the major challenges of group development. A group that consists of people with varying degrees of skills and experience if not handled properly, may end up splitting into two camps with the highly knowledgeable members pushing their hidden agenda that may not be in the interest of the other group members (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1989:755-756). A case in point is where the salary levels are not the same. Should those who are on a high scale such as group leaders go on strike in support of their group members who are earning less? This implies that in order for the group to be truly homogenous, the educational level must be similar so that the entire group should possess similar skills and abilities (Northcraft and Neale, 1990:513-514). For

example, a group of police detectives who are assigned to deal with *white collar* crimes should possess the same training in terms of dealing with such specialised police function, otherwise, if not, some members will begin to show incompetency which may result in certain cases being thrown out of court. Another example could be in a university where senior lecturers are teamed up with junior lectures. Senior lecturers may end up dominating junior lecturers under the guise that junior lecturers are still *learning the ropes* and this may split the faculty into a group of experienced lecturers and the junior ones who are regarded as *abomafikizolo* (new comers) and the consequence of that is that the *esprit de corps* of the teaching staff would be affected and this may have negative consequences for the morale in the faculty (Forster, 2005:14-15).

3.4.2.10 Group learning

Group learning goes behind training. Training can be provided in order to equip the member in terms of function-specific competencies but these are not enough. Learning is a continuous process that members of a group must do in order to acquire dexterity towards goal realisation. Cannon and Edmondson in Cannon and Griffith (2007:14) are credited as having proposed that group members must adopt the culture of continuous learning so that past mistakes can be avoided going forward. More often than not, groups end up doing the same things over and over again but expect different results in the process. Inability to learn from past mistakes is a serious shortcoming of many groups, more in particular in the public sector. The tendency is to keep renaming programmes so that it should appear as if it is a new one but if one undertakes closer scrutiny, one suddenly realises that it is the same old *wine but packaged in new bottles*. For example, changing names of departments such as the Department of Housing to the Department of Human Settlement does not bring anything new other than to camouflage the previous inefficiencies of the Department. Renaming it improves nothing at all and the same goes for the change of the Department of Foreign Affairs to the Department of International Relations. The new Department will still continue doing what it was doing before despite the fact that it has been given a new name. *Esprit de corps* would be enhanced by a situation where a culture of continuous learning is adopted by the group so that past mistakes can be avoided going forward (Bedeian and Glueck, 1983:125).

3.4.3 *Esprit de corps* as a component of group morale

The purpose of this section is to establish a link between group morale and *esprit de corps*. *Esprit de corps* was defined above as *team spirit*. The term *õspiritö*

denotes a philosophical position that prevails deep in the minds of the members of a group. It is the inner feelings of loyalty that members of a group have towards the group (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. "*esprit de corps*"). Group spirit is the "*internal combustion*" component of the engine that drives the group to do the things that the group regards as being critical for the existence of the group. What is of particular importance to note in the definition of group spirit is that it is a phenomenon that prevails within the group. One may not be able to develop the same spirit if one is not a member. That is to say that in order for one to be *possessed* by the spirit of the group, one must be a member of that particular group. For example, in the early inception of the Christian Faith, a number of believers were stoned to death but that did not deter more people from coming forward as they believed that being a Christian was worthy of the ultimate prize to be paid which is death by stoning.

On the other hand, group morale was defined as *all psychological factors or forces that influence the performance of a group.*" In this instance the link between moral and *esprit de corps* is provided by the *phrase all psychological factors* and that implies that there must be more than one psychological factor that may play a role in the performance of the group. This does not however mean that all those psychological factors should be present at once before moral is affected in a group, rather, it means that any one of those factors or even more than one can affect group moral at a particular point.

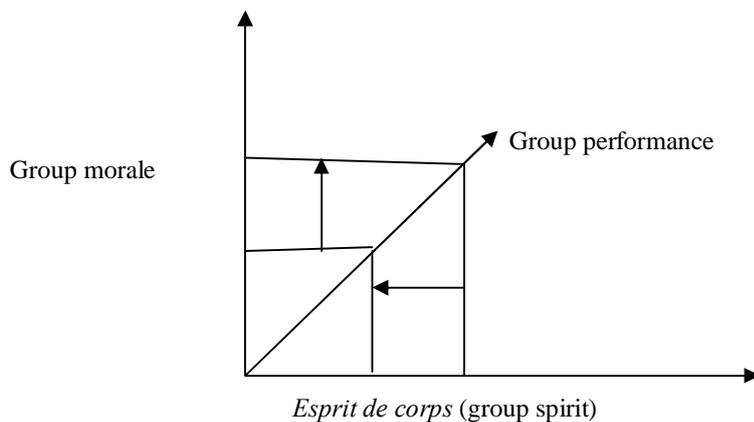


Figure 3.8: Relationship between esprit de corps and group morale (Source: own)

Deductively, if *esprit de corps* can be defined as the spirit of the group, therefore, it must be one of the components of group moral. This implies that if the group has high *esprit de corps*, it must also by definition have high group moral. On the other

hand, if the group has low *esprit de corps*, it must invariably have low group morale. This relationship can be graphically represented in the following manner:

Figure 3.5 denotes a condition where *esprit de corps* as the independent variable has an impact on group morale which in this case is the dependent variable. These variables are said to have a positive relationship wherein if there is an increase in *esprit de corps*, one expects a corresponding increase in group morale. This is obviously so if one considers the fact that a positively spirited group is usually a happy group which means the morale of the group is equally positive or high.

3.5 MORALE AND MOTIVATION

The sections provided above have given some clarity regarding the relationship among job satisfaction, *esprit de corps* and group morale. Group motivation is the last leg of the triangle and the purpose of this section is to explain the role of motivation in groups. The section begins by providing a definition of the concept and then it proceeds by offering a conceptual framework for the concept and finally, the section will explore the relationship between morale and motivation.

3.5.1 Definition of motivation

Motivation is the *driving force* behind an action that the group wishes to embark upon (www.personal-development-course.com/definition-of-motivation.html). In other words, motivation is present in life function. People are motivated daily by different forces that drive them to act the way they do, that is, the actions that people undertake are driven by certain motivators. For example, the simple act of eating is driven by hunger. Demand for education is driven by the desire to acquire knowledge. The definition implies a very important point about the behaviour of any group and it conjures well with the definition of leadership that was presented in chapter 2 where it was stated that part of the definition of the leadership phenomenon is the interaction between the leader and the group and this interaction is based on the premise that the group exists for a particular purpose and that purpose can be assumed to be the act of carrying out a specific objective. In other words, motivation can be better understood by asking the question: what propels groups to act or do the things they do?

Motivation can be described as being negative or positive depending on the position of the observer. To a group of *toyi-toying* workers who are on strike, their action is motivated by the demand for higher wages which according to them is a positive thing to do whereas management can view the same action as being

motivated by unreasonable demands that are aimed at bringing the organisation to economic hardship. The *toyi-toyi* is a Southern African dance originally from Zimbabwe that became famous for its use in political protests in the apartheid era in South Africa. Interestingly, although the *toyi-toyi* originated from Zimbabwe, the Mugabe regime in October 2004 banned it as an expression of protest even if done indoors. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Toyi-toyi>).

Just like *esprit de corps* and job satisfaction, motivation is also riddled with conceptual contentions and that has led to the development of a number of theories such as the traditional models that were created by Taylorists, human relations models that were propagated by Elton Mayo and company and the human resources models that were postulated by theorists such as McGregor, Maslow, Argyris and Likert (Stoner, 1982:444; Bateman and Snell, 2009:41-47). For the purpose of this study, the conceptual discussion of motivation shall be packaged under the expectancy theory and this theory is chosen for its integrative nature, that is, it consists of elements drawn from the other theories. The expectancy theory or model is briefly discussed below.

3.5.2 Elements of the expectancy theory of group motivation

The working definition of motivation presented above simply states that there are forces that drive groups to act in a particular manner. In short, the main assumption of group motivation is that groups are driven by certain forces so that the end result is measured by the performance level of the group in terms of the objectives being pursued.

This section is looking at those forces that are commonly found within groups so that the question posited above can be answered, that is, what propels these groups to act the way they do?

Stoner (1982:461) has postulated the Expectancy Model of Motivation which was originally developed by Porter and Lawler in 1968 as follows: value of reward, perceived effort (reward probability), effort, abilities and traits, role perceptions, performance (accomplishment), intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, perceived equitable rewards and satisfaction. These elements will be regarded as *drivers* of group motivation. In other words, the behaviour of the group will be largely based on these elements and any one of them, if badly handled, can affect the drive of the group which in turn may affect the performance level of the group. These elements are graphically depicted below as follows:

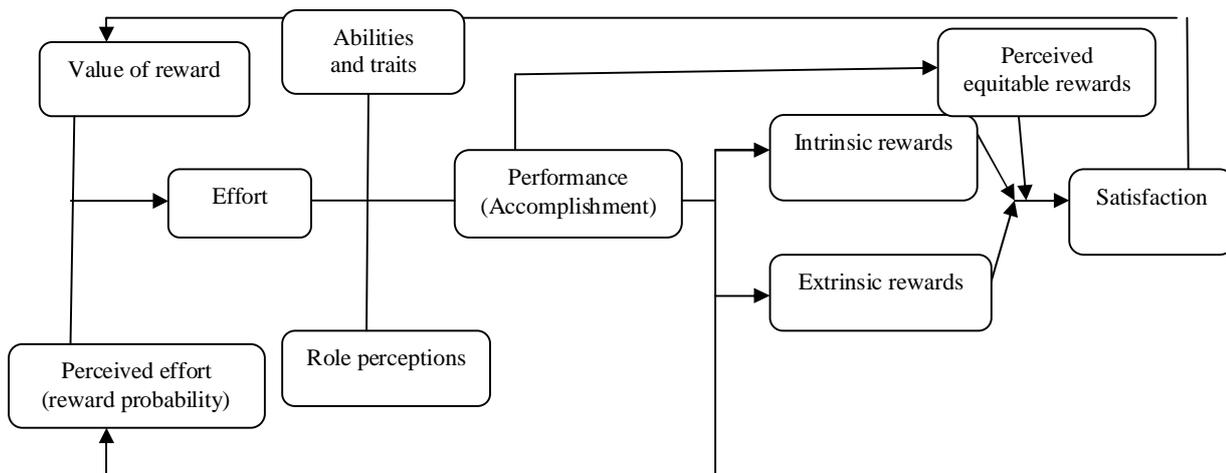


Figure 3.9: The Expectancy Model of Motivation (Adapted from Stoner, 1982:461)

3.5.2.1 Value of reward

The classical group performance models were based on Frederick Taylor's theory on motivation (Watson, 2006:333). According to Taylor, employees are willing to contribute high performance as a result of the reward systems available in an institution. The assumption is that workers are motivated by the reward offered to them. Low rewards are associated with underperformance and high rewards are associated with high performance. In other words, if management wants to induce workers to produce on a high level, the wage rate would have to be increased accordingly. For example, a group of employees are given a task that requires them to produce 500 bags of product-X at a wage bill of R100 per worker per day, and later on, the demand for product-X goes up so that the firm sees an opportunity to produce and sell 850 bags. To motivate workers to produce at a higher level than the present, management would be advised to increase the wage rate and that would entice workers to put more effort which would result in the production of 850 bags of product-X (Stoner, 1982:34; Bateman and Snell, 2009:476-477).

It is true that people join institutions for the purpose of earning some income so that they can maintain themselves and their families. Rewards are still the main motivators of groups and what is contentious is the assertion that they are the only motivators of group performance (Latham, 2007:99-100). Writers on the subject of motivation seem to suggest that in order for rewards to act as motivators, there must be a clear connection between the *objectives to be achieved* and the *rewards attached* thereto. One of the critics directed at public institutions in South Africa is that sometimes public officials are paid a lot of money for little or no deliverables. A case in point is the frequent demonstrations against poor service delivery of

some municipalities and yet if one takes a closer look at what municipal managers and their teams earn, one is actually perplexed as to why are these officials not being held responsible for poor service delivery when they earn so much money every month. This phenomenon seems to permeate all government institutions where one would find that the wage bill is enormously high and yet the deliverables are usually not so visible (Beaty and Scott, 2004:108, Luthans et al. 2007:69-70).

A group that is highly rewarded for its contribution to the objectives of the institution may display higher motivation when compared with a group that is lowly paid yet expected to produce the same amount of performance. For example, one of the reasons that led to the disbanding of the Scorpions was that they were highly paid when compared with ordinary members of the police who were doing similar work and as a result, there was a hidden agenda among the police to sabotage the work done by the Scorpions. Eventually, the police won because the Scorpions were disbanded early 2009 and they were ordered to join a new unit within the Police (DA calls for halt in moves to disband Scorpions. 2008. Cape Times, 25 March: 5).

3.5.2.2 Perceived effort (reward probability)

Stoner (1982:461) says that the perception of the group in terms of the reward and the amount of work to be performed will largely determine the level of motivation the group will have towards accomplishment of the objective. In other words, there is no sense in dangling the money carrot when members of a group feel that the work to be performed is impossible to reach. The group must be psychologically convinced that the goal set for them to acquire is in fact realisable. For example, if the group is practically able to produce 500 bags of product-X, and management want that to be raised to 850 bags, chances are, the group will soon be disillusioned and will enter a state of disarray which may lead to low motivation. This means that in order for rewards to be motivators, the group must believe that they will be able to attain the stated objective (Cherrington, 1994:426-427).

3.5.2.3 Effort

The effort to be exerted by the group is largely based on two probabilities. The first probability is that the group must feel that the given level of effort will yield successful task accomplishment. In other words, the goal to be achieved must be based on the group's ability to accomplish the task that is expected from the group. The second probability is that successful task accomplishment will be followed by

the anticipated reward. This means that the group must be made aware that after accomplishment of the given task, they will automatically qualify for the reward (Stoner, 1982:461; Cherrington, 1994:149-151). In short, the group will be motivated to produce at a higher level when there is a strong belief that such goal can be achieved and also, once the goal is reached, the stated reward must be awarded to the group.

3.5.2.4 Abilities and traits

Group effort may be meaningless if members of the group are not skilled so that they can be able to perform the task effectively. The example that was made above regarding a performing orchestra is worthy of repeating. No matter how much money can be given to the members of the orchestra, if they happened not to be skilled in playing their various instruments, the goal of playing for a packed paying audience will not be reached. The expectancy model suggests that skill alone is not enough. The group must have deep passion for what they are to produce. Members of the orchestra must like the type of music being played so that they can play it with a “*feeling*” so that they can be able to entertain the audience whilst enjoying their own music (Cherrington, 1994:592-593).

3.5.2.5 Role perceptions/clarity

Stoner (1982:461) says that this element refers to the manner in which the group carries out the task. There is a saying (author unknown) that says that “there are many ways to kill the cat (excerpt kissing it).” Sometimes the group may resort to desperate measures driven by the desire to accomplish the goal. For example, traffic enforcement officials usually resort to the concealment of speed traps so as to catch more unsuspecting motorists even if the law may state that traffic officers should make themselves visible when conducting such task. One may therefore suspect that the concealment of speed traps is motivated by the reward that officers receive as a result of catching many speed offenders (Metro Cops Still Trap Cars from Bridges. February 9, 2009:8).

Pinder (2008:374) elucidates the point further regarding *role clarity* by saying that the group needs to know how to engage one another so that the effort can be directed towards effective acquisition of the set goal. In other words, each member of the group needs to understand clearly what his or her role is as an input towards goal realisation. For example, public officials may work hard towards the realisation of a specific goal but because of the *silo* approach to service delivery within some public institutions, the effort provided by employees may not yield the

desired results. This is caused by the compartmentalisation of functions within an institution so that each compartment concerns itself with its own narrow function in total disregard of the role and contribution of other units (Hardy and McWhorter, 1988:384-385).

A group may be expected to be motivated if each and every member is given clearly defined and delineated milestones according to each member's ability so that the effort exerted is towards the accomplishment of those milestones (Bateman and Snell, 2009:515).

3.5.2.6 Performance (accomplishment)

The next element that needs consideration is the performance itself. Pinder (2008:374) says that a group will perform at a point that is in line with the perceived reward. This is particularly interesting when one frequently hears people asking the question; why should I work my heart out for this institution? This question is a good indicator that the reward offered is less than the performance expected and if this issue is not adequately addressed, people will either provide minimum performance and if pressured, they may even resign and go and seek opportunities elsewhere. This implies that the reward offered must be such that the group feels it is worthy of the effort or performance required otherwise, the group will not be motivated to perform at a higher level as they regard the reward as not being commensurate with performance. This brings in the principle of *equity* which requires that members of the group must be appropriately compensated for the hard work they have provided towards goal attainment (Lussier, 2003:386-387).

3.5.2.7 Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards

As has been elucidated above, performance is closely linked to the reward that the group expects to receive after completion of the task given. The issues around intrinsic and extrinsic rewards were covered under the job satisfaction model that was presented earlier in this chapter. Intrinsic rewards are those rewards that are directed at the *inner spirit* of the group which is sometimes called *self-actualization* such as an interesting and challenging job, a sense of autonomy and a satisfying work environment, encouraging and supportive peers, supervisor, and top management and enabling institutional systems (Luthans *et al.* 2007:150). On the other hand, extrinsic rewards are those rewards that are externally provided such as higher pay, type of leadership or supervision and the general conditions of the work environment as directed by the rules and regulations of the institution and

also, the culture of the institutions. Bruce (2003:84) says that when employees are motivated by extrinsic factors, they tend to demand things such as promotion, salary increase, bonus and other institutional perks.

3.5.2.8 Perceived equitable rewards

The reward whether intrinsic or extrinsic, must be perceived by the group as being equitable or commensurate with the performance rendered. For example, a group may be highly rewarded with huge bonuses but if the group does not perceive such rewards as being in line with their work effort, they may turn around and accuse management of bribery as a means to induce high performance from workers. This particularly is prevalent during retrenchment where management tries to keep or raise productivity from the remaining workers by offering them more money but the workers may regard that move as a bribe so that they should work hard to fill the gap left by their retrenched comrades (Bateman and Snell, 2009:332-333).

3.5.2.9 Satisfaction

The final element of the model is general employee satisfaction which has come about as a result of the other elements of the model. This means that satisfaction is the ultimate prize for group motivation. This is when the group is satisfied about the general conditions in their unit and this may result in superior performance by the group. Pinder (2008:374) says that "the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction experienced by the group as a result of their treatment by their institution helps to determine the value the group places in the future on the rewards in question." In other words, the group will be expected to provide the kind of performance that is informed by the group's satisfaction with the rewards being offered. This means that if the group is not happy (dissatisfied) with the reward, their performance may be expected to be below standard and if the group is happy (satisfied), the performance is expected to be above standard (superior performance) which is the ideal position to be at by all institutions whether private or public (Greene, Adam and Ebert, 1985:115-117).

3.5.3 Group motivation as a component of group morale

Group motivation was defined above as the driving force that propels groups to do something or not to do something. The question "what makes them (group) to do something like that," indicates that behind any action, there are propellers that give energy (drive) to groups to act in a particular manner. Those propellers were

identified and discussed under the expectancy model that was created by Porter and Lawler in 1968.

On the other hand, group morale was defined as “all psychological factors or forces that influence the performance of a group”. In this instance the link between moral and motivation is provided by the phrase *forces that influence the performance of a group* which implies that the performance of any group is a function of certain drivers that usually determines the level at which the group wants to perform. What is of particular interest when dealing with group motivation is that it is not about what the group should do (the ideal situation) but it is about what the group perceives as being the right thing to do at a particular instance, and this, by implication, supports part of the definition of morale which states that morale is based on group’s psychological factors (Aldag and Brief, 1981:233-234; Hardy and McWhorter, 1988:476).

Using deductive reasoning, one can postulate that if the motivational level of a group is positive (high), then that should translate into positive (high) group morale. The same graph that was used to demonstrate the relationship between morale and *esprit de corps* can also be applied here.

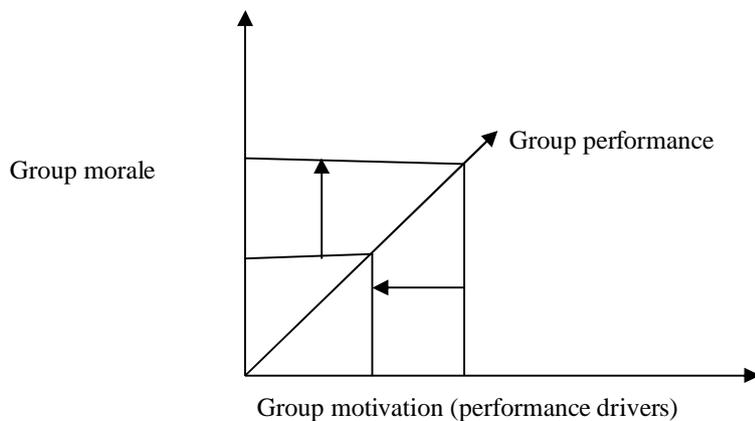


Figure 3.10: Relationship between group motivation and group morale (Source: own)

From the graph listed above, it is clear that there is a linear or positive relationship between group morale and group motivation. This means that if there is any increase in group motivation (highly motivated), there would be a corresponding increase in group morale. Group motivation is therefore, the independent variable whereas group morale is the dependent variable. Likewise, a decrease (low) group motivation will invariably cause group morale to decrease (negative).

To illustrate the point, the following example is provided. A group that is given a task to produce 1500 bags of product-X which is an increase from what the group is currently producing (900 bags) will depend on a number of factors as was discussed under the expectancy model. However, if the group feels that the reward given by management is not commensurate with the expected high performance, group morale will also be affected and the group may refuse to perform at the newly established standard and depending on the nature of the leadership style being practised by management, this situation may degenerate into a full-scale conflict where management would accuse the group of insubordination which may lead to dismissal of some members of the group. This example is particularly prevalent in the mining industry where polarisation between management and workers seems to be the order of the day.

3.6 EFFECTS OF GROUP MORALE ON INSTITUTIONAL PERFORMANCE

Bruce (2003:12) has listed a number of outcomes which she calls “*the intangible proof of morale.*” Bruce is making a valid point when she says that morale *per se* is not what matters but it is the *product* of morale that is sought after by leaders in institutions. These morale *outcomes* are listed by Bruce as follows: *esprit de corps*, positive attitude, cheerfulness, confidence, generosity, hope, high self-esteem, determination, meaningful purpose, mutual support and loyalty.

3.6.1 *Esprit de corps*

Esprit de corps was defined above as *team spirit* (see section 3.4.1). The term *õspiritö* denotes a philosophical position that prevails deep in the minds of the members of a group. It is the inner feelings of loyalty that members of a group have towards one another (all-for-one and one-for-all). Group spirit is the “*internal combustion*” component of the engine that drives the group to do the things that the group regards as being critical for the existence of the group. What is of particular importance to note in the definition of group spirit is that it is a phenomenon that prevails within the group (Cannon and Griffith, 2007:11). One may not be able to develop the same spirit if one is not a member. That is to say that in order for one to be *possessed* by the spirit of the group, one must be a member of that particular group. High *esprit de corps* according to Bruce is a product of high group morale. That is to say that a group that has high group morale will display high team spirit.

3.6.2 Positive attitude

Positive attitude is brought about by congruency between group expectations and institutional goals (Lussier, 2003:272-274) as was discussed under the Schwartz model above. High group morale will result in a positive feeling among group members not only towards the work they are doing but also towards the institution itself (Griffin, 2005:489).

3.6.3 Cheerfulness

A cheerful group is a happy group and a happy group is a productive group. This was demonstrated in the Hawthorn Experiments that were conducted by Mayo and his associates from Harvard University where the productivity of the group increased even where extrinsic motivators such as salaries and working conditions did not change but what changed were the intrinsic motivators that led to a happy working environment of those workers (Stoner, 1982:45; Lussier, 2003:32).

3.6.4 Confidence

Confidence is also a product of group morale. Where the leader and indeed the entire institution show trust and appreciation for the contribution made by the group, the confidence of the group to tackle even harder tasks will be enhanced. This point is made strongly by Kouzes and Posner in chapter 4 section 4.6 where they argue that the leader's job is to empower the group so that group members can perform at their optimal level. To influence others is nothing else but an act of *enabling others* to perform whatever tasks are assigned to them so that the goal being pursued can be achieved with high confidence.

3.6.5 Generosity

Generosity in this instance refers to the *willingness and ableness* of the group to provide support to other groups without *moaning and groaning* and this means that the group with high positive morale will regard itself as ambassadors for the entire institution who are willing to provide support to other groups so that they too can realise their own goals (Bateman and Snell, 2009:480-482).

3.6.6 Hope

When challenges begin to engulf institutions, it is only those groups with high hopes that will be able to make sense out of chaos. This condition is in fact a

normal feature of the public sector where political leadership come and go all the time (Cherrington, 1994:145-146). For example, when Jacob Zuma was elected president, he announced sweeping changes in the way government departments do business and that necessitated major changes in all the affected institutions and as a result, many groups found themselves facing enormous challenges and that meant that only the groups that displayed high hopes are able to weather the storm. The municipal elections are going to be held in 2011 and one expects the same situation to develop where major changes will take place in the leadership of some municipalities across the entire country.

3.6.7 High self-esteem

High self-esteem is closely related to high confidence. A group with high confidence will also display high esteem where members of the group will display self-direction and the ability to take initiatives and not wait for the leader to command them what to do. This issue was adequately covered under the Schwartz model in section 3.2.3.1 above. Consultation was identified as one of the main group morale boosters that a leader can employ. It was argued that when a group becomes part of the decision-making process in respect of their work, chances are that the group would enthusiastically support the decision because their concerns would have been incorporated therein. Another critical importance of consultation is that it fosters a spirit of *camaraderie* between the leader and the group so that the group also feels that they are an important part of the institution as it was discussed above (Cherrington, 1994:78-79).

3.6.8 Determination

Determination refers to the amount of strength the group has to ensure that challenges are overcome. This is where the group becomes fired up to "battle until the summit is reached". However, the setting of group goals must be done in line with the group's capability to achieve such goals. As it was argued under the Schwartz model (see section 3.2.3) that the group will have high morale where institutional goals are set within the capabilities of the group and also that the group is not only capable to do the job but is also empowered in terms of being provided with necessary resources. A group that has low morale in terms of its chances to realise the set goal will invariably display low determination to carry on with the project (Hardy and McWhorter, 1988:339) and that may lead to the phenomenon known as *satisficing* (doing the minimum that is expected).

3.6.9 Meaningful purpose

Millions of men and women spend most of their working time locked into the confines of their institution and this can have the adverse effect of bringing boredom and lack of sense of purpose where the group under which one serves is characterised by low morale. This is the condition that Marx and Engels were trying to highlight (Stoner, 1982:254) that millions of men and women are trapped under monolithic work design that result in alienating them from the wider institutional activities. Like hope, meaningful purpose provides a sense of existence for the group.

3.6.10 Mutual support

Mutual support is closely related to esprit de corps. Members of a group that has high positive morale tend to support one another because they are aware that the success of individual members leads to general success of the group (we are in this together). This phenomenon is more prevalent in a police or army group where members are prepared to defend their colleagues to the death (Bateman and Snell, 2009:421).

3.6.11 Loyalty

Loyalty to the institution means that group members are prepared to sacrifice additional income that they might receive if they elect to leave and get employed by another institution. For example, a university lecturer may sacrifice high income earning opportunities in the private sector solely because he or she feels loyal to the university and to his or her students. The opposite of loyalty is staff turnover where people decide to resign in large numbers because of low morale they experience in their institutions. This condition happened immediately after 1994 when it was announced that white males were no longer eligible for advancement within the public sector (Cherrington, 1994:425). White males began an exodus where they left public institutions either to join private ones or to start their own businesses (Our Readers Express their Views: Affirmative Action. Daily News. October 15, 2010:10). Loyalty also means that members of the group will be able to defend the interest of their institution at all times (Aldag and Brief, 1981:48-58). For example, most crimes that are committed within public institutions such as theft of computers and other government assets are suspected to be done in collusion with some of those who work for these institutions. This phenomenon is known as 'inside job' because the information needed by criminals in order for

them to carry out their deeds is supplied by internal sources (Hardy and McWhorter, 1988:473).

These products of morale can be illustrated graphically as in figure 3.11 below:



Figure 3.11: Products of Group Morale (Adapted from Bruce, 2003:12)

Bruce (2003:12) goes on to suggest that morale is about creating an environment that conveys these feelings. As this transformation takes place, you will feel that your organization is behaving less like a corporation and more like a community. In short, Bruce says that an institution that has fostered positive morale will end up with groups that are characterised by positive feeling of esprit de corps, positive attitude towards everything the institution stands for, spirit of being cheerful, confidence, generous, hopeful, having high self-esteem, be determined, have a meaningful purpose, have mutual support and be loyal to the institution as a whole.

3.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a general discussion of the morale theory so that the reader can appreciate the connection between leadership and morale. The chapter began by offering a working definition of the moral concept and it proceeded by providing various models of morale as postulated by Lawrence, Porter, Lawler and Hackman, and Schwartz. A discussion on job

satisfaction as part of the morale theory was then presented. The *Latham and Lock High Performance Cycle Model* was discussed as an aid to the understanding of the role of job satisfaction in affecting morale in a group. The chapter went on to discuss esprit de corps as another component of the morale theory and this was packaged under the *elements of esprit de corps model* which was adopted from Cannon and Griffith. The relationship between esprit de corps and morale was presented graphically wherein it was argued that esprit de corps as an independent variable, does affect morale in a group.

Finally, the chapter provided a discussion on the role of motivation in the morale of a group. This was packaged under the *expectancy model* that was originally created by Porter and Lawler in 1968. Another model (see figure 3.10) that showed the relationship between morale and motivation was constructed wherein it was demonstrated how motivation as an independent variable affects morale in a group. The three legs of morale can be graphically represented in the following manner (figure 3.11):

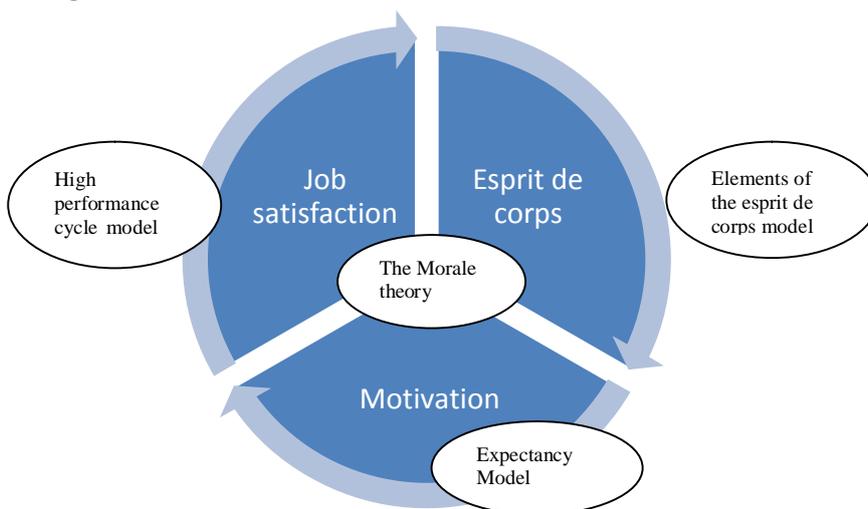


Figure 3.12: Components of Morale (Source: own)

The chapter concluded by providing a number of variables which Bruce (2003:12) calls *the intangible proof of morale* and the idea was to demonstrate why morale is such an important concept in the field of leadership.

The aim of the next chapter is to discuss the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model as it will form a foundation for the design of the questionnaire that will be used in the collection of the empirical data that will be presented in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 4

THE KOUZES/POSNER LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR MODEL AS DRIVER OF EMPLOYEE MORALE

***“Leadership is what happens when you are away and not when you are present.”
Myles Munroe.***

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical analysis of the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model. At this stage, it is imperative that the focus of the study is narrowed to a specific approach so that the research instrument to be discussed in chapter 6 can be constructed. The leadership theory framework that was presented in chapter 2 as figure 2.5 provided a broader view of some of the various leadership approaches that have contributed to the general theory of leadership.

The reader is also reminded that the main purpose of effective leadership is to arrive at a point where followers are so charged with positive morale that they automatically have a desire to contribute high energy in what-ever they are given as tasks that contribute to effective realisation of objectives that are expected to drive the institution towards its mission (Cameron *et al.* 2006:111-13). The underlying assumption in this regard is that employee high energy can only be harnessed through effective leadership and this point was adequately discussed in chapter 3 (see section 3.6).

The behaviour approach has been chosen firstly, because of its central assumption that leadership is a *relationship* and also, it is *learnable*, that is, anyone who aspires to be a leader can acquire the skills of leadership and be effective as a leader. Goffe and Jones (2006:13) make a useful comment when they assert that “much of the leadership literature is overly concerned with those who reach the top organisations. In fact, we would go so far as to say that the persistent misconception that people who occupy senior organisational positions are leaders has probably damaged our capacity to understand leadership more than anything else. It has blinded us to the true nature of leadership.” Secondly, the behaviour approach focuses on the leader and as such, it assumes that the relationship between the leader and the group is dependent upon the manner in which the leader *conducts himself or herself* whilst performing the leadership function.

The Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model has delineated certain behavioural variables that are regarded as fundamental elements that any leader needs to adopt as key drivers towards effective leadership that would cause employees to be infused with high positive energy that in turn, will culminate into a highly morale charged group of employees. The ultimate prize of high employee morale is superior performance which is critical for institutional realisation of set objectives as was discussed above.

The chapter begins by providing introductory comments and it proceeds by giving reasons for the adoption of the Kouzes/Posner Model for the study. An in-depth discussion of the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model is then provided where the Model will be divided into five factors as follows: leaders model the way, leaders inspire a shared vision, leaders challenge the institutional processes, leaders enable others to act, and leaders encourage others to endure. Each factor consists of behavioural statements/elements that are designed to empower leaders in their quest to improve their leadership skills.

4.2 REASONS FOR CHOOSING THE KOUZES/POSNER MODEL AS A FOUNDATION FOR THE STUDY

At this point, the reader would like to know why the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model was adopted for the study. In other words, out of the various leadership approaches that were presented in chapter 2 (see figure 2.6), what is so special with this one? The purpose of this section is to provide those reasons that have mitigated for the choice of this Model and these reasons are discussed below in the following manner:

4.2.1 Institutions are people

Institutions function the way they do because of the people who work in them and this point was briefly argued under 1.2 in chapter 1, where a definition of an institution was provided as "a consciously coordinated social entity with a relatively identifiable boundary, that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals" (Robbins, 1990:4). This definition is further corroborated by Porter *et al.* (1975:69) wherein they define an institution as being composed of *individuals or groups* that are assembled for the sole purpose of achieving certain *goals and objectives* that led to the creation of such an institution. Objectives are achieved by means of dividing them into *functions* that are then rationally *coordinated* and *directed* and this is not a once-off event but it carries on through time on a *continuous* basis.

The last statement implies that although individuals can and do leave for greener pastures, the institution will continue to exist so that the effect of departure of certain individuals does not necessarily lead to the disbandment of the institution. For example, the sudden departure of a director-general of a public institution does not necessarily signal the end of that institution. It will continue to function as long as its objectives are still relevant to society. This is sometimes known as the *continuity principle* of the nature of institutions. Like in the bee colony, a new queen will have to be *manufactured* so that the role that was played by the departed *queen* may continue as normal. In the case of institutions, a new director-general would be appointed so as to fulfil the function that is normally played by a director-general. The point that is being made here is that people are the lifeblood of institutions and that being that, their treatment as members must be high on the institutional agenda. The principle of *“people -first”* is handled under the leadership terrain which by definition, is the study of how managers direct the efforts of their subordinates towards the realisation of set objectives of the institution.

The definition of leadership that was also provided in chapter 1 is also in line with the above view. The definition of leadership was posited as *“a process where an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”* (Northouse, 2001:3). This definition implies that there must be one individual whose role is to *influence* a group of other individuals for the purpose of achieving some objective. It is the manner in which the influence is being carried out that is being investigated in this study and this is done using the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model as a tool. This can be illustrated by providing the following analogy: a scientist who is conducting research on the nature of a certain bacteria will normally conduct the study using a microscope. What is being argued here is that it is not necessary for the researcher to construct his or her own microscope as this has been constructed by other scientists but what is important is to use the microscope as a *tool* to solve the problem of bacteria so that lives could be saved. Likewise, the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model will be used in the same manner so that problems and challenges associated with the leadership function affecting the Department of Agriculture, if they exist, can be highlighted so that recommendations for improvement can then be made.

4.2.2 There is a great need for leadership transformation in South Africa

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995:2) as was discussed again under chapter 1 (see section 1.2), makes an interesting claim that suggests that the mission is to *“promote human resource development and*

capacity building as a necessary precondition for effective change and institution building.” The White Paper goes on to list certain challenges that came about as a result of the apartheid system of government in South Africa which was practised up until the first democratic elections that took place in 1994. Some of those challenges were identified as being: centralized control and top-down management, lack of accountability and transparency, low productivity, lack of professional ethos and ethics and lack of skills and capacity. These challenges are basically addressed under the leadership terrain since they are directed to “*people management*” within institutions more in particular after 1994.

4.2.3 There is extensive research conducted under the Model

Models can be regarded as plans that provide processes on how to build or implement something (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990:403-05). For example, to build a house, one would need a building plan and this provides the blue-print on how to build the house. Likewise, a model in the field of leadership is constructed for the purpose of assisting those who aspire to be leaders to build their behaviour following specifically designed elements. What is of particular importance is that in order for the model to be accepted, it must be extensively tested so that its reliability can be established.

The Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model is one of those models that have been extensively used. According to the authors (2003:16), the Model has been tested extensively across many institutional settings and it enjoys high regard in the academic sphere. They also claim that this Model is “one of the widely used 360-degree leadership assessment instrument available.” The Model has been administered to over two hundred and fifty thousand leaders and almost one million observers have taken part as well. In the academic sphere, more than two hundred masters and doctors theses have been produced using the Model as a foundation.

With this kind of extensive background, it is apparent why the researcher adopted this Model as a foundation for the study of leadership behaviour in the Department of Agriculture. The Model provides the baseline study so that the leadership behaviour of the chosen population (deputy directors) can be compared so that differences can be analysed and interpreted.

4.2.4 The Model is designed for all layers of management

In chapter 2, it was argued that most of the leadership theories tended to be directed at the leadership at the top of the echelon and that meant that when such theories were conducted at the lower echelon of leadership, results were hopelessly disappointing and as a result, new theories were created. The Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model is essentially directed at the ordinary or lower end of the leadership strata so that the leadership function is not reserved for the few under the pretext that only a few people have what it takes to be a leader (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:13).

In the Department of Agriculture, deputy directors are referred to as middle managers (MMs) and as such they are usually at the forefront of policy and programme implementation. The choice of a model that disregards position and concentrates on what leaders do is essential in discovering the nature of leadership behaviour across all spheres of management.

4.2.5 The authors are highly regarded in the academic world

Kouzes and Posner are regarded as some of the major researchers, award-winning writers and consultants in the field of leadership and executive development (Thomas, 2006:89). They have been pioneering a new way of looking at behavioural or transformational leadership since 1983. Central to their doctrine of leadership, is the premise that a leader needs to be regarded as having the ability to fundamentally induce transformational changes in an institution through powerful perspective and a distinctive set of capabilities. What is at the centre of their thesis is the notion that it is the followers who make leaders powerful and this philosophical approach to leadership is what the AmaZulu call “*inkosi yinkosi ngabantu*” (a king is a king because of people). For example, King Shaka without his ferociously charged impis would not have been such a highly successful conqueror.

From the beginning of 1983, the authors embarked on a journey to discover the secrets behind successful leaders. In other words, they wanted to know what leaders do when they are at their best, that is, when they are successful. From that extensive research data which took over twenty years to accumulate, five elements were drawn and these elements are the ones that form the basis of the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model.

In 2001, Kouzes and Posner received the coveted Wilber M. McFeely Award which boasts of such previous recipients as: Ken Blanchard, Stephen Covey, Peter Drucker, Edward Deming, Lee Iacocca, Rosabeth Moss Kanter and Tom Peters. And also, Kouzes and Posner are frequent conference speakers and have conducted leadership development projects for numerous institutions around the world (Thomas, 2006:90).

However, Thomas (2006:92) provides an interesting counter argument regarding the downside of on-the-shelf research instruments. He is trying to warn that the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Model smacks of what he calls "American Apple-pie" in the sense that it sounds quite appetising but may be too idealistic. The whole Model is based on the art of *persuasion* and it disregards the power of the leader in enforcing compliance if necessary. Where persuasion is the option, the follower can choose to be either motivated or not to be motivated to act. For example, a preacher relies on the power of persuasion which may win him or her some followers but that does not necessarily mean that all people persuaded will automatically be filled with the *Holy Spirit* and start jumping around like beheaded chickens. By design, leaders have formal authority over their followers which they may decide to use if things do not go according to plan. For instance, how should the leader deal with an employee who constantly disregards institutional rules and procedures, Should he or she continue using the art of persuasion, even if there is no corresponding change in the employee's behaviour?

Another debatable issue surrounding this Model is that the behavioural statements were carved and perfected by the authors as if they were the only leadership behaviour statements that a leader may need. One may ask: what criteria were used to arrive at those leadership behaviour statements. In fact, what makes these leadership behaviour statements so special?

Another debatable issue is the failure of the Model to explain what would happen where followers do not respond positively when the leader has engaged in those behaviour statements. Should the leader continue with those behaviour statements with the hope that somewhere in the future, followers will suddenly wake up to the call or should he or she try something else? Sadly, the Model is silent on these issues. Another concern is that the Model is based on the American style of leadership and as such it may be highly subjective or biased towards an American idealistic approach to leadership which may not work effectively in the third world environment.

Notwithstanding the above challenges, the Model is still useful in the analysis of contemporary leadership behaviour. It takes the leadership behaviour debate to another level by insisting that leaders must critically evaluate their behaviour towards their followers. The assertion that leadership is a relationship rather than a position offers a load of fresh approach to the leadership theory so that leaders are persuaded to regard themselves as *people-builder* rather than *people-user*. Another important contribution of this Model to the study of leadership is that it fits well with the African philosophy of *ubuntu* and as such it should find huge support in the African Continent when it comes to issues of leadership. The basic tenet of the ubuntu philosophy is that the leader needs to treat others exactly the same way as he or she would like to be treated with human dignity. In other words, the Model is a vital tool to use as an instrument of leadership democracy in African private and public institutions. Issues about globalisation of the economy are also relevant here because of the fact that leadership is a global phenomenon and as such, if it is able to assist leaders in one country, it should be able to assist leaders throughout the whole world and as such, it should be regarded as being *universalistic* which means that any person who wants to improve their leadership skills should find value in it irrespective of the country in which they live.

Having provided both pros and cons of the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model, the focus is now moving to the discussion of the Model so that the reader can gain insight when the empirical data is presented in chapter 7. The Model is presented below in the following manner:

4.3 LEADERS MODEL THE WAY

Modelling the way is essentially about earning the right and respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:15). The purpose of this section is to provide a discussion on the role of the leader as a *trend-setter* so that followers can regard him or her as a role-model. The major objective of this section is to demonstrate the usefulness of leadership modelling in building leadership credibility. In other words, if leadership is to be regarded as a relationship, *leader credibility* should be the first law of the leadership commandments. The fundamental question to be asked here is the one that Goffee and Jones (2006) asked in their book with the same title and that is: *why should anyone be led by you*". The fundamental objective of asking this philosophical question is to explore the principle of *leadership authenticity* where the leader is provided with suggestions on how to harvest the culture of leadership authenticity. To act as a role-model, the leader must do and be seen to subscribe to the following behaviours:

4.3.1 Leaders find their voices by clarifying their personal values

It is written in the Holy Bible (Exodus 20:3-17) that whilst Moses was leading the Israelites, he felt the need to communicate with God so that God could grant him strength and wisdom to pull his people out of the desert. To do this, Moses went to the mountain where he spent some time and when he came back, he had in his hands, a set of rules written in stone tablets that became the famous Ten Commandments (Holy Bible, Exodus 20:3-17).

The moral of this story is that whilst Moses was out there seeking Divine Wisdom, he also got the opportunity to discover and clarify his own role as leader. In other words, he was helped to *find his voice* so that whatever he said and done, was guided by the principles that were discovered during the mountain pilgrimage. The Christians are correct when they proclaim that as a Christian, one must *act on the word of God*. ðActing on the word of Godð simply means that the behaviour of a Christian must be in line with the word of God, whatever that word is. That is, Christians are expected to speak and act according to the dictates of their convictions.

For example, there are two types of musicians in the contemporary music category. There is the one who prefers to write and then sings his or her own songs. The other one prefers to sing songs that were written and recorded by other musicians. The second musician usually tries hard to sound like the original composer and in the process, they tend to *lose their originality* whereas the first one usually will sing the songs with originality and music lovers will soon associate him or her with those particular songs. This implies that the leader needs to undertake a *psychological journey* for the purpose of discovering and clarifying the leadership philosophy that will help shape the leader's belief.

In chapter 2 (see figure 2.7) a number of leadership approaches which can be regarded as ðguiding principlesð were discussed so that any person who wants to assume the leadership role can then choose and model his or her leadership style based on one or a combination of those approaches. Kouzes and Posner (2002:14) support this argument by stating that ðto effectively model the behaviour they expect of others, leaders must first be clear about their guiding principles.ð In other words, leaders need to ask themselves the following question first: what is the guiding principle of my leadership style? Just like in Moses's case, this question must be first on the agenda of the leader so that what follows should be based on certain ðleadership commandmentsð or guiding principles which Kouzes and Posner (2002:21) call ðleadership commitmentsð.

Leadership values become particularly useful when the group is facing a crisis. Leaders with weak conviction are the first to jump ship (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:46) but leaders with strong conviction will stay and try to rescue the situation. This point can be illustrated by the maritime principle which requires that in times of any pending disaster, the captain of the ship must be the last to leave. Likewise, leaders with strong conviction will stick to their position until the goal of their effort is achieved. Here one is reminded of leaders like Mahatma Gandhi, Winston Churchill, Nelson Mandela and others who, despite facing insurmountable challenges, managed to guide their people until the goal was achieved.

Surely, these preceding arguments points one to the direction of ethical leadership. Kouzes and Posner are trying to dramatise the importance of ethics in leadership and they stress the point that every leader must first find his or her own ethical footing and the rest shall synchronise automatically. In their book *The Leadership Challenge*, they make an interesting analogy by stating that there must be synergy between the leader's words and his or her actions and they say that the leader is like an actor in a movie. The sound must be in *synch* with the actor's actions or vocal movement otherwise a situation will arise where what is being said does not link with the actor's actions and the audience will soon lose the direction of the movie (Kouzes/Posner, 2002:37). Likewise, a leader who says one thing and then goes on to act in a different manner or in a manner that is contrary to what is being said, will soon find out that the followers will develop a feeling of mistrust. Kouzes and Posner (2002:46) have established what they call the *first law of leadership* and that law says that *if one does not believe in the messenger, one will not believe the message that is being delivered*. They go on to state that as a corollary to their first law of leadership, one will find it difficult to *believe in the messenger if one does not know what the messenger believes in*.

Ethics is defined by Hein and Jean-Nicholson (1990:245) as a discipline that lies within the broader spheres of philosophy. They go on to state that ethics is the *systematic study of what our conduct and actions ought to be with regard to ourselves, other human beings, and the environment, the justification of what is right or good, the study of what our lives and relationships ought to be*. This definition confirms exactly what Kouzes and Posner are saying when they suggest that the first thing that a leader needs to do is to discover the kind of *conduct and actions* that will be admired by his or her followers so that they should automatically aspire to model their own conduct and actions along the same line, and this view is also corroborated by Goffee and Jones (2006:16) where they try to argue about the nature and value of *authentic* leadership.

McNally (in Hein and Jean-Nicholson, 1990:91) makes a very interesting definition of *values* by stating that "values are beliefs that are important to us. A value also may be defined as an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or state of existence is personally or socially preferable." In short, a value is a belief that a person is prepared to die for, something that a person holds so dear that they do not see any other alternative. For example, most mothers value their newly-born children that when confronted with a situation where the infant is in danger of being bitten by a snake that has crawled in the baby's court, the mother would automatically try to snatch the infant out of the baby's court without even thinking about being bitten by the snake herself. Such action is said to be driven by the motherly love which the mother has towards her infant and this love is so strong that she would do anything possible to protect her child. Another striking example is that of a person who wears a suicide belt and knowingly that pressing that button may mean the end of his or her life. What drives a person to blow themselves up in that manner? Wouldn't it be said that some people have such intense drive for their values such that they are willing and able to sacrifice their own lives or is it the case of fanaticism as it is normally projected by the media?

To stress the issue of importance of values, McNally (in Hein and Jean-Nicholson, 1990:91) goes on to provide four characteristics of values as follows: firstly, values must be *prized and cherished*, secondly, values are not a once-off event but are part of a pattern, that is, they must be *repeated*, thirdly, values are *freely chosen* from among alternatives only after due reflection, and fourthly, values are *positively affirmed* and acted upon.

To illustrate the point, McNally (in Hein and Jean-Nicholson, 1990:91) makes a very interesting point when she states that "Because these are demanding criteria, most people have very few values. People with very few values tend to be conforming, apathetic, inconsistent, and often very ambivalent. People with little internalization of values develop what is called *anomie*, a condition of extreme confusion leading to a psychological withdrawal from life characterised by intolerance for change, alienation from the external world, and loss of touch with self." This claim made by McNally raises interesting arguments for leaders more especially the last part of the statement where she provides the consequences of *anomie* by saying that people with this condition will suffer from a condition of extreme confusion which may lead to psychological withdrawal from life (withdrawal syndrome) which in turn may result in fear and resistance to change, divorce from the external environment, and most importantly, loss of touch with self.

Surely, if the results of anomie are what McNally claims, then Kouzes and Posner are correct to say that the first thing that a leader needs to do is to discover and connect with their values. No one should be led by someone who is extremely confused, fears change, divorced from external forces and is not in touch with their inner feelings, don't know who they are or what they represent. In other words, why should anyone be led by a person who suffers from anomie?

A point was made by the researcher in chapter 1 that the public sector is characterised by what the former President Thabo Mbeki used to call "careerism" where people apply for top positions not because they have the inner desire to serve the people of South Africa but because they want to use the institutions as vehicles for "self-aggrandizement". In other words, would the current leaders of public institutions have been attracted to those positions if the pay was say, half of what they are earning right now? This is a fundamental question to ask which should lead to further research in this direction so as to reveal the true nature of what attracts people to join public institutions more in particular at top level. As a result of this, corruption and nepotism has become the order of the day in some of these institutions. Part of the solution to this problem is to heed the advice provided by the writers mentioned above that people should be selected based on their values so that the condition of anomie is minimised. In short, leaders must be taught how to discover their true values so that they should begin to contribute positively to the general welfare of the citizens.

4.3.2 Leaders set the example by aligning actions with shared values

The arguments provided above in favour of finding one's voice has revealed that leaders will need to discover and connect with their inner values so that they can begin to express themselves from a position of good value judgement, that is, they must first of all, find the things that they are "willing to die for" as it were. But finding one's voice is not the end of the story; the leader must now be in a position to interact with the followers so that he or she can begin to build others using the newly discovered values. For example, when Moses came down from the mountain, he communicated his values to his followers so that they too could feel and act the same way as he did. Values are useful only when the people accept them as such. Without being embraced by the people, they remain nothing but personal illusions of the author. For example, after 1994, Eugene Terreblanch tried to instigate his people to hold on to the values of the apartheid system but he soon discovered that the white people were no longer driven by the philosophy of race division and no matter how humble he tried to energise them, they simply were no longer willing to follow and as a result, his organisation, the Afrikaner

Weerstandsbeweging (AWB) began to dwindle into obscurity. This example confirms what McNally (in Hein and Jean-Nicholson, 1990:91) was saying that a state of *anomie* will lead to a situation where a person becomes afraid of the future, is divorced from reality and at odds with his or her own inner callings. In this case, followers are bound to reject a leader whose ideas are not in synch with their own values and this becomes a huge challenge for leaders on how to *ösellö* those values so that every member shares in them (embraces them as if they were their own).

The purpose of this section is to discuss how actions are aligned with values so that all members of the group should begin to take ownership of those values. In other words, this is where the leader begins to convince his or her followers that the values are equally good for their own development. This is where Moses is delivering to the people the values he discovered whilst communicating with God. This is the point where clear communication between the leader and the followers becomes paramount. Some leaders know how to appeal to their followers whilst others may have clearly defined values but are unable to put the message across in an appealing manner.

Kouzes and Posner (2002:56-83) have suggested a model to be followed by a leader who has a problem of self-expression. A point of interest here is that these authors are really making a heavy weather about the importance of self-expression. To them, a leader who has not found the secret of self-expression is like a *öpuppet* on a string *ö a phony who is trying to mimic someone else. They express this view by stating that *öwhatø true for writers is just as true for leaders. You cannot lead through someone elseø values, someone elseø words. You cannot lead out of someone elseø experience. You can only lead out of your own. Unless itø your style, your words, itø not you; itø an abstraction.ö This is where the preacher is *preaching and acting on the Word of God. The preacher cannot preach one thing and then go on to do things that are not in line with what was being preached. In that case, the followers will simply dump him or her as being a phony and a hypocrite. öPeople donø follow your technique. They follow you, your message and your embodiment of that messageö (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:57). In simple term, Kouzes and Posner are warning would-be leaders that they should *ödieö* for the words they speak. That is, their actions should at all times defend the things they speak about. This is where the famous phrase *omy word is my bondö* should play a central role (Goffee and Jones, 2006:15-17).***

To be able to develop the skills to express oneself, Kouzes and Posner (2002:58-62) have created a model which they call *öthe three stages of self-expression. This*

model has three elements: looking out, looking in, and moving on. The model is depicted below in figure 4.1.

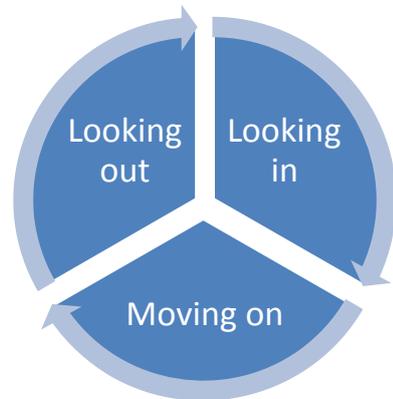


Figure 4.1: Three stages of self-expression model (Source: own)

The model is discussed below as follows:

4.3.2.1 Looking out

At first, a budding musician must begin his or career by performing songs that are composed by other musicians, and only when the skills are honed in will the musician begin to compose and sing his or her own songs. The same goes for leaders. Leadership does not just happen overnight. It is a long process that involves learning from other leaders. It is said that in a letter that Sir Isaac Newton wrote to his rival Robert Hooke in 1676, regarding the scientific postulations that he (Sir Isaac Newton) was propagating, and his reply was that in order to make intellectual progress he had arrived at those conclusions he was presenting as a result of the understanding he gained from major early thinkers who had gone before and this is what Sir Isaac Newton is quoted to have written:

“What Descartes did was a good step. You have added much several ways, and especially in taking the colours of thin plates into philosophical consideration. *If I have seen a little further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants*” (<http://ffolliet.wordpress.com/2009/01/26/standing-on-the-shoulders-of-giants-isaac-newton/>).

Newton was referring to such giants as Copernicus, Galileo and Kepler. Surely, if Newton did not consult the work of those scientists, he would not have been able to formulate and articulate the theories that he is famous for in the field of physical science.

Another important point to discuss here is the insistence in scientific research that the researcher needs to consult or make a review of the related literature so that he or she can gain a deeper insight of issues related to the research to be undertaken. Lipsey defines the term "review" as an act of *looking into or looking again* at the literature or the work provided by other researchers in the chosen field (Lipsey, 1989:66). The same is true for leadership. In order to be effective, the leader must undertake a journey of leadership discovery by identifying those leaders that would be instrumental in moulding and shaping the leader's behaviour. In doing so, the leader is trying to "learn from the best" and this is sometimes achieved by engaging in a *mentorship* relationship where the budding leader becomes a disciple of an influential leader within the institution or sometimes outside the institution.

Another strategy available to a budding leader is the adoption of a role-model and then models his or her behaviour according to the behaviour of the leader who has been chosen as a role-model. For example, when President Jacob Zuma was controversially cleared of all charges of "corruption and money laundering" by the National Prosecuting Authority, he was asked whether he would press charges against those who framed him. His reply was that he has chosen the path followed by President Nelson Mandela of not punishing those that wronged him but to pardon them. His argument was that anger does not heal but it destroys. Surely, by choosing to follow the philosophy of Nelson Mandela, Jacob Zuma was displaying a classical example of role-modelling which is a critical factor in leadership development. A leader is not an island and leadership does not happen in a vacuum. Like a young eagle, a leader must still learn "how to fly". In short, a good leader is someone who models his or her own leadership style based on the leadership philosophy of one or more admired leaders. This is the stage where the budding leader speaks through the voice of the admired. To use the analogy of a musician, this is the stage where the musician learns to perform a number of songs written by well-known musicians. But the story does not end here. The musician must move on to write and perform his own material if he or she wants to be recognised as one of the contributors to the field of music.

The same goes for a leader, at this point, the leader must begin to cultivate his or her own leadership voice so as to avoid a situation where he or she could be accused of mimicking others. This is the stage where the leader begins a journey of "looking in", that is, turning into the inside and searching through the deep valley of the inner self so as to discover that true original leadership voice. This is exactly what Kouzes and Posner (2002:82) mean when they say that "unfortunately for many in leadership development stall in the artist's first period. It's still mostly about painting exterior landscapes, copying other people, trying to mimic the great

leaders. It's often based on the erroneous assumption that authentic leadership can come from the outside in. It cannot. It comes from the inside out. You have to be the author of your own story, not the reader of someone else's. This argument is now presented in full in the following section.

4.3.2.2 Looking in

The purpose of this section is to explain why and how leaders need to undertake the journey of self-discovery so that they can begin the process of cultivating their own leadership philosophy.

The maize producing commercial farmers in South Africa have established a planting philosophy that states that success or failure as a maize farmer depends on the *timing strategy* of the farmer. A farmer who plants early after the first summer rains may be successful only if it continues to rain but may be ruined if rain delays until later in the season. On the other hand, a farmer who waits a little longer may avoid the draught and may benefit if it subsequently rains towards the end of the season. But if the rains decide to fall mostly in the first part of the season and then stops somewhere towards the end, the late planting farmer may face serious crop failure.

One may ask, of what value is this story to leadership? Just like the maize farmer, the aspiring leader needs to get his or her *timing* right so that he or she is in a position to realise when he or she is beginning to sound like their superiors. For example, a leader who keeps reminding his followers what the head of department or the minister said at a staff party may soon sound like a broken record. People know what the head of department said. People know what the policy and strategies of the department say. What they are looking for is how one as a leader is going to help them achieve those goals. In other words, "what value is the leader bringing towards the implementation of those goals?" (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:80). These sentiments are also echoed by Goffee and Jones (2006:9-10) where they state that the present form of organisation leads to the destruction of leadership. These writers make controversial statements by contending that "First, organisations desire leaders but structure themselves in ways that kill leadership. Far too many of our organisations in business, in the public sector, and in the not-for-profit sector are *machines for the destruction of leadership*. They encourage either conformists or role players with an impoverished sense of who they are and what they stand for. Neither makes for effective leaders. And of course, this gives rise to legions of disenchanted followers, producing the deepest organisational malaise of modern times: cynicism."

When a leader is said to be looking in, he or she is at a stage where they begin to search their inner territory so as to discover the true nature of their leadership philosophy which will clearly distinguish them from others. This is where the journey of *self-discovery* begins so that the leader is able to identify those features of his or her leadership that are regarded as *strengths* and *weaknesses*. One cannot be authentic if one does not know what they are good at. Likewise, not knowing one's weaknesses may spell disaster as one usually discovers later that weaknesses are deadly poisonous spikes ready to inject venomous poison to one's success as a leader. For example, local government is constantly being accused of non-delivery of services to the communities and one of the major problems that have recently been discovered is that local government have failed to undertake a serious stakeholder engagement drives where communities can be informed about the challenges being experienced in the provision of the promised services. In the absence of correct information, people come up with their own logical explanations which unfortunately, in some local municipalities, have resulted in violent protests.

Surely, the people to be blamed here are those who are occupying positions of leadership in local government who have failed to anticipate the building-up of anger and frustrations among some sectors of the communities. What people see are the fancy cars and huge houses these public officials have accumulated for themselves which have given speculations that funds earmarked for community development have been diverted to serve the interests of the local government elite. This goes back to the controversial statement discussed above made by the former President Thabo Mbeki about the *careerism phenomenon* bedevilling local government, where it is claimed that some local councillors are mainly interested in their own self-enrichment and not to serve their communities as required by the Constitution of South Africa, 1996.

In short, self-discovery is a process whereby the aspiring leader seeks to reconcile what has been learnt over the years by following in the footsteps of others with the inner value system so that at the end of the process, the aspiring leader is able to proclaim his or her space by espousing *leadership originality* thereby avoiding the unfortunate state of affairs that Goffee and Jones lament about where leaders are accused of 'faking' their leadership philosophies. It is actually disheartening to observe how some high ranking officials in public institutions begin to act like 'hushpuppies' when their superior is in attendance. It's like they want to outclass each other in the art of 'sucking up' so that they find favour in the heart of the superior. Unless leaders in all spheres of management within public institutions begin to display some kind of independent thinking, the problem of *cynicism* as

lamented by Goffee and Jones will persist. The best example one can offer between *leadership mimicking* and *leadership authenticity* is the one provided by Malcolm-X (www.mefedia.com/watch/27590642) where he was making a difference between two slaves. He said that there are two types of slaves: there is a *house slave* and a *field slave*. When the master is sick, the house slave would ask in a humble manner: master, are we sick? On the other hand, the field slave could not care less whether the master is sick or not. In fact, when the master was sick, he would find it funny and he would chuckle with his mates that *pharaoh is sick*. This radical example can be used in leadership to indicate that some leaders are like house slaves. They are keen to please the *master* at all cost. Even if the chosen strategy may be detrimental to the institution, they will continue to support it to the core. On the other hand, Kouzes and Posner are suggesting that authentic leaders are those who behave like field slaves; they have their own mind and they are not shy to speak it up if they feel that the chosen strategy may be detrimental to the institution. Of course, this does not mean that one has to be an *arsonist* in order to make a point. What it means is that as a leader, one needs to be principled and speak with conviction of the things that are so dear to one's heart. And this is also affirmed by the Mafia Philosophy (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Godfather_) which proclaims that *Keep your friends and relatives closer but keep your enemies closest*. The moral of this philosophy is that one needs to be closest to one's enemy so that one may know what they are *up-to*. In other words, a good leader is the one who listens to the discerning voice no matter how small that voice is. There are reasons why people raise issues within institutions and the culture of branding everyone who raises a concern as an *anti-revolutionary* has led Zimbabwe to its current pathetic state of affairs and there is no doubt that if those who began to question the *status quo* then were listened to, things might have worked out better.

4.3.2.3 Moving on

Looking out is the stage when the aspiring leader begins his or her leadership journey by modelling his or her leadership philosophy on the teachings of others. *Looking in* is the stage when the leader undertakes a journey of self-discovery. In this phase, the leader is beginning to discover who truly he or she is and this is informed by the values which have been learnt during the looking out phase. In other words, this is the time of internalisation of learnt or acquired values. At this stage, the leader is like a butterfly that is undergoing the four stages of metamorphosis where it begins by being an egg and moves on to become a larva, changing again into a pupa and finally it emerges as a butterfly. What is important to note is that the processes of metamorphosis are sequential. That is, the butterfly

must start at the beginning, being an egg and move on through the other stages until it emerges as a fully fledged butterfly. The same goes for leadership development as postulated by the Kouzes/Posner Three Stages of self-expression Model depicted by figure 4.1 above. When the leader is *looking out*, he or she is basically at the larva stage of development. This is the stage where the leader is *feeding on fresh and lush leaves* provided by other admired leaders (standing on the shoulders of giants). *Looking in* is the stage when the larva begins to harden and transforms itself into pupa and it lives solely on the internal food source that was consumed earlier in the larva stage. The same goes for leadership development. At the *looking in* stage, the leader is like a pupa, he or she is experiencing a sense of self-discovery and what emerges from that process is the butterfly called *authentic leader*.

The purpose of this section is to discuss the leader as a fully fledged butterfly where the journey of mimicry and self-discovery has come in full circle. This is the stage where the butterfly begins to show its true colours. This is the stage when it begins to flex its wings and it begins to take off to explore areas of immense beauty, filled with tantalising green plants full of colourful flowers with nectar on which it begins to feed; such is the story of the majestic butterfly called authentic leader. This is the journey that Kouzes and Posner (2002:81) state as being “a point where you are able to merge the lessons from your outer and inner journeys, you *move on* to becoming an authentic leader, in whatever field you’ve chosen for yourself. You’re able to recognize your own voice from the multitude of other voices ringing in your ears, and you find ways to express yourself in a singular style. You become the author of your own experience.” This is the point where the leader is able to mobilise his or her followers to share common values. This is the stage where Moses has descended the mountain carrying on his hands, a set of values that would enable the children of God to reach the “promised land”. Likewise, in the field of leadership, this is the stage where the leader sets the example by aligning actions with shared values. This is the stage where the leader becomes an independent thinker who displays a great deal of matured self-expression-A point where a Mandela becomes Mandela-where a Gandhi becomes Gandhi, where a Hitler becomes Hitler, capable of enlisting others through the journey of a thousand hills, down to the valley of lush institutional performance that culminates in excellent service delivery thereby contributing to “*better life for all*” as espoused by the African National Congress’s Election Manifesto of 2009.

At this stage, Kouzes and Posner (2002:22) would be eager to declare that the leader is ready to: envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities, enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations,

search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow and improve, experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes, foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust, strengthen others by sharing power and discretion, recognise contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and last but not least, celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

4.4 LEADERS INSPIRE A SHARED VISION

After the leader has gained dexterity in *modelling the way*, the next step in the process of becoming a better leader is to *inspire a shared vision* which will act as a unifying force towards which followers would try and direct their efforts. In other words, the vision will act as a beacon that would provide direction towards which all activities within the institution should be focused. The purpose of this section is to provide a discussion on the role played by the leader in providing not only the vision for the group, but also to ensure that the vision is shared by each and every member so that the end-result is the voluntary adoption of the vision by all members of the group (Yukl, 2006:295).

The creation of a vision is probably one of the most critical functions that are associated with leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:112). The ability to create the right vision for the institution is what separate successful leaders from losers. "All enterprises or projects, big or small, begin in the mind's eye; they begin with imagination and with the belief that what's merely an image can one day be made real (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:111)." This implies that a group that is led by a leader who has no visionary ability can be likened to a ship that is sailing in the deep sea without a compass. The crew may not be in a position to ascertain whether they are sailing east, north, west or south. In other words, a group with a visionless leader may find itself running around in circles, not knowing which way they should focus their energy (Milner and Joyce, 2005:10).

A vision can be defined as *tomorrow's solutions to today's problems* (Yukl, 2006:295). Yukl goes on to make an assertion that "Before people will support radical change, they need to have a vision of a better future that is attractive enough to justify the sacrifices and hardships the change will require". In other words, the perceived benefits that will flow from the new status quo should be greater than the sacrifices to be made, otherwise, the vision may run the risk of not being inspiring to followers. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary...1995, s.v. "vision") defines it as "the ability to think about or plan the future with great imagination or wisdom." In other words,

in order to be able to solve current problems, the leader needs to come up with a well-thought plan that may be implemented in the future. This is probably true if one considers the fact that if mankind had all the solutions for current problems, people would simply apply those solutions and there would be no problems at all. To illustrate the point, one can make an example about the disease known as AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) which has been ravaging people across the globe for a number of years now. At present, there is no vaccine that can be used to treat this disease entirely and this means that at present, AIDS can only be controlled but not eliminated. Drugs that are needed for the purpose of eradicating AIDS, can only be produced in the future and this demands visionary leadership in the field of medicine; this demands that medical science should look beyond current drugs so that new generation of drugs could be manufactured that would deal effectively with the disease. In short, for the purpose of leadership, being visionary implies that the leader should have the ability to undertake a journey into the future for the purpose of identifying solutions that will move the institution away from its *current challenges* (Cameron *et al.* 2006:36). This is done through envisioning the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities and in IsiZulu, this is expressed as *ōiso liwela umfula ugcwele*” (the eye is able to see across a flooded river).

4.4.1 Leaders envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities

Just like the section above that dealt with the leader’s ability to discover those values which are so critical to one’s leadership journey, being able to envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities is also central to the shaping of one’s leadership skills. A vision is generated by the inner spirit of an individual and it is the link between the inner soul with the physical world. It is through envisioning that human beings are able to act the way they do. The vision provides a mental picture of what is to come and then through action, one is able to accomplish it. For example, most universities believe that theory should precede practice and this belief is born out of the fact that deep thinking must come first so that what-ever action is taken, would be based on a particular theory which is nothing but an act of envisioning. The aim of this section is to provide a discussion on the importance of having a vision as well as to define the characteristics of a vision. This will be followed by a discussion of the Gary Yukl model of vision development.

4.4.1.1 Importance of having a vision

A vision is not just a mere dream; it is a deep desire that is intrinsically generated that seeks to move an institution away from its present state of affairs to the one that promises a better tomorrow (Nanus, 1992:8-10). It is the vision that provides the compass towards which the energy generated by the institution should be directed. It is an agenda-setting mechanism without which it would be very difficult if not impossible to harness institutional energy effectively. Public institutions' leaders who have weak visions tend to resort to rules and regulations as tools for directing and controlling efforts of employees and this has led to the so-called bureaucratic phenomenon which has given public sector institutions bad image to the public (Wall, Solum and Sobol, 1992:24-25).

Leadership requires a vision that constructs clearly how things should look like in the future, a complete understanding of the big picture of where the leader wants to drive the group towards. In other words, the vision should provide impetus of a future that is better than the one prevailing today, otherwise, as was mentioned above, if the things promised tomorrow are equal to the things derived today, then that would mean that the vision is nothing but an extension of today's state of affairs and it would be taken as *business-as-usual*. A clear vision provides direction and establishes a sense of purpose for the group. It acts like bonding glue so that all members of the group would be bonded together around it (Ward, Bowman and Kakabadse, 2007:28-29). In conclusion, the leadership vision must go beyond the written rhetoric on the vision statement, it must permeate the entire workplace and it should manifest itself in the *actions, beliefs, values* and *objectives* of the group or institution (Leary-Joyce, 2007:238).

4.4.1.2 Characteristics of a good vision

It was J.H. Goddard (Nanus, 1992:134) who proclaimed that "*every vision is a joke until someone implements it*". The question is; what makes a vision a good vision? The answer to this question is contained in the following elements or characteristics of a good vision as espoused by Yukl (2006:295):

- It should be simple and idealistic

The vision should paint a simple picture of the desirable future and should not be clouded with complicated planning that includes quantitative goals with detail steps. For example, J.H. Goddard (Nanus, 1992:134) had a vision that someday, a man would be able to walk on the moon. And in pursuit of his vision of landing a

man on the moon, he changed the science of rocketry by building rockets that used liquid fuel such as oxygen which was a revolutionary move away from the use of solid fuel.

- It should appeal to the values, hopes and ideals of the group and other stakeholders whose support is needed

A vision that is not supported by the majority of the members of a group would soon run the risk of being resisted. Resistance to change is a serious condition that may render the implementation of a good vision difficult if not impossible. For example, in trying to improve the transport system for South Africa, the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) Project known as *ōRea Vayaō* (we are going) was established but towards the completion of the Project, the taxi industry provided formidable resistance to the point of scuttling the entire Project. The question one would ask is, why did the taxi industry see this Project as a threat to their existence later on? Is it a case of lack of consultation on the part of government or is it a case of the taxi industry not wanting to buy into the new vision in terms of public transportation for South Africa? Surely, this case provides a clear example in terms of the characteristic of a vision that it has to be *sold to all stakeholders* who may have the potential of scuttling it if not taken on board.

- It must emphasize futuristic ideological objectives rather than short-term tangible benefits

This characteristic re-enforces the argument provided in this section that says that a vision is a tomorrow's solution to today's problems and by definition, it cannot be a short-term endeavour. It seeks to transform the present status quo to a completely new regime and that cannot happen in the short-term. Usually, short-term solutions are concerned with keeping the current status quo going in its current form. But if a long-term solution is desired, this would invariably take a long time to accomplish. For example, no one expects the ultimate AIDS vaccine to be produced in the foreseeable future but one is hoping that somewhere in the distant future, mankind will find an answer to the treatment of AIDS but in the meantime, there are drugs such as the ARVs (Anti-Retro-Viral) that are being applied just to manage the epidemic until such time that the right one is found (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antiretroviral_drugsource).

- It should be challenging but realistic

A challenging vision may be a good stimulant for the group who must feel that the accomplishment of such a vision will bring glory to the group. Human-beings by nature are curious and adventurous animals who find thrill by accomplishing challenging assignments. For example, a number of mountain climbers die trying to climb mountains such as Mt. Everest and Mt. Kilimanjaro but still, more and more people want to climb those mountains, why? The answer lies in the fact that human-beings are stimulated by challenging assignments so that they can satisfy their curiosity. But what is important to note here is that the vision must be reachable otherwise, it would be a fruitless exercise to try and accomplish a vision that has no chance of being realised. Unrealisable visions are nothing but *wishful thinking* and would most probably not be supported by the group (Daft and Marcic, 2009:307-308).

- It should address basic assumptions about what is important for the institution

Obviously, a leader within an institutional set-up is expected to formulate a vision that leads to the accomplishment of objectives that are central to the very existence of the institution. It is through the setting of an appropriate vision that the institution would be in a position to fulfil its purpose. It is apparent that an institution that is working on the wrong vision would soon discover that it would not be able to fulfil its purpose and would soon dwindle into the abyss of institutional paralysis. What is also important to note here is that most institutional visions carry financial implications because in trying to fulfil the vision, the institution would need huge financial resources and if the wrong vision is being followed, money would be spent fruitlessly and this would not add value to society (Daft and Marcic, 2009:496).

- It should be focused enough to guide decisions and actions but general enough to allow initiative and creativity in the strategies for attaining it

The role of the vision should be to provide direction so that the mobilisation of resources within the institution can be channelled towards the realisation of it (Yukl, 2006:298). However, it must not be too rigid (cast in stones) because if it is, it may stifle initiative and creativity which may lead to institutional paralysis. For example, many public institutions in South Africa find it difficult to spend their allocated budgets because of the phenomenon of rigidity within the system and as a result, *roll-overs* and *under-spending* where millions of rands are sent back to

Treasury, are common among these institutions. This is partly caused by the fact that public institutions are normally given strictly rigid mandates and deviation is normally treated with hostility by law-makers (parliamentarians) (Ralane's message to provinces: cure chronic underspending, or face the music. 2006. The Star, 16 October:14).

- It should be simple enough to be communicated clearly in few minutes

For any vision to succeed, it must be embraced by all members of the group or institution and this requires that it must be crafted in such a way that it should be easy for members to understand. For example, using the Biblical Story of Moses (see section 4.3.1) who went to the mountain to receive divine guidance and upon his return, he had two stone tablets in his hands and on them, Ten simple Commandments were written which were read to all members of the Exodus with clear understanding of what was meant (Holy Bible, Exodus 20:3-17). Surely, had Moses brought dozens of stone tablets with many rules, he would have confused his followers who were almost at the point of revolt but with his simple guidelines, he managed to convince them that they had chosen the right path by following him. In other words, a simple vision indicates deeper intrinsic connection within the leader so that the end result is the painting of a simple picture about the future that every member of the group is able to identify with and share in (Nanus, 1992:58).

4.4.1.3 How to create a good vision using the Gary Yukl Model

Yukl (2006:298) has identified certain useful factors that should be taken into consideration during the process of identification and refinement of a vision. These factors are discussed below as follows:

- The involvement of key stakeholders

It does not matter how appropriate the vision is for the institution, what matters is that it is accepted and promoted by all key stakeholders. Consultation is a process whereby the promoter of the vision genuinely engages key stakeholders right from the start so that the end result carries the will of all key stakeholders. Consultation is not the same thing as information dissemination which is a process whereby key stakeholders are being made aware of something. It is a serious attempt at engaging with key stakeholders with the intention of incorporating their views so that the end result contains the views and aspirations of those that have direct interest in it (Yukl, 2006:298). Stakeholder involvement is a good barometer of how democratic a leader is. Democratic leaders would not push their hidden

agendas to their stakeholders under the guise of consultation, instead, they would genuinely make sure that the people who are directly involved or who will be affected by the vision are earnestly consulted so that at the point of implementation, there would be support for the proposed initiative. Failure to genuinely consult key stakeholders is one of the factors that have led to violent protests at local government sphere. Some municipality have been accused of making empty promises without paying special attention to the financial constraints they face. To make the situation even worse, they have failed to consult their key stakeholders so that both parties are on the same page in regard to the things promised. In the absence of genuine consultation, people come up with their own assumptions or perceptions which may or may not be correct. This point is further emphasised by Kouzes and Posner (2002:112) where they state that “And you can’t impose a self-motivating vision on others. It has to be something that has meaning to your constituents, not just to you. Leaders must foster conditions under which everyone will do things because they want to, not because they have to. This means that the leader cannot afford to “*fly solo*” for the simple reason that the implementation of a vision usually involves a number of other key stakeholders. For instance, a company that wants to mine certain minerals needs to talk to all parties affected so that the project could be accepted. Failure to do so may render the project un-implementable as these stakeholders would put a formidable resistance (Rees, 1991:28).

- Identification of strategic objectives with wide appeal

Strategic objectives emanate from the mission of the institution and they are well known by key stakeholders and according to Yukl (2006:299), it is easier to get consensus on strategic objectives than on a vision. Yukl (2006:299) also suggest that “the first step is to ask people to identify specific performance objectives that are challenging and relevant to the mission of the organisation. Then ask people to discuss the relative importance of the various objectives and the reasons why an objective is important”. From the identification of objectives, the group should be able to identify some shared values and ideals that can provide the foundation for a vision that includes the will and support of all key stakeholders (Miller, 1996:17-8).

- Identification of relevant elements in the old ideology

A new vision does not necessarily mean that the institution must abandon everything that it is currently busy with (Yukl, 2006:299). Identification of relevant elements of the old vision may provide a smooth transition to the new one (Yukl

(2006:299). For example, a struggling rugby team that has a dream of winning the domestic competition in the future may begin by selling a number of players so that new quality ones can be bought that will eventually enable the club to realise its life-long ambition of being crowned champions of the domestic league. What is important in this example is that not all players would be put on transfer, some *core* players would be retained and this is done for the purpose of *maintaining stability* in the team. The saying that 'one should not throw the baby with the dirty water' is valid here in the sense that whilst trying to move away from current challenges, the institution must utilise some of the existing elements of the current vision (Yukl, 2006:299).

- Linking the vision to core competencies

One of the reasons why people resist a new vision is the fact that they do not feel confident enough in their ability to perform successfully so that the vision can be realised (Nanus, 1992:158-9). For instance, there is no point in trying to persuade a musical band that is rooted in rock music to suddenly change to jazz music or classical music. Members of the band may feel inadequate and eventually they might refuse to play the new type of music as requested. *Core competencies* refer to the dexterity with which the group is able to handle the new vision (Schermerhorn *et al.* 1988:22). This suggests that in case the group lacks dexterity, the vision should not be pursued until such time that some members of the group gain confidence in their ability to perform. Yukl (2006:300) makes a very interesting point when he gives an example that when President Kennedy made the announcement that America should land a man on the moon before the end of the decade, although America was a little bit behind in terms of space technology as compared to the Russians at the time, the vision was realised because America did have scientists and engineers that were competent enough (core competency) to carry out the project.

- Continual assessment and refinement of the vision

The process of envisioning is not a once-off event. A lot is usually discovered during the time of implementation and other opportunities which were not visible at the time can suddenly be discovered (Nanus, 1992:158). Whilst still in the process of implementing the vision, continuous monitoring and evaluation is critical so that lessons that may reveal whether the vision is implementable or not can be learnt (Yukl, 2006:298). That is why most institutions undertake strategic reviews from time to time so as to be able to ascertain the state of affairs in terms of the processes leading to the realisation of the vision. Another important point to

make here is that by undertaking strategic reviews, key stakeholders are being kept in the loop so that they should be able to judge for themselves whether their efforts are indeed contributing towards attainment of the stated vision or not (Schwartz, 1980:131). Just like it was mentioned above that key stakeholders should be involved in the development of the vision, it is equally fair to involve them by way of feedbacks regarding the status quo during the actual implementation stage as well. The Gary Yukl Model is graphically depicted below.

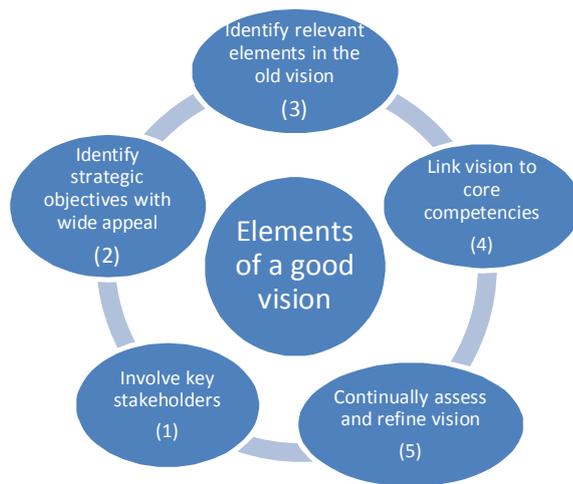


Figure 4.2: Elements of a good vision (Adapted from Yukl, 2006:298; Table 10-2)

4.4.2 Leaders enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations

The section above dealt with the creation of a good vision but the reader may have difficulty in agreeing with the use of the phrase ‘good vision’. In fact one may ask: what makes a vision a good one? The statement that was made by J.H. Goddard as mentioned in section 4.4.1.2 above that “*every vision is a joke until someone implements it*” may provide a clue as to what a ‘good vision’ is. When J.H. Goddard made this statement, he most probably was trying to indicate that unless a vision is implemented, it is nothing but the author’s dream and it will remain as such until it is put into practice. This is the crossroad where theory meets empirical evidence; where questions that led to the creation of the vision are being addressed.

Most probably, the difficult part of any leader is to sell the vision to the people who have to implement it. As the Gary Yukl Model has pointed out, if those people Gary Yukl calls *key stakeholders* are not buying into the new vision, the consequent situation is that it might not be implemented as they will offer strong *resistance* against it. The aim of this section is to discuss those strategies that the

leader needs to employ in trying to sell the new vision to his or her followers so that they can support it enthusiastically. The section starts by explaining the importance of having a shared vision and it proceeds by providing a discussion on how the leader could then appeal to shared aspirations so that the group could see the vision as an answer not only to institutional imperatives but also as a means to fulfil their own aspirations as well.

4.4.2.1 Importance of having a shared vision

In section 4.4.1.1 of this chapter, the writer argued that the role of a vision in a group or in an institutional setting is to *provide the agenda* for existence of that group or that institution. In other words, the group exists for the purpose of fulfilling the vision that led to their creation. This argument seems to imply that every member of a group should be *au fait* (well versed) with the vision of the group, otherwise, it might be difficult to that member to fulfil his or her role effectively when he or she has no clue what the group is trying to achieve.

Another important point to note here is that the discussion on the subject of envisioning is sometimes presented as if at the end of the process, there will be a *win-win* situation for everyone who is a member of the group or institution. The reality is that when there are changes in the system, some members will win and some will lose and more often than not, it is the losing members that would begin to defend their status quo by offering stiff resistance to the proposed vision (Schermerhorn *et al.* 1988:520). Resistance to change is the dark side of envisioning and if it is not handled during the preparatory stage of the vision, it has the potential danger of scuttling the entire effort and sometimes with violence which may lead to the loss of lives. For example, when the Bus Rapid Transit Project (BRT) was at the point of being launched, the taxi industry provided a formidable resistance under the notion that it would seriously affect taxi operators with the consequential dismissal of a large number of taxi drivers. Few days after the first pilot was launched in Gauteng, few buses were attacked (shot at) and as a result, some passengers were hurt. Another relevant example is the debacle surrounding the re-calling of former President Thabo Mbeki by the African National Congress (ANC) in September 2008. After the ANC Polokwane Conference of late 2007 where the new ANC Leadership was elected, a new vision began to emerge and former President Mbeki was seen as a stumbling block towards its implementation and the chosen alternative was to re-call him before his term expired so that the proponents of the new ANC Vision could begin to mobilise communities towards the 2009 General Elections around the new vision. In the end, that proved to be a wise move as the ANC won that election with high

voter margin although they failed narrowly to obtain a two-third majority (I didn't lose plot ahead of Polokwane's former president Thabo Mbeki has few regrets concerning his legacy, he tells Makhudu Sefara. 2009. The Sunday Independent, 1 November:13).

The preceding examples have highlighted the importance of having a shared vision so that potential conflicts could be minimised when the time for implementation comes. The Gary Yukl Model (2006:298) is also confirming this point where he suggests that the first thing to do before even embarking on establishing the vision is to *consult key stakeholders* so that their views can be incorporated into the vision. In fact, the culture of consultation is at the centre of democratic leadership as it was pointed out in chapter 2 where the University of Iowa leadership styles model was discussed (see figure 2.3) Democratic leadership implies that the leader needs to consult his or her group during the plenary stage so that they will eventually “*own-up*” or embrace the new ideology as if it originated from them. This implies that the leader needs to undertake a promotional exercise with the view of “*marketing*” or “*selling*” the new vision to those who will eventually have to implement it (Nanus, 1992:58). The question that the reader may ask is: how does one go about promoting or selling a new vision to the group? This question is a subject of discussion in the following section.

4.4.2.2 Strategies to promote (democratise) a new vision

The most challenging part of the envisioning process is where the leader tries to mobilise followers to embrace the new vision (Schwartz, 1980:130). For example, people who are following the Christian Faith would be familiar with the events that took place before the crucifixion of Jesus. The question to be asked here is: why did so many people who followed Jesus as he approached the gates of Jerusalem jubilantly singing “*Hosanna*” suddenly turned against Him to the point of recommending that he be condemned to death by crucifixion, what went wrong? The probable cause of this rather unfortunate event is that most Jews who saw Jesus performing miracles thought he was the “*real*” Messiah who would be able to stand up to the Roman Oppressors and when the word got around that He was approaching Jerusalem, most people were convinced that He would use his miracles against Pilot and set the Jewish People free. When it became apparent that Jesus was not going to strike Pilot with the “*divine lightning*”, most of the people who followed him felt betrayed and as a result, they quickly turned against Him and demanded that he be crucified like a common criminal (www.gospel-mysteries.net/crucifixion-jesus.html; www.jesus.org/death-and-resurrection/holy-week-and-passion/why-did-the-crowd-turn-against-jesus-so-quickly.html). Surely,

the vision espoused by Jesus differed from the one that was expected by the common Jews. The Jews were interested in *freedom* from Roman oppression whereas Jesus was interested in the *spiritual development* of the people (www.gospel-mysteries.net/crucifixion-jesus.html). Surely, these were two different visions that led to the crucifixion of the Messiah (www.christendom-awake.org/jesusresurrectionatnaz.html).

This story is a vivid illustration of what could happen where the leader fails to promote his or her vision properly. The major lesson here is that the leader's vision must integrate with the follower's expectations and aspirations so that both parties are on the same wavelength.

According to the American Management Association's (AMA) *core competencies of effective executive leaders* as listed in Thomas (2006:151-152), there are four competencies that leaders must develop: strategic competency, performance management competency, inspirational competency and character competency. Thomas goes on to list elements of each competency and the one that is most appropriate for this study is the inspirational competency whose elements (only five relevant elements are discussed) are listed and discussed below as follows:

- The leader must communicate an inspiring vision that grabs attention

Inspirational leadership is the process where the leader provides a condition that energises followers to go beyond what is expected (Day, Zaccaro and Halpin, 2004:75). An inspiring vision is the one that convinces followers that by paying allegiance to it, things will be better than what they are at the moment. At this point, the leader is like an artist who is in the process of producing a masterpiece of a painting. The painting will represent the vision of the artist but once painted, the picture will be able to project the meaning with such verve and alacrity that admirers would immediately draw the same meaning from it. There is an old Chinese proverb (author unknown) that says "a picture represents a story that can be described in a thousand words." In other words, by looking at a picture, one should be able to describe it in no less than thousand words. What is of particular importance here is the clarity of the message that is represented by the picture and not the picture *per se*. This point is vividly illustrated by Kouzes and Posner (2002:155) where they advocate that "clearly, shared vision is key and to enlist others, leaders need to bring that vision to life. Leaders animate the vision and manifest the purpose so that others can see it, hear it, taste it, touch it, feel it. In making the intangible vision tangible, leaders ignite constituents' flames of passion. By using powerful language, positive communication style, and nonverbal

expressiveness, leaders breathe life (the literal definition of the word, *inspire*) into a vision. What Kouzes and Posner are trying to advocate here is the point that the leader, must project a high level of passion to the vision so that followers can not only be convinced of its appropriateness, but also should be highly driven towards its implementation. Sometimes a vision can be highly inspiring but that does not mean that followers would automatically want to implement it. A vision is said to be highly inspirational when the people that are supposed to implement it are *willing and able* to do so. For example, suicide bombers are driven by a vision of the highest order hence they are prepared to pay the ultimate price, death by detonating bombs.

The last statement about suicide bombers offers another interesting dimension about the process of envisioning. It implies that a vision becomes appropriate only if followers or key stakeholders embrace it. In some instances, general public may be dismayed at the callous nature of suicide bombing but to the followers of the cause (vision), suicide bombing is a necessary condition that should be carried out so that the objectives associated with the vision can be realised. Another interesting example is the one concerning Adolf Hitler. History is usually projecting Hitler as the biggest monster that ever lived who exterminated six million Jewish people but the point is that Hitler did not fire even one bullet, instead, his supporters are the ones who did the slaughtering because they were convinced that Hitler's vision was the correct one to follow. If Hitler did not have followers who were keen to implement the Nazi Ideology, the Second World-war might have been avoided. The same goes for Zimbabwe, the focus is on President Robert Mugabe but who are the people who are implementing Mugabe's vision? Surely, those are the people who are guilty of genocide in Zimbabwe and not Robert Mugabe alone.

Although it is true that to kill a snake, one needs to strike it on the head, but when it comes to the process of envisioning, it is also true that the body of the snake can also become equally important because it is the body (followers) that can inflict more venom and not the head.

- The leader should promote open, wideband, interactive communication

Communication is the most important resource that should aid the leader to propagate the vision (von Weltzien Hoivik, 2002:27). It is generally acknowledged that Adolf Hitler was a master craftsman of the spoken language (Lynch guru causes furore in Germany. 2007. Cape Times, 7 December:3). He had the ability to stress issues in such a way that one would find oneself accepting whatever Hitler was propagating without putting logic into it (Glassman and Swatos, 1986:147-9).

This kind of communication was later copied by the far-right politicians in South Africa during the apartheid era where leaders tried to woo their followers by using false arguments that were delivered in such a way that they became acceptable as facts to their followers (Glassman and Swatos, 1986:17).

Open, widespread and interactive communication means that the leader seeks not only to appeal to followers by presenting a compelling vision but it also means that the leader is open to suggestions where followers' views are genuinely incorporated into the vision (MacManus, 2006:109). In this instance, viewers are not passive recipients but they are made equal partners in the shaping of the vision. In South Africa, there is this fallacious practice where institutions claim time and again that they are engaging in consultation where in fact the so-called consultation is nothing more than a smoke-screen made to fool people into believing that their views are always taken into account (Ivancevic and Matteson, 1990:526). A striking example happened when the Scorpions were being disbanded. A process was undertaken under the pretext that people are being consulted as required by the act (DA calls for halt in moves to disband Scorpions. 2008. Cape Times, 25 March: 5). However, whatever contrary views that were raised along the way, they were either ignored or simply regarded as being reactionary and it was ultimately decided to disband the Unit and integrate it within the South African Police Service (SAPS). Genuine consultation requires that the views of the key stakeholders, more in particular the views of the affected minority, should be incorporated into the vision so that there should not be any serious resistance at the point of implementation. The mining industry is another culprit when it comes to *bogus* consultation. A mining project would claim that an inclusive environmental impact assessment (EIA) study was conducted only to find that key stakeholders with dissenting voice were left out or deliberately ignored (a number of disputed mining projects were identified and reported by SABC2 50/50 Programme) (Mining legislation is flawed, says experts; proper environmental assessments 'impossible', officials acknowledge act's shortcomings. 2009. Cape Argus, 27 May:11).

- The leader needs to understand others, their values, aspirations, needs and desires, and pitch messages accordingly

This element sums up nicely all the arguments that have been presented above. In chapter 3, (see section 3.3.2.3) the issue of follower motivation was discussed where it was argued that followers are normally motivated by *intrinsic* as well as *extrinsic* values. It follows therefore, that followers would be keen to support a vision that elevates the probability of their satisfying both intrinsic and extrinsic values. A point which is mostly ignored during the envisioning process in most

institutions is the fact that the leader seems to concentrate on the outcomes that will satisfy the requirements of the institution and totally ignoring that followers must also feel that there will be benefits for them as well (win-win situation) (Schermerhorn *et al.* 1988:433). “What’s in it for us?” is the most fundamental question to satisfy under this element. If followers feel that their needs are not catered in the vision, why should they embrace it? As a marketing strategy, the leader needs to identify the values, aspirations and needs of the group so that when selling the vision, the point of departure should be around the benefits that would accrue to the followers first so that they could be motivated to automatically embrace the vision as an instrument to be used towards the realisation of their own dreams (source). By appealing to the aspirations of the group, the leader is trying to minimise resistance to the vision. This is what may be called “*an ethical bribe*” because the leader knows that the ultimate beneficiary of the new vision is the institution, but the message is presented as if it is the followers that would be better off. For example, it happened many times that players of the national soccer team, known as *Bafana Bafana*, found themselves at loggerheads with the South African Football Association (SAFA) in terms of the pay that the group should earn during the different stages of international tournaments. The recent example was during the FIFA’s Confederation Cup that was held in South Africa in mid 2009 where players demanded certain financial incentives to be awarded during various stages of the Tournament. Surely, this example illustrates clearly the issue of “what’s in it for us?” and all that the players were trying to say was, “in order for us to carry out the vision of winning the Tournament for South Africa, we demand that our needs and aspirations be met first.” According to this element, this was a genuine request which unfortunately ended up portraying the players as a “*greedy bunch*” who wanted to milk the country for their own self-aggrandisement.

In short, a vision is enthusiastically carried by those followers who believe that by embracing it, their own needs would be satisfied in the process. Whether these needs are intrinsically or extrinsically, it does no matter, what matters is that they should be put at the centre of the vision so that followers should feel that they are going to benefit significantly during or after the vision has been implemented.

- The leader should be able to express self-confidence and assertiveness but not aggression

In chapter 1, (see section 1.3) it was argued that one of the challenges of the affirmative action policy is the fact that sometimes people are placed in positions of great authority without having been properly groomed for such positions and as a result, these leaders find themselves having to rely on their hostile subordinates

who may not be able to provide genuine support to the leader. One of the most important requirements of a leader is that he or she should always be the source of envisioning and it becomes debatable whether one can be able to express self-confidence where one is battling to comprehend the appropriate strategic issues that need to be incorporated into the vision. A leader can only be assertive when they feel confident enough about what they are supposed to deliver. This calls for high dexterity in engaging in appropriate strategic issues of the institution. The term 'appropriate' is used deliberately to denote that the leader needs to be on top of the envision process if he or she expects to acquire self-confidence and assertiveness. Aggression is a measure of leader weakness. Weak leaders are extremely aggressive people so that by being aggressive, they believe that their weaknesses would not be challenged (Munro, 2008:26). Adherence to rules and regulations becomes the order of the day so that those who are seen as nonconformists are brutally dealt with. For example, the army does not tolerate soldiers who do not obey commands and as such, those that are found guilty of disobedience, may be given harsh disciplinary sentences.

- The leader must be able to influence followers through the use of positive power and influences using negotiation, involvement, direction and example

This element is in fact an answer to the previous one. Assertive and confident leaders would tend to be positive in dealing with their followers precisely because they are in control of the situation and as a result they are not intimidated by their followers. These leaders are not shy in engaging their followers as they have nothing to fear. In fact, they regard themselves as supporters of their followers rather than as leaders and as a result, they tend to consult and involve their followers quite extensively.

The use of power was discussed in chapter 2 (see section 2.3.3.2) where it was argued that power has the potential of producing two effects; the first effect is said to be *positive* where power is shared with followers so that followers feel that they are also powerful and can make group decisions that would be supported by the leader. The second product of power is where the leader fails to share it and as a result, a *negative* effect is produced because followers would tend to react negatively towards the use of such power. For example, a country where power is concentrated around a few elite whose mission is to decide for the majority normally leads to a situation where the powerless majority begins to revolt against the rule of the ruling minority elite and if the condition is not corrected, attempts to overthrow the ruling elite becomes the agenda of the powerless majority (these are

the conditions that led to the French Revolution that began in 1789). The AMA's inspirational leadership competency model is depicted graphically as follows:

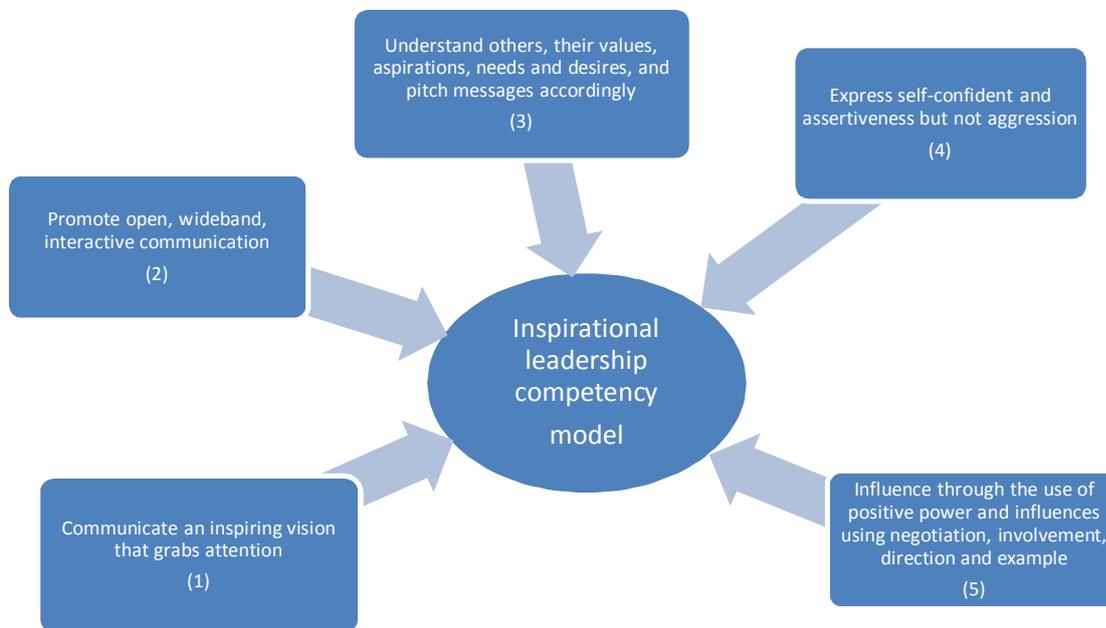


Figure 4.3 AMA's Inspirational Leadership Competency Model (Adapted from Thomas, 2006:151-152)

4.5 LEADERS CHALLENGE THE INSTITUTIONAL PROCESSES

The creation of a new vision was discussed above as simply an act of searching for solutions that would enable an institution to solve today's challenges or problems. The ramifications of this statement are far more profound than it seems. Creating a new vision involves a process of *"doing things differently."* By their very nature, new visions cannot be implemented by doing the same things that were done under the old visions, otherwise, if that happens, it means that there is no new vision at all, maybe it's a case of *"old wines packaged in new bottles"*. To move from the current status quo to the new vision, some form of transformation must take place. Transformation is essentially, the process that the leader uses in trying to redirect the group or followers performance or effort towards the new vision. Kouzes and Posner (2002:176-177) put it in an interesting manner when they suggest that *"thus the study of leadership is the study of how men and women guide us through adversity, uncertainty, hardship, disruption, transformation, transition, recovery, new beginnings, and other significant challenges."* In other words, true leaders are those leaders who have the ability to excel during hard and trying times. These are the leaders who have the ability to thrive on chaos. When many leaders would be running away through the door, transformational leaders would be rushing in,

ready to deal with the challenges of chaotic forces within institutions (Munro, 2008:112-113). The purpose of this section is to discuss the process taken by transformational leaders in their quest to alter the way things are done in institutions.

The section begins by discussing how leaders search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow and improve. Finally, it also discusses how leaders experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes.

4.5.1 Leaders search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve

It has been argued above that a new vision, by definition, creates an opportunity where the effort of groups within the institution can be re-directed so that new outcomes as envisaged in the vision can be realised. This is essentially an attempt at building a new entity that would have the capability of implementing the new vision. This is like dismantling an old house so that a new one can be erected. The process of dismantling an old house usually produces two types of building material: useable and non-useable building material. By the same token, trying to change the status quo of an institution can also bring two types of dimensions: the first dimension could be that groups within the institutions can find new inspiration and this can bring fresh positive energy to the institution. But on the other side of the coin, the second dimension could be that changing the status quo can result in serious disintegration of systems and processes within the institution in such a way that some institutional members may find the entire exercise disruptive and highly stressful (Hughes *et al.* 2006:399). It was argued in section 4.5 above that a changing institutional environment usually produces two types of groups: beneficiaries and losers. Beneficiaries are those groups that would be supported by the new changes whereas losers are those groups that would not be supported by those changes. This fact is amplified by Wall *et al.* (1992:163) where they state that "building the new organization sets enormous changes in motion. If the dynamics of change are not understood by everybody in the organization, change can be destabilizing and disruptive."

These writers appear to be providing a *caveat* that change must not be done in an unorganised manner; it must follow a *predetermined* plan so that hidden risks associated with it can be identified and dealt with effectively. This then begs the question: what strategies should transformational leaders employ in order to initiate change in their institutions? It is the purpose of this section to discuss how

effective leaders deal with the question of initiating necessary transformation that would provide guidance to the process of change design. In other words, like all processes within institutions, transformation also needs to be “*managed*” and this then calls for a *change management or transformation* strategy. Smit and Cronje (1992:239) Schemerhorn *et al.* (1988:516) are correct when they proclaim that whether leaders are dealing with a condition of planned or reactive transformation, understanding the steps that need to be taken in the change process will invariably increase the probability of such transformation being successful. In defence of their assertion, Smit and Cronje (1992:240) have created a model which they call the *management of change as a process*” which has been chosen as a tool for this study to show how the transformation process should be managed so that it can be designed and delivered effectively. This model is graphically constructed as follows:

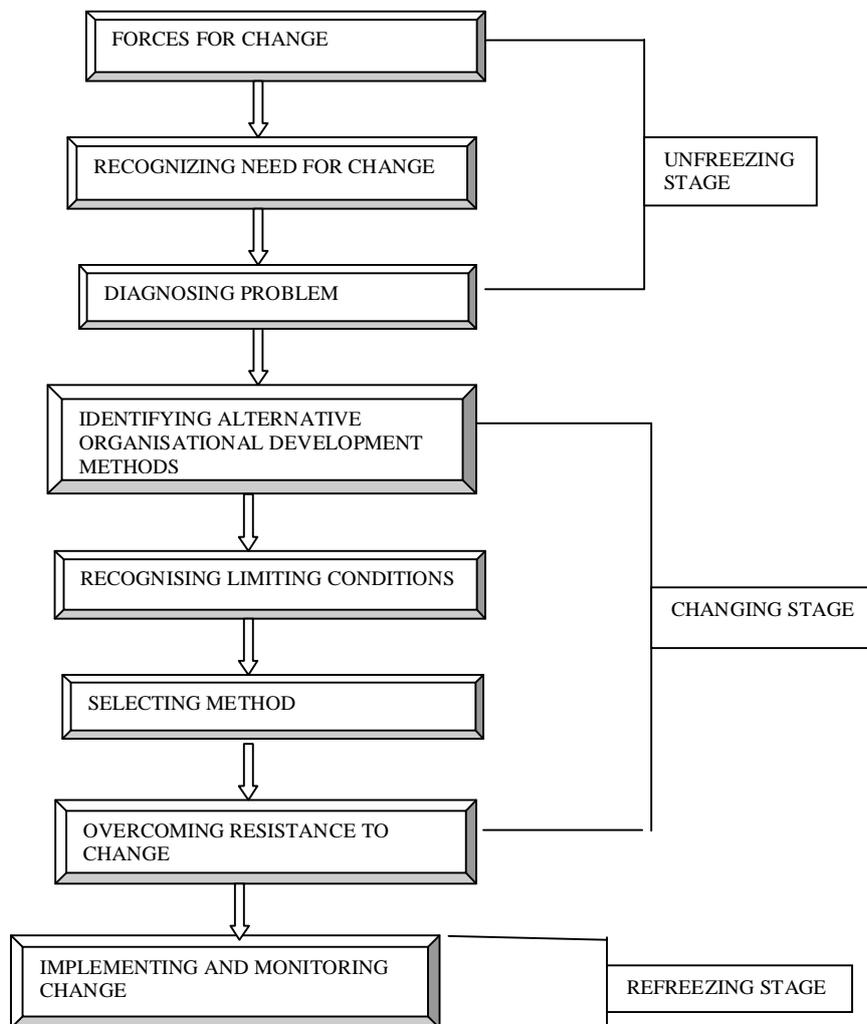


Figure 4.4: Management of change as a process (Adapted from Smit and Cronje, 1992:240)

The management of change as a process model provides a systematic approach to the business of creating a transformational environment where potential adverse conditions can be handled and dealt with in an orderly manner (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990:615). The model consists of three stages: the unfreezing stage, the changing stage, and the refreezing stage. These stages are discussed below.

4.5.1.1 The unfreezing stage

The unfreezing stage refers to the point when the leader begins to “sniff the air” for the purpose of identifying clearly those forces that are militating in favour of change. Once those forces are identified, the next step is to investigate whether there is a need for change. The next stage is the diagnostic of the problem that is to be solved by the new status quo.

- Forces for change

Forces for change consists of both internal and external environments such as the needs of employees, directives from top management, changes in technology used by the institution, vision of the new political head (minister), vision of the new cabinet, vision of the ruling party and parliamentary committees’ recommendations as well as demands from the general public for the provision of effective and efficient services. For example, during general elections, political parties make a number of promises and once voted to power, voters would expect noticeable provision of the promised services and failure to deliver on those may anger those voters to the point of them voting for the opposition party during the next elections. In South Africa, the anger of the voters towards non-service delivery has resulted in a number of violent protests more in particular at local government level. This phenomenon has brought another dimension in the politics of service delivery promises by political parties. The tendency of trying to woo voters by making false promises has finally caught up with fallacious politicians and this is good so that politicians would desist from making false promises for the purpose of attracting votes. Politicians would begin to realise that every promise made carries a financial implication and if not backed by proper financial backing, those politicians who make false promises may be made to suffer humiliating protests from their own voters.

- Recognising need for change

In the process of “*sniffing the air*” for the purpose of being aware of the forces that are militating for change, the leader needs to study the situation properly by

gathering reliable information that would invariably be analysed for the purpose of recognising if there is in fact a genuine necessity for the change to be undertaken. In other words, this is the point where a strategic gathering and analysis of available information regarding the nature of the forces for change is undertaken for the purpose of establishing the seriousness or dangers that may prevail if those forces are not taken into consideration in a serious matter. For example, the head of a department who continues to ignore directives coming from the new minister would soon find himself or herself in a collision course with the new minister to the point where the working relations might warrant the sacking of the head.

- Diagnosing problem

The strength of transformational leaders lie in their ability to make proper diagnostics of problems that are at the centre of the required changes. Smit and Cronje (1992:241) suggest that the best way to handle this element is to separate symptoms from real problems as sometimes it happens that one may spend a lot of energy dealing with symptoms and not addressing the real issues. For example, in the field of agriculture, millions of rands have been provided under various grant funding programmes for the purpose of supporting emerging farmers but there is no corresponding increase in production from these farmers which may be an indication that finance may not be the major challenge of small farmers and this may call for a wider analyses of the problem to evaluate factors such as: training, marketing, agro-processing and proper agricultural technology so that these farmers are advised properly regarding the type of farming activity that may be amenable with the local climatic environment. Surely, a leader who is confronted by this challenge cannot solve it if he or she believes that what these farmers need is financial support only, and the only way to deal with this problem is to provide comprehensive support to these farmers so that all factors are taken into account.

4.5.1.2 The changing stage

Once the forces of change are properly identified, the need for change correctly recognised and the underlying problem clearly diagnosed, the next stage in the process is to deal with the change itself. This is done by first identifying alternative organisational development methods, secondly, recognising limiting conditions, thirdly, selecting the appropriate method and fourthly, overcoming resistance to change.

- Identifying alternative organisational development methods

At this stage of the process, the leader begins to analyse and evaluate the internal systems and processes for the purpose of ascertaining whether they would be able to handle the desired change. This is where systems such as structural composition, behavioural conditions and technological power of the institutions are analysed. For example, in order to implement the desired changes, the institutional structure may have to be improved by simplifying work, by enriching jobs, and by proper description of jobs so that appropriate departmentalisation (creation of appropriate directorates) can be done. The purpose of this exercise according to Smit and Cronje (1992:243) is to improve job satisfaction which in turn will lead to high employee morale.

Behavioural changes are where issues of effective people leadership are sorted out so that team building becomes the order of the day. This will invariably lead to training and retraining of employees so that they should be equipped with the necessary skills so as to be able to implement the proposed changes. This will also lead to improved communications within the institution, foster positive attitudes to employees, self-awareness of groups and effective group problem-solving skills. Lastly, the internal analysis must also evaluate the current technology used so as to ascertain whether it would be able to handle the proposed changes or not. Technology provides the tools that are necessary for the people to use in the course of carrying out the changes and if the required tools are not provided, the proposed changes may not be implemented effectively. Appropriate technology would enable the institution to make improvements in efficiency and quality of the proposed services. For example, when a certain university made the *payments of student fees* available through the internet, what they failed to integrate was the *registration process* so that if a student were to pay via the internet, the information would then be automatically integrated with the registration process so that there would be no need for students to undertake a separate registration process and at the moment, a student who has paid via the internet and is not able to complete the registration process, is deemed not to be registered despite the fact that the required registration fee is lying in the student's account. Surely, the technology is not user-friendly to those students who pay their fees via the internet.

- Recognising limiting conditions

Smit and Cronje (1992:247-48); Ivancevich and Matteson, (1990:615) provide an interesting argument regarding limiting conditions within an institution. They advocate that the most challenging limiting conditions to change are the current

leadership who may have the potential of frustrating and sabotaging the proposed changes. Smit and Cronje (1992:247-48) state that "likewise, a potential threat to organizational change is the prevailing leadership climate which is incompatible with the proposed changes. Indeed, any change programme not supported by the management has only a slim chance of success." This condition is in fact far more serious in the public sector where political authorities have to rely on technocrats for both the design and implementation of government programmes. Technocrats are powerful clique as they possess key strategic information that may not be directly available to the political authority without involving these technocrats. Because of the powerful position of technocrats in respect with institutional information, they may be tempted to provide only that type of information that favours or consolidates their own positions and as a result, they will always bring whatever is proposed to the centre so that they feel comfortable with it, otherwise, if drastic proposals are made, by the time they are implemented, they would have been pruned and carved in such a way that those proposals fit precisely to the preference of the technocrats. The adage that "*knowledge is power*" is still valid in this regard so that those who possess institutional knowledge would be able to use that knowledge to advance their own cause.

The second limiting condition mentioned by Smit and Cronje (1992:247-48) is institutional culture. Institutional culture can be regarded as those silent drivers of institutional performance. The way in which things are done in an institution is largely driven by the culture of that institution prevailing at the time. It goes without saying that in order to implement new changes, the culture of the institution must be evaluated so that it could be ascertained whether it does support or hinder the new changes. Culture is the first cousin of leadership. To change the prevailing culture, one may have to change the current leadership so that new leaders who are not attached to the old culture can be able to establish a new culture that would be favourable to the new changes. This argument is supported by the accepted political practice that when there is a change in the political leadership, there needs to be corresponding changes in the top leadership of the affected institutions. New ministers usually prefer to work with new heads that will be able to implement the vision of the new ministers because the current heads may be deeply embroiled in the current culture to the point where they become stumbling blocks to the new vision.

- Selecting method

The method that the leader seeks to employ when dealing with the new change depends on three factors: nature of the problem to be addressed by the new vision,

the attitude and capacity of the employees, institutional dimensions such as the leadership style being followed, and institutional culture and the formal organisational structure adopted (Smit and Cronje, 1992:251). Depending on the methodology employed when the new vision was being crafted, at this point, the leader is at the stage where he or she must engage employees so that the new vision can be operationalised. That is to say that the new vision must now become reality and since the employees are the ones who are responsible for its operationalisation, this is the point where they are summoned to give life to the new vision. Of great importance here, is the fact that has been argued by most writers cited in this study that leaders must create an environment where the new vision is embraced by employees, right from the envisioning stage so that issues of attitudes and capacities would have been addressed earlier on in the process (Cameron *et al.* 2006:116).

The leader has the choice of three *modus operandi* that can be used to mobilise employees to participate in the operationalisation of the new vision. The first methodology is the unilateral approach where the leader comes with a directive of how the new vision must be implemented by the group. This is sometimes known as the "top-down" approach because it is the leader who creates the vision and then directs employees to do the implementation. The responsibilities of the employees are also defined by the leader. The second approach is where the leader defines the problem and then invites the employees to come up with solutions to the problem. In other words, the group would be allowed to choose how the new vision is to be operationalised. For example, a minister may identify a problem and then issue an instruction to the technocrats to come up with a strategy of implementation. The third approach is where the leader provides a climate where the group is given the authority to define the problem and also provide operationalisation strategies. All three methods were adequately discussed in chapter 2 (see figure 2.9) where a number of different approaches to leadership were presented. And what is being discussed here is basically the point that there are two types of leadership styles: the authoritarian leader and the democratic leader. Authoritarian leaders tend to favour the top-down approach when dealing with employees and the democratic leader tends to favour the delegated approach where employees are given the opportunity to identify the problem and define how the problem is to be solved. This is what is commonly known as the "bottom-up" approach. The pros and cons of these approaches were dealt with in chapter 2. (see section 2.4) The bottom-up approach is particularly useful in avoiding resistance to change because employees would have been involved in the entire process so that the end result carries the views and aspirations of the group (Smit and Cronje, 1992:250; von Weltzien Hoivik, 2002:159). Basically what it means is that if the leader wants the group to

implement the new vision with verve and alacrity, they must be given the authority to be at the forefront of the designing and implementation of the new vision.

- Overcoming resistance to change

Resistance to change is one of the major obstacles faced by transforming institutions and if it is not handled with care, it may scuttle all the efforts that were provided in the designing of the new vision. It was argued in section 4.5.1 of this chapter that moving from the old vision to the new vision entails a process of moving away from the present status quo to a new regime and that will produce losers and winners and it is those people who perceive the new vision as a threat to their present status and if not convinced of its benefit to them, they will probably provide a formidable resistance to the movement towards the new vision.

The minimisation of resistance to change may be accomplished by employing the following strategies: education and communication, participation and involvement, facilitation and support, negotiation and agreement, manipulation and cooptation and explicit and implicit coercion (Schermerhorn *et al.* 1988:522).

- Education and communication

People spend years acquiring knowledge on a particular field and if the new vision requires that the group should learn a new skill, this should be pointed out at the envisioning stage. Clear and open communication about the impact of the new vision on the expertise of the group should also be taken into account (Robbins, 1988:548).

- Participation and involvement

Shared approach to envisioning is critical for the implementation of the new vision. People are generally going to support a vision that carries their inputs than the one that is imposed on them (Bryman, 1992:17).

- Facilitation and support

Both emotional and physical support is critical so as to allay fears. When the employees feel that the leader is genuinely interested in their welfare, they in turn will show high commitment to the new vision. For example, if a new vision requires the use of technological tools such as computers, the leader must ensure that the group is willing and able to operate computers, otherwise, failure to

support the group by not providing adequate training and provision of computers will provide a potential ground for resistance to the new vision (Rees, 1991:23).

- Negotiation and agreement

The leader needs to be able to negotiate with followers so that potential misunderstandings can be neutralised. By entering into a dialogue with the group, the leader will be provided with in-depth understanding of how the group feels about the new changes. For example, downsizing the size of a unit may involve the retrenchment of some members and if the remaining members are not given adequate financial rewards, the group may not be willing to provide the required performance as they would regard the new move as an attempt by management to extract more output for less pay (Hackman and Johnson, 1996:148).

- Manipulation and cooptation

Manipulation and cooptation is usually used by top-down leaders. The trick is to adopt the strategy of 'divide and rule' where the influential members of the group would be given privileges with the understanding that they would then be able to convince the other members to accept the changes. For example, when the BRT was being designed, the authority engaged certain taxi associations who were expected to convince their members to accept the deal. But as the Project went on, it became apparent that not all taxi associations are in favour of the deal and violent protests were then unleashed by the disgruntled groups (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990:356).

- Explicit and implicit coercion

Where there is huge resistance to change, the leader may resort to formal authority where members of the resisting group may be threatened with dismissals and denial of certain rights such as salary increase and annual bonuses. For example, a university that is facing students revolt may threaten the protesting students with deregistration, and police may be called to deal with the offenders. If the situation persists, the entire university may be closed down for a number of weeks so that the university can have the opportunity to deal with students on individual basis. Coercion is the main instrument of authoritarian leaders where rules and regulations become the order of the day and any employee who deviates from those rules and regulations would be dealt with harshly (Sims and Lorenzi, 1992:292).

4.5.1.3 The refreezing stage

One of the major challenges that is bedeviling public institutions is the endless pressure exerted by the political authorities for unending change. Before the effects of the current change could be studied, new changes would be forced upon these institutions and as a result, those institutions become ghost chasers which invariably renders them ineffective. Once the leader has ensured that the forces of change have been identified, the need for change to deal with those forces is recognised, the problem has been clearly diagnosed, alternative institutional development methods identified, limiting conditions recognised, the method for presenting the new vision to employees has been chosen, and strategies to handle resistance to change clearly articulated, the leader is now ready to facilitate the implementation of the new vision. This is the stage where refreezing becomes necessary in order to allow the operationalisation of the new vision. Refreezing means that no new changes should be allowed until the outcomes of the newly established vision are realised and studied (Barry and Hansen, 2008:407).

This is where the institution tries to “*put theory into practice*” and a number of lessons will be learnt along the way and it is these lessons that would enable the institution to gain dexterity in the sphere of vision implementation. The following section is going to provide a discussion on how leaders should handle the implementation of new visions. One has to bear in mind that most visions fail at the point of implementation which means that leaders are generally capable to design new visions but their downfall is at the implementation of those visions (Mendonca and Kanungo, 2007:47-48).

4.5.2 Leaders experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes

The preceding section looked at those issues that affect effective envisioning which was defined as a process whereby the leader comes up with a new vision that would enable the institution to deal with current challenges. In trying to provide a systematic approach to the process of envisioning, the Smit and Cronje Model of vision building was adopted (Smit and Cronje, 1992:240). But the story of envisioning does not end at the point of vision creation. It continues right up until the new vision is fully implemented or operationalised with lessons learnt so that if improvements need to be carried out, the institution would have had proper grounding regarding the nature and extent of the challenges encountered therein. The aim of this section is to provide a short discourse on how the implementation stage of a new vision should be handled bearing in mind that most visions falter at

the point of implementation. The suggestion by Kouzes and Posner (2002:205) is that the leader must ensure that the following actions are undertaken at the point of vision implementation: create an environment that encourages risk-taking, initiate incremental steps and small wins, learn from mistakes and promote psychological hardiness among members of the group. These factors are discussed below as follows:

4.5.2.1 Leaders create an environment that encourages risk-taking

One of the most stumbling blocks to change is the fear of the unknown. The fear that the new vision may fail makes people reluctant to venture into its implementation (Smit and Cronje, 1992:253). This statement is also supported by Kouzes and Posner (2002:205) where they argue that when leaders try to implement changes, they generally put themselves and their followers at risk. The failure of a project could spell disaster to the leader and the followers more in particular if one considers that every project undertaken will invariably require financial commitment and if it fails, the entire institution may be exposed to serious risk that may condemn it to doomsday. For example, the so-called global economic meltdown that was experienced in late 2008 by motorcar manufacturers such as Toyota, Chrysler and General Motors, just to name a few, left these institutions highly vulnerable which in some cases led to bankruptcy for General Motors. The moral of the story is that hundreds of employees of sum of these firms found themselves facing a bleak future after investing enormous amount of time and skills working for those institutions. On the other hand, shareholders of General Motors woke up to the realisation that their lifelong investments were suddenly pronounced worthless and thanks to the Federal Government who decided to pump in billions of dollars in the form of aid packages which have enabled General Motors to continue to operate up to this day (Detroit heralds dawn of electric era: US carmakers more optimistic following depression. 2010. Cape Times, 14 January:5).

On the other hand, it is equally true that life itself is a risky business. One plans years in advance banking on the fact that one would live well beyond the planned years. If people had no risk factoring culture, people would simply stay at home waiting for death to strike. Perhaps that is the explanation why insurance companies are such big institutions partly because of the fact that people fear death so much so that they would like to transfer some element of the risk associated with death to these companies so that people could then be able to plan their lives as if death did not exist (Spears, 1995:148).

It is often mentioned that change is inevitable and it is bound to happen anyway. Kouzes and Posner (2002:205) argue that to break out of the box that restrict the leader's ability to implement the new vision, the leader needs to do the things that he or she thinks are impossible to achieve. The old adage that says "fortune favours the brave" which in IsiZulu is called "sibindi uyabulala-sibindi uyaphilisa" is still relevant for this discussion. This simply means that success will come only to those leaders who are brave enough to try new things. This means that leaders must be *risk-tolerant* so as to be able to venture into the unknown (Spears, 1995:148). There is a story that is often told about how Walt Disney (author unknown) created the world's biggest entertainment industry. It is said that when Walt Disney had an idea, he would bounce it around among his directors and if most of the directors found the idea appealing, that is, agreed and supported the idea, he would not try to implement it. But when he came up with an idea that seemed utterly crazy to the board of directors, he would then go on to implement it. The moral of the story is that sometimes leaders need to do the unthinkable things for them to come up with real changes because doing things that are accepted by the majority simply means that one is simply continuing with the current status quo. That is why Kouzes and Posner (2002:176-77) are of the view that to implement the new vision, the leader needs to venture outside the norm by doing the things that seem impossible to do. To be able to move the institution into doing extra-ordinary things, the leader needs to create an environment that encourages the group to engage in risk-taking projects with the understanding that in order to implement new changes, some kind of risk has to be undertaken otherwise, the group will continue doing things the same old fashion which will not lead to the implementation of the new vision (Bryman, 1992:102).

Another interesting example of risk-taking challenges is the one that is initiated by the National Treasury where the financing of public funded projects must be done within certain financial prescripts. Now, this raises a very interesting dichotomy in the sense that public institutions are expected to be enterprising and display a professional approach to service delivery. The resulting problem here is that if public institutions try to serve the public to their best ability, which may entail a little deviation from set Treasury financial prescripts, they end up being accused of violations which may result in charges being laid against those who would be responsible for the deviation. This anomaly may be the one that leads to the phenomenon of financial *under-spending* and *roll-overs* of millions of rands every year within public institutions (sources). Unless Treasury creates an enabling environment where public institutions are allowed to take a *little gamble* with public funds, service delivery in South Africa will remain a contentious issue.

4.5.2.2 Leaders initiate incremental steps and small wins

It is often stated that one *cannot eat an elephant in one day* (author unknown) and this *caveat* is equally relevant for the implementation of new changes. One of the major challenges associated with the implementation of new changes in the public sector is that most leaders want to undertake a *wholesale* implementation as opposed to *piecemeal* implementation. The major disadvantage of a wholesale implementation approach is that it is often immensely difficult to handle too many variables at the same time and one also needs to bear in mind that the implementation of a new vision may be a costly exercise and if disaster should strike, the institution may lose a lot of its financial resources hence the fear of even trying as leaders become fearful that the new changes may result in a financial disaster (Spears, 1995:138-48). The implementation of a new vision can be likened to a choir that is trying to learn a new song. The choir begins by learning a few bars at the time and once all the bars are adequately learnt, only then does the choir try to sing the entire song.

The piecemeal approach to new vision implementation has another advantage in the sense that those people who are directly responsible for its implementation are given the opportunity to gain confidence and dexterity in handling the changes and this will go a long way towards alleviating fears as group members see that it is possible for them to realise the goal going forward. Kouzes and Posner (2002:208) point out in this regard that *getting ourselves and others to change old mindsets and habits and substitute new ones-and commit to them long term, is daunting. Even with the best intentions, people tend to revert to old and familiar patterns*. Another important point to make here is that when small steps are taken, few variables are involved and if there are mistakes, it would be relatively easy to handle them going forward. In the public institutions, this approach is usually known as *“piloting”* where a project can be implemented in a specific area and once all challenges and successes are adequately analysed, it is only then that the project could be *rolled-out* to other areas in a bigger scale (Heifetz *et al.* 2009:135). Essentially, the process involves the breaking up of the entire goal into small milestones that become easy to handle. These milestones are then placed sequentially so that the accomplishment of the first milestone lead to the tackling of the second milestones until all the milestones are accomplished which in essence becomes the realisation of the overall goal (Ferraro, 2008:87).

The strategic planning approach to the implementation of a new vision is well and good but the only challenge is that it makes the operationalisation of new changes too mechanical and more often than not, by the time the group tries to implement

the current changes, new ones would have been identified and as a result, members of the group develop the feeling of hopelessness as they become aware that they are not able to carry out the implementation to its fullest (Daft and Marcic, 2009:154-163). For example, frequent changes in the political environment might seriously affect the implementation of effective service delivery changes within public institutions in the sense that although ministers may come from the same political party, their political priorities may differ and that may exact undue stress to the affected institutions (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:208-09).

4.5.2.3 Leaders learn from mistakes

When there is an airline disaster, the authorities begin to piece together the wreckage for the purpose of establishing the cause of the disaster. The main purpose of conducting the aircraft disaster investigation is to establish the cause of the calamity so that it may be prevented from happening again in the future. Likewise, the leader must take all challenges into serious consideration so that lessons can be learnt that may help prevent their happening in the future (Ward, Bowman and Kakabadse, 2007:72). A leader who is oblivious to challenges during the implementation of new changes will soon be awakened by an ugly situation that may end up scuttling the entire endeavour (Katzenbach, 1996:284). Leaders need to be great learners so that they would be able to do things differently (Syrett and Hogg, 1992:429). Successful leaders spend many times failing in whatever they do but once they perfect their skills, there is no one whom can stop them from succeeding in their chosen careers (Forster, 2005:537). For example, Gary Player the greatest golfer to come from South Africa is not a big fellow by physic but through trials and tribulations he became a big hitter of the ball and in one of his television interviews (SABC) he said that whilst playing for a tournament, he had to deal with a difficult ball that had fallen into the bunker but he managed to produce a brilliant stroke that sent the ball right into the hole and some woman commented by saying, "oh dear, that was a very lucky shot" and Gary replied, "No Mam! That was a product of many hours of practice". The South African National Rugby Team can be cited as an example of learning from mistakes. The Rugby Team commonly known by their nickname "Ama-Bokoboko (springboks)" are current world champions but before that, years and years of dismal performances were registered and it must have been through those failures that the team eventually began to do things differently that led to their victories (2007 the year of the mighty Springboks. 2007. Cape Times, 18 December:21). The only way for people to learn is to allow them to fail (Forster, 2005:203). It is through failure that they will begin to venture into the unknown and eventually they will equip themselves with the right skills and attitudes (Forster, 2005:381). In a situation

where failure is not tolerated, people become afraid to try extra-ordinary things and as a result it becomes a challenge for them to achieve the things that they are expected to accomplish (Caruso and Salovey, 2004:190). This view is also validated by the adage that says “*Practice makes perfect*” which simply means that people gain dexterity in their endeavours through sustained practice.

4.5.2.4 Leaders promote psychological hardiness among members of the group

It is claimed that Barak Obama, the current American President, was able to appeal to the American people by using a simple slogan “*yes we can*”. At the time of the elections, the American people were yawning for a change from the disastrous Bush Administration and Barak Obama was able to attract their attention by promising them a new beginning which invariably took him to the White House (Yes we can, Zuma- a lesson from US. 2008. Sunday Tribune, 16 November:24). Another example is, during times of war, soldiers are made to believe that only the enemy soldiers are going to die in their numbers and that psychological indoctrination is critical so as to remove the feeling of fear which may bring demoralisation or low morale among the members (Robbins, 1988:444). Even if the going seems hopeless, the leader must find a way of assuring followers that the goal will eventually be realised (Pincus and DeBonis, 1994:89). Again, some projects may be extremely stressful to work with and if group members are not being assured consistently that they are on the right track, they will enter the panic mode and eventually they will begin to rebel against the implementation of the new vision (Olmstead, 2000:196-97). The leader in particular will have to display a feeling of brevity which will give the impression that he or she is highly confident that the objectives would be effectively implemented (Omlmstead, 2000:189). A frightened leader who displays signs of weaknesses is a bad pill for followers because followers are prepared to support a brave and confident person rather than a weakling who appears not to be sure which way to take. Again, Adolf Hitler is a striking example of such a leader. Even when it became apparent that Germany would lose the war, he kept on promising his people that fighting on was in their best interest and in the end, when Germany was defeated; Hitler allegedly committed suicide rather than be captured like a loser (The delights and sights of Germany. 2006. Pretoria News, 16 June:7). Just imagine what would have happened to Adolf Hitler had he been captured alive? On the other hand Saddam Hussein of Iraq was captured hidden in a manhole and had to suffer the humiliation of being dragged around like an animal (So why exactly did Bush invade Iraq? 2007. The Star, 15 January:18). The point is, whilst he was in power, he displayed a great deal of bravado but when it came to the final push, he “*chickened out*” like a helpless coward. This argument is summed up nicely by Kouzes and Posner

(2002:222) where they advocate that "first, people cannot lead if they are not psychologically hardy. No one will follow someone who avoids stressful events and would not take decisive action. Second, even if leaders are personally very hardy, they cannot enlist and retain others if they do not create an atmosphere that promotes psychological hardiness. People will not remain long with a cause that distresses them. They need to believe that they can overcome adversity if they are to accept the challenge of change. Leaders must create the conditions that make all of that possible."

4.6 LEADERS ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT

In chapter 1 (see section 1.12.6) leadership was defined for the purpose of this study as a *process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal* (Northouse, 2001:3). To influence others is nothing else but an act of *enabling others* to perform whatever tasks are assigned to them so that the goal being pursued can be achieved. This is the foundation of the behavioural leadership approach. The implication contained in this approach is that the successes and failures of the group is usually the sole responsibility of the leader (Kraines, 2001:29). It points to the ability and nature of the environment created by the leader in terms of how followers are enabled in respect of the tasks that must be performed for the purpose of achieving the goal being pursued. This is the stage where team building strategies are unleashed by the leader and the strengths of those team building strategies are tested for their effectiveness. For example, when a soccer team fails to perform according to the expected norms of that team, the first person to be booted out is the coach. Why boot out the coach who does not even play during a match? The reason could simply be that since he or she is the leader of the team, he or she is generally evaluated on the successful realisation of the stated goal, that is, to win matches and championships, and to win those matches and championships is a critical indicator of the leader's ability to build a winning team. The question that follows is: how do successful leaders enable their followers to perform above the norm? Answers to this question are provided by the Kouzes and Posner model as follows: firstly, successful leaders *foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust*, secondly, successful leaders *strengthen others by sharing power and discretion* (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:242-43).

4.6.1 Leaders foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust

Modern institutions are usually characterised by the process of departmentalisation where a number of similar functions are grouped together so that the skills of the people to perform those tasks contained within those functions can be properly matched (Ivanvevich and Matteson, 1990:434-35). For example, the services provided by a public hospital could be grouped into functions according to the services to be given such as the heart unit, urology unit, paediatric unit, general unit, gynaecology unit and others. This kind of departmentalisation allows a group of highly specialised surgeons to provide services within their specific specialisations and the purpose here is to provide effective services to humanity. The main point to be demonstrated by this example is that the effectiveness of service provision within a hospital set-up is not a solo effort; it is the result of a number of members working in collaboration within their groups as well as with other groups within the institution (Ivanvevich and Matteson, 1990:436). To enable members to work together requires that leaders within institutions must create an environment where the culture of working together as teams is fostered. It is the philosophy of collaboration that is to be discussed in this section as it forms the basis of team building within a group.

4.6.1.1 Leaders foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals

In chapter 3 (see section 3.4.2.2) an analogy was made where the function of a leader was compared with the function of a music conductor who must coordinate and direct the musical inputs of all the different sections of the orchestra during a musical performance. In this instance, the role of the conductor is to create an environment where members of the orchestra are enabled to perform sections of the song as required by the arrangement of the song. What would happen if the orchestra did not have a conductor, would members still be able to perform effectively? This example provides an interesting observation in the sense that although all members of the orchestra may be highly skilled individuals, who have no problem performing the different parts allocated to them within the song, they still need the conductor to provide coordination and a guidance role so that members can focus their energy in performing and not worry about the timing and emphasis that are required for the purpose of making the correct statement with the song. Likewise, a leader of a group in an institution is expected to provide an environment that enables members of the group to perform their tasks to the best of their abilities (Pincus and DeBonis, 1994:83-4).

The main challenge with leader-driven approaches is that they tend to create a huge hype around the leader as if he or she was acting alone when the goal was being realised (Bottger, 2008:28-9). It is this practice that has dented these approaches. Successful leaders would be the first ones to proclaim that success came about because of group effort (Olmstead, 2000:22). That is, it is the performance of the entire orchestra and not the behaviour or action of the conductor only that has given rise to the stunning rendition of the song. Of course, the contribution of the conductor in terms of facilitation and coordination cannot be under-emphasised but equally so, the contribution of each and every member of the orchestra is equally important and this means that the failure of one is the failure of all and surely where the group has done an outstanding job, all members of that group should equally be given a standing ovation as an honour to their contribution to the project (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990:211). *õInkosi yinkosi ngabantu*” is a useful Zulu saying which means that a king becomes king because there are people to rule. A king without people is no king at all and that suggests that both king and people are equally important in the building of a successful kingdom (Starratt, 1993:5). A smart king would make sure that his subjects’ needs are catered for so that in turn, they would defend the kingdom with their lives if necessary so that everyone in the kingdom can enjoy security and prosperity. The promotion of cooperation among members of a group is based on the premise that members of that group are aware of the benefits or rewards that would accrue to each member once the goal has been achieved (Levinson, 2006:124-26). This fact was discussed above where it was pointed out that people affiliate and support the cause because they strongly believe that their very survival depends on the successful achievement of the goal being chased (see section 4.4.2.1). For example, workers join a labour union because they strongly believe that the labour union would be able to articulate their views and aspirations effectively, in fact far better than each individual would do acting alone (Robbins, 1988:562).

4.6.1.2 Leaders foster collaboration by building trust

Leadership is essentially a *relationship* and not a *position* and as such it is based on trust (Pandya and Shell, 2005:45). Successful leaders are characterised by the high degree of trust and what they say is what they do (Maital and Seshadri, 2007:344). Trust is a two-edged sword; if it is swung to the right, it requires that the leader himself or herself should be a highly trusted individual and if it is swung to the left, it requires that the leader must have a high degree of trust in the followers (Bolman and Deal, 2008:346). In short, the followers must trust their leader and in turn, the leader must trust his or her followers. Should the two camps not trust each other, a situation will develop where their working relationship or interaction becomes

toxic to the point where collaboration becomes difficult (Zhou and Shalley, 2008:106-07). For example, the current president of Athletics South Africa (ASA) Mr. Leonard Chuene vehemently denied having knowledge regarding the gender testing of Caster Semenya who won a gold medal in the 800 metre run in Berlin Germany in September 2009. However, as evidence to the contrary mounted, he subsequently admitted that indeed he was informed about the medical tests that were conducted on Caster Semenya in South Africa and much to everyone's surprise, the Board of ASA went on to express their support for Mr. Leonard Chuene as President (Athletics president Chuene in firing line: Athletics boss faces probe after apology over Semenya. 2009. The Mercury, 6 November:2). The Sunday Times (27 September 2009: 1) made the following comment "The little old ladies from Killarney used to adore Leonard Chuene. That was in the early days, when the Athletics South Africa (ASA) president was widely regarded and liked. It may be hard to believe now, but he was deemed a man of principle, a champion of the underdog. Few people then would have thought that he would end up hitting the headlines for all the wrong reasons, time and again-most recently for admitting he lied to the nation over the Caster Semenya debacle." The problem with this case is that Mr. Chuene has broken the trust as a leader and more importantly, a leader of an institution that interacts with other countries in terms of athletics and that means that he did not only break the trust of the people of South Africa but also the trust of the entire sporting world and that is a serious matter which should have been dealt with seriously. In short, trust is the mortar that binds the leader and the followers together so that each is able to perform the tasks expected, and using the example of an orchestra, one cannot imagine what would happen if the orchestra did not trust the conductor and on the other hand, the conductor did not trust the orchestra (Parks, 2005:112).

The main danger of mistrust is the phenomenon of "divide-and-rule" where the leader chooses to trust a small section of the followers who are then empowered with benefits to the exclusion of the rest of the group (Heifetz *et al.* 2009:233-34). For some public institutions, this practice has resulted in serious destabilisation of the culture of effective public leadership and in some extreme cases it has led to open confrontations between the warring factions (Eskom CEO "locked out", Maroga's position unclear as board stands firm on resignation. 2009. The Star, 11 November:1). For example, the relationship in terms of trust between the boards and the chief executive officers of the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), the South African Airways (SAA), and the Landbank to name just a few, was broken down to such an extent that there was no way these two camps could continue functioning as was expected and that is, to complement and support each other. The seed of trust within the group must be planted by the leader as part of

the facilitation and coordination function that is part of the responsibilities of the leader (Harvey and Brown, 1992:415). Leaders who do not trust tend to over-supervise which leads to follower discouragement and lack of initiative (Marlier and Parker, 2009:100). On the other hand, leaders who build trust indirectly create an environment where followers become enterprising which in turn, leads to innovation and high morale among the group (Harvey and Brown, 1992:95).

4.6.2 Leaders strengthen others by sharing power and discretion

In chapter 2 (see section 2.3.3.2), it was discussed that in an institutional setting, a leader must have power so as to be able to direct the conduct of followers. Early researchers in the field such as French and Raven, Chester Barnard and McClelland were guided by this question: what gives leaders the right to command others to act in a certain manner? From this question, researchers were able to identify power as being at the centre of leadership in institutions (Ferraro, 2008:194). The next question that was asked was; what is power and how does one acquire it? Power was then defined as the *ability to exert influence upon others* (Stoner, 1982:304). Looking back to the definition of leadership adopted by this study, it is apparent that the ability to influence and be influenced is driven by *forces of power* (Harvard Business Review, 2009:159).

The ability to exert influence on others was defined as a “*process of affecting others’ attitudes and behaviour in order to achieve an objective or outcome*” (Lussier and Achua, 2004:102). This statement suggests that the ability to influence subordinates in an institutional setting has a direct effect on institutional performance. The underlying assumption is that every leader should have the ability to influence his or her subordinates towards the attainment of the stated outcome (Bolman and Deal, 2008:201). A leader without influence would be deemed as being unable to mobilise subordinates towards the realisation of the stated outcome (Harvey and Brown, 1992:209). For example, should subordinates ignore the leader’s call to work towards the realisation of the stated outcome, the institution would not be able to deliver services to its clients as mandated and this anomaly has been demonstrated in the institutions where violent strikes have taken place such as some of the institutions of higher learning and also some municipalities of local government (More strike action set to rock troubled TUT. 2009. Pretoria News, 13 August:4).

In 1959, two researchers, French and Raven (in Northouse, 2001:6) conceptualised the power approach in the social sciences by providing a framework under which the power phenomenon could be studied. French and Raven (in Northouse, 2001:6)

postulated that there is a dyadic relationship to power. This means that both the leader and the led have a role to play in the power equation. For example, the followers must accept the fact that the leader has influence over them and the leader must also recognize the fact that followers may have the ability to resist the influence being exerted (Harvey and Brown, 1992:199-200).

4.6.2.1 Nature of power

According to Stoner (1982:304), power is based on the premise that certain individuals (managers of institutions) have legitimacy or lawfulness or authority because of their positions within institutions to exert influence within prescribed conditions to their followers. For example, before people comply with an instruction, they need to satisfy themselves that the person issuing it has the right to do so. The question to be asked or assumed is: "what gives one the right to tell others what to do?" The answer is imbedded in the assumption that managers are authorised to issue instructions within certain parameters to their subordinates and that subordinates must accept the instructions as being legitimate and must duly comply (Joiner and Josephs, 2007:84-5).

According to the McClelland Model that was discussed in chapter 2 (see section 2.3.3.2) there are two dimensions of power: a positive dimension and a negative dimension. The negative dimension is expressed in terms of the propensity to dominate others. Some individuals are born with the inclination to command others and they use power as an instrument of expressing their will over others. This Model implies a condition usually known as *zero-sum power* arrangement. This phenomenon means that if two people are in a power relationship, the first person will have hundred percent power, and the second person will have zero percent power (the winner takes all mentality) (Stoner: 1982:308).

The positive dimension of power is best reflected by a concern for group goals and this implies that power will be *decentralized* so that even the subordinates will have a share in the design of the instruction instead of being receivers of instructions all the time (Jones, 2007:87-90). This means that power will be distributed in a *win-win* format as the leader would always seek the approval of his or her subordinates before making a decision regarding the work to be carried out (Kush, 2009:207-08). The leader is said to exert *influence* rather than the use of *formal power* to direct the conduct of his or her subordinates (Joiner and Josephs, 2005:84-5). Whilst the negative view of power leads to passive participation, the positive view implies active engagement of subordinates from the designing of tasks to be performed right down to the implementation of those tasks (Ferraro.

2008:213-14). This is sometimes called *democratic approach* to power utilisation and this means that subordinates would be encouraged to function as teams, would be supported in their quest to realise institutional objectives and would be rewarded for their positive efforts and these measures would be expected to lead to morale boosting conditions for subordinates (Stoner, 1982:308).

4.7 LEADERS ENCOURAGE THE HEART TO ENDURE

There is an English saying that goes “*when the going gets tough, the tough get going*”. This refers to a situation where the group may feel that the target to be reached is impossible to achieve and this may lead to the demoralisation of some members to the point where they may opt out of the project (Zhou and Shalley, 2008:223-24). Enduring through all trials and tribulations until the goal is reached requires courage and strong will to succeed and this is where successful leaders become useful in the sense that they are able to radiate fresh energy by encouraging the group to endure the suffering until the goal has been accomplished (Lee, 2003:14-5). Successful leaders encourage their followers to endure by recognizing contributions, by showing appreciation for individual excellence and by celebrating the values and victories through the creation of a spirit of community (Walters, 1987:107-09). These two principles are discussed below.

4.7.1 Leaders recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence

In chapter 3 (see section 3.4.2) it was stated that in any sport that is contested in a group format, it is the contribution of individual players that will enable the team to win matches but to win a championship, all players must contribute. For example, there are a number of teams playing under the Professional Soccer League (PSL) in South Africa but it is only one team that may occupy the number one spot at the end of the league season or fixture. What is in context here is the fact that the team that ends up occupying the first position did so because of the overall contribution of all players (although each player may have been outstanding in one or two games) and it is also important to note that few games were lost along the way as well. On the other hand, the rest of the teams were also able to win individual matches but could not match the superior performance of the winning team. This means that if one were to analyse the performance of each player in all the games, one would come to the realisation that players contributed individually along the way and it is the *sum-total* of all individual players that contributed to the success of the team. But goals are not scored by the same player

all the time; other players will also score some of the goals that would eventually contribute to the overall performance of the team.

The same concept can be applied to institutional performance. At micro level, it is the individual who must contribute or play their part towards the realisation of the stated objectives of the institution. But what gets measured at the end of the period is the sum-total contribution of all members of the institution. When it is proclaimed that the institution has performed exceptionally well during a particular point in time, it simply means that individual members were able to play their different part as individuals (Bratton *et al.* 2007:308).

The question is: what happens to those individuals who are outstanding performers? Should the leader treat them the same way as the average and or weak performers? Clearly, if the leader wants to produce superior performers, he or she would have to inculcate the culture of showing appreciation for superior individual performance (Hare *et al.* 1994:272). There is nothing demoralising for an individual than to be ignored after producing a stunning performance. For example, a lecturer who produces quality graduates who go on in life to be high achievers needs to be recognised for this outstanding performance so that even the less performing lecturers can be motivated towards superior lecturing but if nothing is being done, the qualitative lecturer may end up being discouraged and this may lead to the phenomenon called *satisficing* which is a condition where a person performs at the expected or average level and not at optimum level or superior level (Robbins, 1988:103).

Andy Pearson, the former Chief Executive Officer of PepsiCo is quoted in Kouzes and Posner (2002:317) as having stated that "if the need for recognition and approval is a fundamental human drive, then the willingness to give it is not a sign of weakness and great leaders find a balance between getting results and how they get them. A lot of people make the mistake of thinking that getting results is all there is to the job. They go after results without building a team or without building an organisation that has the capacity to change. Your real job is to get results and to do it in a way that makes your organisation a great place to work, a place where people enjoy coming to work, instead of just taking orders and hitting this month's numbers." Pearson seems to validate the argument that was presented above that says that individual superior performance needs to be recognised by the leader as a way of encouraging the other members of the group to "jack up" their performance as well. Individual superior performers act as models for desired performance and as such, they need a little pep on the shoulder to confirm that

what they are doing is being treasured by the leader and the institution (Bolman and Deal, 2008:398).

Another interesting point that is made by Pearson (in Kouzes and Posner 2002:317) is that some leaders may be reluctant to openly give recognition to individual members of the group because of the fear that these leaders may be regarded as being weak and as a result, they choose to ignore the superior contribution of individual members of their groups. Another fear is that the individual being “*pampered*” may develop the impression that without their contribution, the leader cannot reach the set targets and that the individual may hold the leader at “*ransom*” and in some rare cases, the individual may compete with the leader by by-passing the leader in terms of communication protocol (Bratton *et al.* 2007:329-31). For example, whilst playing for Manchester United, David Beckham, the English soccer legend was so popular with fans that at some stage, the coach, Sir Alex Ferguson made a comment that David Beckham’s popularity is having a negative effect on the team’s spirit and as a result, he recommended that David Beckham should be sold to other football clubs and eventually, it was Real Madrid who purchased him (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/David_Beckham#Manchester_Unitedsource).

In the finality of it, getting results is the ultimate objective but by focusing on results without acknowledging those people who made it possible for the group to produce those results may be a self-defeating exercise for the leader because there may come a time when the superior performing individuals may decide either to cut back on their performance or look for other opportunities outside the institution (Hare *et al.* 1994:101). An interesting event happens when a key employee decides to quit and is immediately given what is known as a “*counter-offer*” where the salary of the employee is raised so as to match what would have been offered by the new employer (How to retain those bright sparks in your company. 2006. The Star, 30 October:1). The point is; must people resign first before they are recognised as being key to the institution? Why can’t people be praised for the good job they are producing so that they become aware that they are highly valued by their employers?

In conclusion, good leadership means that people’s good work must be appreciated by providing both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards so that even those who are under-performing can begin to realise that success is based on hard work and not “*sucking up to the boss*” (Manz and Neck, 2004:5). To be able to recognise superior performers, Kouzes and Posner (2002:349) recommend that the leader must engage in the following behaviours: be creative about rewards, make

recognition public, provide feedback en route, be a Pygmalion, foster positive expectations, make the recognition presentation meaningful, find people who are doing things right, and must always say, “thank you” when people are doing things right.

4.7.2 Leaders celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community

Kool and the Gang was a popular Band that produced numerous rhythm and blues hits in the eighties and one of their popular songs was titled “celebration” where the lyrics of the song said something like “Celebrate good times come on.” The spirit of celebrating good times is a universal human behaviour (Hunter, Bailey and Taylor, 1996:46). When the National Rugby Team won the World Cup in England in 2007, there were celebrations right across South Africa by all races and on that day, South Africans of all races put aside their racial stratifications and became united and were proud to be called South Africans. When the Team landed at Oliver Tambo International Airport, they were greeted by hundreds of fans as if they were like heroes coming back from winning a war. Celebrations are means of publicly saying “*thank you*” to a group of individuals who managed to accomplish the assigned goal. For example, each and every university has a graduation day where successful students are paraded publicly so that everyone present can share in their “*academic victories*”. Celebrations also play a vital role as means to motivate the younger generation in the sense that young people begin to model their own behaviours around their favourite heroes. Likewise, in the institutional setting, celebrations are also important in instilling the spirit of unity among members of the group (Hulse-Killacky, Killacky and Donigian. 2001:11-2). They are also used as motivators so that even those members who are under-performing can begin to appreciate how it would feel like to be winners and that would trigger the desire to work even harder (Hare *et al.* 1994:266-7). The purpose of this section is to discuss the following factors as being critical reasons for engaging in the culture of celebrating successes.

4.7.2.1 Celebrations act as re-enforcers of shared vision and values

It was argued in the beginning of this chapter (see section 4.4) that in order for a new vision to be enthusiastically implemented by the group, the leader must ensure that each and every member of the group share or embraces the vision with verve and alacrity. This notion is beautifully advocated by Kouzes and Posner (2002:112) where they say that “And you can’t impose a self-motivating vision on others. It has to be something that has meaning to your constituents, not just to you. Leaders must foster conditions under which everyone will do things because

they want to, not because they have to. One of the most important practices of leadership is giving life and work a sense of meaning and purpose by offering an exciting vision. In other words, by celebrating victories, the leader is also trying to propagate the main vision so that all members present begin to take interest in the stated vision as envisaged by the leader. This is the moment where the leader acts as a salesperson who is trying to sell a product to prospective customers. The tone and sincerity of the voice is delivered in such a way that the followers become highly charged and immediately develop the propensity to embrace the new vision (Heifetz *et al.* 2009:9).

4.7.2.2 Celebrations confirm the fundamental premise that leadership is a relationship

If the premise that leadership is a relationship and not a position is true, then celebrations are necessary confirmations of that relationship (Lee, 2003:107-08). Celebrations are carried out among friends and relatives and one hardly invites one's enemies to celebrate with. Celebrations are stark indicators of the strength of the relationship between the leader and the followers. If some followers choose to boycott some of the celebrations hosted by the leader, this may indicate serious conflict between the leader and those followers. For example, Nelson Mandela when he was President of the Republic of South Africa was regarded as one of the down-to-earth leaders where followers felt comfortable to socialise with. He had the ability to touch everyone regardless of one's position or social rank. He was so simple even in his attire to such an extent that he would wear his "Madiba Shirts" which became his trade-mark during his presidency. Then came President Thabo Mbeki who was regarded as being aloof and a strict disciplinarian and his followers were always marking their words when conversing with him. There is a story (author unknown) that claims that at a meeting, President Thabo Mbeki would keep quiet until everyone has spoken and he would give his opinion based on the deliberations that were provided by participants. The moral of the story is that participants were not comfortable with this approach as they did not know how the President would "vote" as it were and no one wanted to carry an argument that would seem to go against the opinion of the President and this made some participants to hold back until they were sure more or less how the President would rule on the matter.

4.7.2.3 Celebrations strengthen the credibility of the leader

Credibility is defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002:32) as the "foundation of leadership". This refers to the believability of the leader. No follower wants to

associate himself or herself with a phoney, a liar and cheat. For example, before Jacob ōGedleyihlekisaö Zuma became President of the Republic of South Africa, there were a number of allegations of corruption levelled against him and that made his contestation of the Presidency doubtful as people were asking as to how would a person who was accused of corruption and rape be possibly elevated to the status of the President of the Country. In other words, his credibility as a leader was seriously put to test and after it was revealed by the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) that certain people were trying to blackmail him by insisting that he be charged for those corruption charges, people began to accept his credibility and as a result, the majority voted for his party and that eventually made him President of South Africa in 2009.

The credibility issue implies that only genuine leaders will be able to stage quality celebrations where followers will enthusiastically participate (Kottler *et al.* 2010:49). For example, the City of Tshwane has an annual event where citizens are honoured for their contributions in various human development endeavours. The 2009 event was marred by poor attendance which resulted in some councillors complaining that such events are a waste of tax-payers money and should be abolished. The question that one would want to ask is: why did participants boycott this event? The only possible explanation is that currently, the Tshwane Metro is under severe financial stress and the lavish hosting of gala events has annoyed residents to the point where the leadership has lost some credibility and in this instance, it is possible that participants did not want to associate themselves with a failing leadership hence they decided not to attend as the saying goes “*when days are dark, friends are few*” which may be correct in this case (author unknown).

4.7.2.4 Celebrations create a bond between the leader and the followers

A leader who barricades himself or herself in the office most of the time may not be able to throw a successful bash because like the one who lacks credibility, people will soon realise the bash is not a genuine event and even if they are ultimately forced to attend, their body language will reflect their displeasure. But if the leader is closer to his or her people, the bash will provide a wonderful platform for such a leader to interact with the followers in an informal way where everyone is not bound by the institutional formal structures (Paulus, 1989:133). Team building days are means to try and informalise the relationship but in most cases, they also suffer the credibility factor because leaders are seen to have double agendas; in the office, they perpetrate formal communication and during the teambuilding, they want to be seen as being ōpart of the crowdö and this end up producing dull moments during the teambuilding. How can one genuinely

participate in a teambuilding exercise with the same leader who has just rated one poorly on performance?

In essence, what is being argued here is that celebrations are excellent platforms where the leader and followers can bond together provided their formal interactions are also positive but if they are not, those celebrations will turn into dull moments where followers are forced to act as if they are happy whereas deep down their soles, they are revolting (Fujishin, 2007:151).

4.7.2.5 Celebrations act as vital indicators of successful implementation of objectives

Obviously, at the centre of celebrations lies the successful implementation of objectives, otherwise, there would be no point in throwing a lavish bash where objectives were not met. A passing stranger may ask: why are you having this party? The answer may be: we are celebrating our accomplishments as a successful university because we were able to produce more graduates than any other university with the same number of students, and that is why we are having a good time, please join us!

The psychology of celebrating even small wins is that they act as motivators where every member of the group feels that his or her contribution is valuable to the overall objective that is being pursued (Woyach, 1993:81-84). People should not be told way down the process how they have performed. Immediately something positive have been accomplished, celebrations must be conducted. That is why the current form of numerical evaluation (financial audits) using the accounting system is being criticised because it usually provides annual evaluation and in doing so, it may miss a lot of challenges and successes between the accounting periods, a year may be too long to evaluate activities that are taking place within an institution. For example, a certain top official was seconded to a certain bank whose CEO had been forced to quit. In less than three months, the seconded official managed to transfer about R100 million of funds that were earmarked for community development to dubious and bogus projects. By the time the story came out, the entire R100 million was gone and to this day, the investigations are still continuing to try and recover the funds if indeed they were misappropriated (Probe goes deeper as Land Bank slowly turns. 2009. The Star, 16 November:16). Kouzes and Posner (2002:362) support this argument by stating that "The world of business loves to talk in numbers: financial statements, income statements, balance sheets, stock tables, and bulleted overhead presentations. Numbers are so prevalent that we have come to accept them as real. But numbers aren't real. Numbers are

abstractions from reality; bullet points are summaries of history and projections. The story is the reality. What these authors are suggesting is that it is the story represented by the numbers that is important and that is what needs to be celebrated. For example, after making huge losses for many years, in 2009, the South African Airways (SAA) declared that the Airline made a profit but what is most important is the process that led to the realisation of that profit (SAA to post R1bn profit, says CEO. 2009. Daily News, 18 June:18). In other words, what did the people that work for SAA do *differently* that led to the success of the Airline? That is what must be celebrated and not the fact that profit was made as is normally the case with most institutions who are profit-driven and it becomes apparent that when a profit-driven institution makes a profit, it is deemed to be fulfilling its stated objective (Bratton *et al*, 2007:458). That is, profit maximisation. That is why Kouzes and Posner (2002:358) suggest that the processes that lead to a successful profit-generating situation should be celebrated because it points to the right direction in terms of the vision being implemented.

4.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model because it is central to the empirical investigation that will be carried out in chapter 7. The reader has been provided with reasons that led to the choice of this Model for this study. The Model was categorised into five dimensions known as: leaders model the way, leaders inspire a shared vision, leaders challenge the institutional processes, leaders enable others to act, and leaders encourage others to endure. Each element consists of behavioural statements that are designed to empower leaders in their quest to improve their leadership skills.

The Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model was identified as being based on the leadership behaviour approach where the conduct of the leader forms a centre-stage, that is, followers are deemed to behave in a particular way because of the behaviour of their leader towards them. At the centre of this Model is the premise that positive leadership behaviour leads to positive follower behaviour and this condition is expected to lead to a situation where employee morale becomes high and high employee morale is the required dose for employee superior performance or what is commonly known as high employee productivity.

The Model was discussed as follows:

4.8.1 Leaders model the way

Modelling the way is essentially about earning the right and respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:15). The purpose of this section was to provide a discussion on the role of the leader as a *trend-setter* so that followers can regard him or her as a role-model. The major objective of this section was to demonstrate the usefulness of leadership modelling in building leadership credibility. In other words, if leadership is to be regarded as a relationship, *leader credibility* should be the first law of the leadership commandments. The fundamental question to be asked here was the one that Goffee and Jones (2006) asked in their book with the same title and that is: *why should anyone be led by you?* The fundamental objective of asking this philosophical question was to explore the principle of *leadership authenticity* where the leader was provided with suggestions on how to harvest the culture of leadership authenticity. To act as a role-model, the leader must do and be seen to subscribe to the following behaviours: leaders find their voices by clarifying their personal values, and leaders set the example by aligning actions with shared values.

4.8.2 Leaders inspire a shared vision

After the leader has gained dexterity in *modelling the way*, the next step in the process of becoming a better leader is to *inspire a shared vision* which will act as a unifying force towards which followers would try and direct their efforts. In other words, the vision will act as a beacon that would provide direction towards which all activities within the institution should be focused. The purpose of this section was to provide a discussion on the role played by the leader in providing not only the vision for the group, but also, to ensure that the vision was shared by each and every member so that the end-result was the voluntary adoption of the vision by all members of the group (Yukl, 2006:295).

The creation of a vision was probably one of the most critical functions that are associated with leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:112). The ability to create the right vision for the institution is what separated successful leaders from losers. "All enterprises or projects, big or small, begin in the mind's eye; they begin with imagination and with the belief that what's merely an image can one day be made real" (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:111). This implies that a group that is led by a leader who has no visionary ability could be likened to a ship that was sailing in

the deep sea without a compass. The crew might not be in a position to ascertain whether they are sailing east, north, west or south. In other words, a group with a visionless leader might find itself running around in circles and not knowing which way they should focus their energy (Milner and Joyce, 2005:10).

The following issues were discussed under this section: leaders envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities, and leaders enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.

4.8.3 Leaders challenge the institutional processes

The creation of a new vision was discussed above as simply an act of searching for solutions that would enable an institution to solve today's challenges or problems. The ramifications of this statement are far more profound than it seems. Creating a new vision involves a process of "*doing things differently.*" By their very nature, new visions cannot be implemented by doing the same things that were done under the old visions, otherwise, if that happens, it means that there is no new vision at all, maybe it's a case of "*old wines packaged in new bottles*". To move from the current status quo to the new vision, some form of transformation must take place. Transformation is essentially the process that the leader uses in trying to redirect the group or followers' performance or effort towards the new vision. Kouzes and Posner (2002:176-177) put it in an interesting manner when they suggest that "thus the study of leadership is the study of how men and women guide us through adversity, uncertainty, hardship, disruption, transformation, transition, recovery, new beginnings, and other significant challenges." In other words, true leaders are those leaders who have the ability to excel during hard and trying times. These are the leaders who have the ability to thrive on chaos. When many leaders would be running away through the door, transformational leaders would be rushing in, ready to deal with the challenges of chaotic forces within institutions. The purpose of this section was to discuss the process taken by transformational leaders in their quest to alter the way things were done in institutions. The section began by discussing how leaders searched for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow and improve. Finally, it also discussed how leaders experimented and took risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes.

4.8.4 Leaders enable others to act

In chapter 1 leadership was defined for the purpose of this study as a *process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal* (Northouse, 2001:3). To influence others is nothing else but an act of *enabling*

others to perform whatever tasks are assigned to them so that the goal being pursued can be achieved. This is the foundation of the behavioural leadership approach. The implication contained in this approach is that the successes and failures of the group is usually the sole responsibility of the leader. It points to the ability and nature of the environment created by the leader in terms of how followers are enabled in respect of the tasks that must be performed for the purpose of achieving the goal being pursued. This is the stage where team building strategies are unleashed by the leader and the strengths of those team building strategies are tested for their effectiveness. The section provided two elements as follows: firstly, successful leaders foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust, and secondly, successful leaders strengthen others by sharing power and discretion.

4.8.5 Leaders encourage others to endure

There is an English saying that goes "when the going gets tough, the tough get going". This refers to a situation where the group may feel that the target to be reached was impossible to achieve and this might lead to the demoralisation of some members to the point where they may opt out of the project. Enduring through all trials and tribulations requires courage and strong will to succeed and this is where successful leaders become useful in the sense that they are able to radiate fresh energy by encouraging the group to endure the suffering until the goal has been accomplished. Successful leaders encourage their followers to endure by doing the following: recognizing contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence and by celebrating the values and victories through the creation of a spirit of community.

The following chapter will provide a discussion on the role of the Department of Agriculture as *locus* for the study so that the reader can have a better understanding of the environment within which the study was conducted.

CHAPTER 5

THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE AS LOCUS FOR THE STUDY

“Broadly speaking, leadership deals with the steps that a manager takes personally to get subordinates and others to carry out plans. It bridges the gap between managerial decisions and actual execution by other people” W.H. Newman, E.K. Warren and J.E Schnee.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Any research process will in most probability have two dimensions: the first dimension deals with the content or *focus* of the research, that is, the issues to be resolved by undertaking the research project are thoroughly discussed (Leedy, 1989:26-27). The second dimension refers to the environment within which the research endeavour is being undertaken and this is usually known as the *locus* of the research. The term *locus* is defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as *“the exact place of something”* (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. *locus*). The locus of the research undertaken answers the question (Leedy, 1989:45): where will the research be undertaken? In other words, focus gives direction to the research project whereas locus provides the environment (place) under which the research is being undertaken. These two dimensions of the research process have the ability to influence the choice of the instrument/s to be applied during data gathering. For example, an astronomer who is interested in the study of the nature of the solar system would need a telescope as means for data collection. A researcher in the field of Public Administration may find the use of a telescope completely inappropriate. Auriacombe (2001:20) states that *“...the context(s) in which the study is located is (are) included or implied in the statement of purpose-the focus includes a reference to the question of ‘where’ the study or ‘the sites’ of the study are likely to be.”* The point that is being made here is that it is the focus and the locus that may dictate the type of research instrument or a combination of instruments to be applied in the collection of the data that will subsequently be used as evidence towards the resolution of the problem that led to the undertaking of the research project.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a description of the *locus* of the study (Department of Agriculture) so that the reader would be able to comprehend the environment under which the entire research endeavour is going to be carried out so that when challenges and recommendations are provided in chapter 8, the reader should be able to understand the environment that has contributed to those

challenges. In other words, the nature of the *ōbeastō* is now being analysed so that issues raised in the *focus* dimension could be understood better, that is, the focus of the study needs to be put into context which is basically an attempt to provide the environment under which the research is being conducted.

In chapter 2, the broad framework of the leadership theory was presented where a number of leadership approaches were analysed and discussed. The purpose here was to present the *ōbig pictureō* regarding leadership theory. Chapter 3 provided a discussion on the morale theory which is the *ultimate product* of leadership. All leadership approaches are based on the assumption that the morale of the people being led could be raised by following a particular approach or a combination of approaches. Chapter 4 provided an insight into the Kouzes/Posner Leadership Behaviour Model which has been chosen as the theoretical framework from which the empirical data would be modelled. This then presented a narrow view of the leadership theory as it focuses mainly on the behaviour approach.

One is now able to deduce that this chapter is going to provide yet another narrowing of the leadership behaviour approach by paying specific attention to the Department of Agriculture which can be regarded as a microcosm of national public institutions in South Africa. By focusing on the Department of Agriculture, one assumes that the issues raised would be expected to permeate the entire national public institutions. In other words, it is expected that if one conducts the study within the other national public institutions, one will arrive at similar conclusions (birds of the same feather flock together). The journey from the broader theory of leadership to the specific institution such as the Department of Agriculture can be represented graphically as follows:

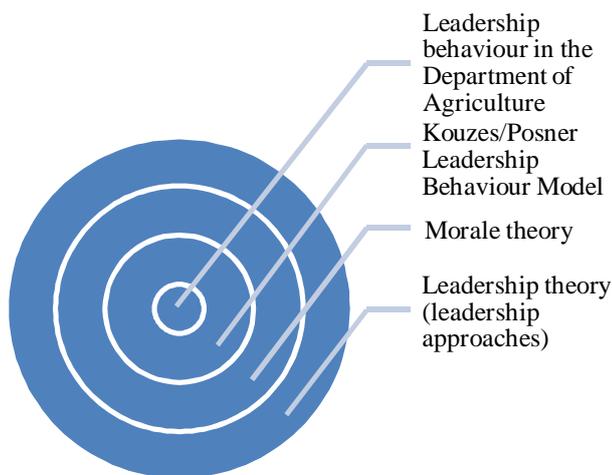


Figure 5.1: Deductive to inductive leadership analysis model (Adapted from Leedy, 1989:79-82)

The rest of the chapter will provide a discussion on the following issues: vision of the Department of Agriculture, mission of the Department of Agriculture, values of the Department of Agriculture, organisation of the Department of Agriculture, role of directorates in the implementation of agricultural policies and programmes and finally, a summary of the points provided shall be given.

5.2 VISION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

In chapter 4 (see section 4.4), a vision was defined as a process where the leader provides future solutions for current problems (Yukl, 2006:295). Yukl goes on to make an assertion that "before people will support radical change, they need to have a vision of a better future that is attractive enough to justify the sacrifices and hardships the change will require". In other words, the perceived benefits that will flow from the new status quo should be greater than the sacrifices to be made, otherwise, the vision may run the risk of not being inspiring to followers. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary í 1995, s.v. "vision") defines a vision as "... the ability to think about or plan the future with great imagination or wisdom". In other words, in order to be able to solve current problems, the leader needs to come up with a well-thought after plan that may be implemented in the future. This is probably true if one considers the fact that if mankind had all the solutions for current problems, people would simply apply those solutions and there would be no problems at all.

Since the dawn of the democratic order in South Africa that was brought about by the April 1994 general elections, public institutions began to experience rapid changes that were necessitated by the desire to extend services to the previously excluded groups. Under the old order, national public institutions were designed to cater predominantly for the white sector of the population which amounted to about four million people. But after the democratisation of the country, these institutions suddenly found themselves having to provide essential services to over forty million inhabitants. The situation was further exacerbated by the high number of foreign nationals that began to flock into the country.

Although the democratic changes were beneficial for the rest of the previously disadvantaged groups, they also brought about serious unintended consequences in the sense that the vision of every institution kept on changing before significant impact could be realised. For example, since 1994 to the current (2010), the Department of Agriculture has been headed by five ministers and four directors-general. Each minister and each director-general had tremendous influence on the vision of the Department to such an extent that some ministers began sabotaging

the efforts of the previous ones by completely ignoring or changing what was being implemented at the time (Mather in Lemon and Rogerson, 2002:27; De Villiers and Van den Berg, 2006:1). This meant that every time a new minister took over, a new vision had to be introduced which by definition, required changes in the status quo and this phenomenon leads to policy instability which is not a good sign for effective service delivery.

This situation has been exacerbated by the changes in the Presidency where former President Thabo Mbeki was replaced by the current president, Jacob Zuma who in his 2009 Inaugural Speech announced that some departments would be split and that some units would be merged with other units from different departments. The Department of Agriculture became the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) which meant that the vision of the old Department of Agriculture had to change so as to accommodate the forestry and fisheries units. A new strategic plan document was produced immediately after the merger and it is called "Agriculture Strategic Plan for the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries 2009/10". The foreword by the new Minister, the Honourable Tina Joemat-Pettersson (DAFF, 2009:2) provides a direction to the new vision by stating the following: "High on our agenda in the next 5 years will be a focus on speeding up growth, social and economic infrastructure development, rural development linked to land reform as well as skills and the human resource base. The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) will implement its integrated agricultural, forestry and fisheries service delivery programme roll-out in collaboration with the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform as well as provincial governments."

Despite all the challenges lamented on above, the Department of Agriculture's role remains constant, that is, the Department is entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring that the agricultural sector contributes significantly to the general economy by supporting farmers to produce food and fibre which is then traded on the domestic as well as the international markets. In its basic form, the vision of the Department is pronounced as: "It is our vision to strive for a united and prosperous agricultural sector" (DAFF, 2009:23). In other words, the role of the Department is to ensure that farmers are united and also to provide an environment where all farmers can have economic prosperity thereby contribute to the economic development of South Africa. This vision is also supported by section 27(1)(b) and (2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa that proclaims that the Department of Agriculture should "...take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of the right (of everyone) to have access to sufficient food".

The vision of the Department of Agriculture provides an indication regarding the status of agriculture in South Africa. By implication, "striving for a united and prosperous sector" points to a condition of disunity and unsustainability. In other words, the farming sector in South Africa moves from a position of disunity and inequality where farmers are categorised as being commercial and or subsistence. Prior to 1994 where the country was balkanised into the so called self-governing and independent states who happened to have their own departments of agriculture that were basically designed to provide support to thousands of subsistence farmers, the Department of Agriculture catered mainly for commercial farming and this meant that only commercial agriculture could gain access to support and this practice resulted in the current state of duality in the sector where farming activities are usually classified as being commercial and or subsistence. After 1994, the Department of Agriculture found itself in a position where it had to provide support to both commercial and subsistence agriculture and this is probably the main reason why the vision talks about a "united and prosperous agricultural sector" (Myeni, 1997:1).

This vision carries a lot of controversies in the sense that whilst trying to cater for everybody, the Department of Agriculture has tended to oscillate between the provision of *agricultural* support and *social* support which has essentially made it difficult to provide effective service to the sector. For example, thousands of rands have been spent procuring farms under the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) Programme, but there is very little success to justify the resources spent on this Programme and part of the challenge is that land is provided to beneficiaries for "social sentiments" and not for serious agricultural activities (Mather in Lemon and Rogerson, 2002:28-29; de Villiers, 2008:14-16). One wonders if the strategy of inclusiveness will ever pay dividends for the Department of Agriculture so that it should be afforded the opportunity to support productive agricultural activities that would in turn contribute significantly to the production of food and fibre for South Africa (Du Toit, 2002:79; Carnegie, Cooper and Urquhart, 2002:61-62).

5.3 MISSION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

The mission of an institution is defined by Minnaar and Becker (2005:121) as "... the holistic expression of what the organisation wishes to achieve and it provides the framework within which organisational strategies should be developed." This argument is further supported by Stoner (1982:100) where he states that "... the unique aim that sets the organization apart from others of its type". The mission of any institution provides the reason for its creation, that is, it answers the question

of why a particular institution was established in the first place. For example, the public sector consists of many institutions that are created for specific objectives. The activities that are provided by an institution will normally be derived from the mission of that institution. For instance, since the activities of the Department of Agriculture are geared towards agricultural production, one may reasonably assume that the mission of the Department of Agriculture is to provide support to the agricultural sector. In other words, as a public institution, the Department of Agriculture was *created to support* the agricultural sector. It is equally important to note that the *mission* of an institution is normally set within its *vision* so that whatever it sets out to do according to its mission must be guided by its vision. In other words, there must be *congruency* between the vision and the mission of the institution so that institutional resources can be employed effectively and this point was argued in chapter 1 (see section 1.2), where the issue of effective utilisation of resources was defined as the *ability to do the right things* and by deduction, this refers to the successful accomplishment of the stated vision.

In pursuance of the vision as stated above, the Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:23) declares that its mission is to 'lead and support sustainable agriculture and promote rural development'. The mission has further been categorised into a number of elements which are called key result areas (KRAs) and these key result areas are also further categorised into what is called 'strategic objectives' which are basically the activities that are listed under each key result area. The mission is presented with its key result areas and its strategic objectives as follows:

5.3.1 Ensure availability and access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food

In this key result area, the Department of Agriculture is trying to assure the country that food and fibre shall be made available to every person as it is required by the Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996: 27(1b) and (2)). The availability of food is a highly debatable issue. Food may be freely available but if the people who need it are unable to afford it, its availability will serve little purpose. Availability must be accompanied by *affordability* which means that the majority of the people must be able to afford the food being produced by farmers. South Africa faces a serious unemployment rate (DAFF, 2009:10) which has resulted in a number of inhabitants being unable to purchase their daily food requirements even though the country may have enough supply and this is where the issue of affordability or access to food becomes a serious challenge. It was argued in section 5.2 in the beginning of this chapter that the Department of Agriculture is trying to provide support to all who claim to be in the business of farming even where the output is below subsistence level and this was regarded as

rendering support for *social farming* which is usually regarded as not being market-driven. The challenge with social farming is that it gobbles a lot of financial resources that would have been directed to *commercially-driven farming*. In pursuant of this key result area, the Department of Agriculture promises to provide the following activities (DAFF, 2009:23):

- Promote production, handling, processing and consumption of nutritious foods.
- Promote and support household income generation and food production.
- Provide leadership in the implementation of the Integrated Food Security and Nutrition Programme (IFSNP).

5.3.2 Eliminate skewed participation and inequality in the sector

It was also pointed out that the South African agricultural landscape is characterised by the existence of two different farming systems: the commercial agriculture and the subsistence agriculture. The existence of these two systems was brought about by the previous political regime which subjected black farmers to subsistence conditions and then directed most of its agricultural support to commercial farming which was essentially an attempt at empowering white farmers to the exclusion of black farmers (Myeni, 1997:24). This was achieved through the creation of policy instruments such as the Landbank Act, 1912 (Act 18 of 1912), the Agricultural Marketing Act, 1937 (Act 26 of 1937), the Land Act, 1913 (Act 27 of 1913), and the Agricultural Cooperatives Act, 1939 (Act 29 of 1939). All these policy instruments were designed in such a manner that only white farmers could be supported and that is where the skewed participation got created which eventually resulted in black farmers being reduced to subsistence farming. Subsistence farmers are farmers who practise agriculture purely for own consumption (no tradable output) whereas commercial farmers are profit-driven, that is, they practise agriculture for the purpose of delivering the produce to the market so that income can be earned (Myeni, 1997:4).

In trying to redress the farming situation, the Department of Agriculture began targeting its support to the so-called previously disadvantaged farmers so that they can also be afforded the opportunity to play a meaningful role in the production of food and fibre for the country. The intention is desirable but what the writer is trying to point out is that the Department of Agriculture has assumed the role of a social resource provider which is different from supporting farmers in a progressive manner that will guide them through the journey until they reach the destination of being labelled commercial farmers (Centre for Development and

Enterprise, 2005:28-29). The purpose of this key result area is to provide necessary support that should assist those previously disadvantaged farmers to embark on the journey of commercial farming.

In pursuance to this key result area, the Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:23) pledges support by providing the following services which are directed at levelling the playing field:

- Increase access to existing resources and opportunities within the agricultural sector for historically disadvantaged groups and individuals.
- Ensure increased black economic empowerment.
- Ensure equitable access and sustained participation in the sector.
- Improve social and working conditions in the sector.

5.3.3 Increase growth, income and remunerative job opportunities in agriculture

In this key result area, the Department of Agriculture is trying to provide support that will result in the increase of economic contribution of the agricultural sector to the overall economy. According to the South African Reserve Bank in Du Toit (2002:22), the South African economy is categorised into three sectors: primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. These sectors are further classified into subsectors or elements as follows:

- Primary sector

The primary sector consists of two subsectors which are:

- Agriculture
- Mining

- Secondary sector

The secondary sector is made up of three subsectors and these are:

- Manufacturing
- Electricity
- Construction

- Tertiary sector

The tertiary sector is composed of six subsectors which are:

- Trade
- Transport
- Finance
- Community services
- General government
- Other

It is the sum-total of these sectors that indicate the total internal economic activity of the country and this is usually known as the gross domestic product (GDP) and it is a critical indicator of how well the country is doing economically in terms of economic growth. The GDP is usually calculated every year where the economic growth results are indicated in terms of percentages such as 2% economic growth or 5% economic growth which basically compares the previous economic activities to the current year being studied. Du Toit (2002:22) makes interesting comments when he states that the main objective of economic policies is to improve the standard of living of the population in per capita terms in the long run by means of ensuring that the country achieves economic growth and development. Du Toit (2002:22) goes on to argue that ð... against the background of a growing population, the significant deterioration in the country's (South Africa) growth performance since the 1960s has made achieving this goal increasingly difficult over the years up to 1994.ö Du Toit supports his views by providing statistics that indicate how the average annual real GDP growth has been since the 1960s. He claims that in the 1960s, the GDP was around 5.9%, and from the beginning of the 1970s, it decreased to around 3.1%, and further deteriorated in the 1980s to 1.6% and by early 1990s, it stood at negative -0.1%. It began to show signs of increment in the 1990s as it stood at 2.6% and during 2000-01, it showed an average of 2.8 per year and currently it is around 4.6%.

Du Toit (2002:22) is confirming the argument that was presented in chapter 1 (see section 1.3) that agriculture's contribution as a subsector of the economy to the GDP has been declining and according to Du Toit, the percentage total change since 1960 has been the following:

1960-69	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-01
10.1%	7.3%	5.5%	4.1%	3.1%

Table 5.1: Agriculture's contribution to the GDP (Source: Du Toit 2002:11)

Currently, this situation is also confirmed by Liebenberg F. And Pardey P (www.matric.iastate.edu/shifting_patterns/pdfs/chapter13/pdf) where they claim that the agricultural gross domestic product (GDP) has been shrinking by 1.1% from 1981 up to 2006 whereas the overall (total) gross domestic product (GDP) of all sectors of the economy was increasing by about 2.62% on a yearly basis. These writers, though they differ in terms of actual percentages, also confirm the assertion made by Du Toit (2002:22) that agriculture's contribution to the GDP in 1961, was highest as it stood at around 12.3% (according to them) but from 2005 to current, it has been oscillating between 2.4% and 2.8%. The argument is also supported by the Centre for Development Enterprise (2005:10) where it is also mentioned that South Africa's agricultural production has declined over the years from 23% GDP in 1920 to 3.4% GDP in 2002.

The discussion of the factors that led to the decline of the agricultural sector is outside the scope of this thesis. What is critical to note though is that in chapter 1 (see section 1.3), an argument was presented that claimed that leadership could be one of those factors that may have contributed to the decline and that is why this study was undertaken to try and highlight the role of leadership in bringing about the culture of effectiveness in the performance of the Department of Agriculture so that support to the agricultural sector can be provided effectively. One must bear in mind that if an economic sector like agriculture sustains years of decline, income generating opportunity becomes less and less and also, this may lead to massive job losses in the sector which in turn exerts pressure on the GDP.

In pursuant to that objective, the Department of Agriculture through this key result area seeks to support the sector by providing the following strategic objectives (DAFF, 2009:23):

- Increase agricultural productivity, competitiveness and profitability in South Africa, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the rest of the African Continent.
- Increase market access for South Africa and African agricultural products, domestically and internationally.
- Increase remunerative opportunities in the agricultural value chain
- Increase the level of public and private investment for agricultural development.

5.3.4 Enhance the sustainable management and efficient use of natural agricultural resources and production inputs

The aim of this key result area is to support the sector in terms of environmental issues that are pertinent to agriculture. Land degradation through farming usually occurs in two fronts: firstly, land degradation takes place when crop farmers adopt unsustainable farming practices such as heavy use of chemicals, and wrong methods of tilling especially in sensitive areas. Secondly, land degradation through farming occurs when livestock farmers are allowed to engage in overgrazing where large numbers of animals are forced to graze within a small area (carrying capacity) more in particular in the former Bantustan territories where this problem has reached a point of critical proportion. These territories were formally used as areas where black people could be dumped away from the lands that were earmarked for colonial expansion (Blaikie and Brookfield, 1987:106-07).

Land degradation is not confined to subsistence farming only even the commercial agricultural sector through heavy use of chemicals and fertilizers and monocropping is also inflicting serious damage to the soil (Rolling and Wagemakers, 1998:102-03; Blaikie and Brookfield, 1987:110-11). Rosenberg (www.botany.uwc.ac.za/inforeep/land1.htm) defines the whole concept of land degradation through agriculture succinctly by stating that "experts seem to disagree on how to define land degradation and associated processes such as desertification, but as an issue it is not difficult to understand. Land degradation occurs when the economic and biological productivity of land is lost, primarily through human activities. This can happen, for example, when the following activities take place:

- Fertile soils erode away;
- Indigenous trees are removed;
- Alien plants invade an area;
- Farm land is used for housing;
- Soils become salty through poor irrigation; and where
- Soils are degraded by acid pollution and heavy metal contamination.

This argument is also supported by Blaikie (1985:1) where he claims that there are too many views on the subject of soil erosion because of the fact that commentators approach the problem from different perspectives such as ideologically, politically, and methodologically.

The effect of land degradation is the loss of productive land which in turn affects farming and rural communities bearing in mind those rural communities derive

their livelihood on agricultural activities. This problem is further exacerbated by the fact that only 13% of South Africa's surface area is suitable for crop production (Centre for Development Enterprise, 2005:10). As the land degrades, more fertilizers, machinery and supplementary feeds are needed and that invariably raises the cost of production for farmers. Small-scale, subsistence farmers are often unable to meet extra input costs and also, even large-scale, commercial farmers can find that eventually, farming becomes impossible. As a result, farm workers and others may be forced to migrate to towns and cities, only to face unemployment and poverty. So it is apparent that land degradation does not only affect the rural areas but it also affects the urban areas, through spreading informal settlements and rising food prices. As a result of land degradation, water also becomes more expensive as soil erosion makes rivers muddy and causes dams to fill up with silt, adding to the costs of water purification and storage (Rosenberg, www.botany.uwc.ac.za/inforeep/land1.htm).

South Africa has two serious agricultural challenges: firstly, the country is facing a serious water shortage as argued by Rosenberg above and secondly, although the total surface area of South Africa is about 1 221 037 km² arable land is too small to meet agricultural demand (about 13%) and this calls for even more measures for sustainable utilisation of agricultural resources (Du Toit, 2002:1; Centre for Development Enterprise, 2005:10). To ensure that farming in South Africa takes place under conditions of sustainability, the Department of Agriculture has identified the following strategic objectives as being critical for environmental protection in the sector (DAFF, 2009:23):

- Ensure the management of agricultural indigenous genetic resources, land and water.
- Promote effective production systems, including the use of energy, labour and mechanisation.
- Promote efficient use of production factors.

5.3.5 Ensure efficient and effective governance and partnerships

This key result area is concerned with the internal administrative and leadership capabilities of the Department of Agriculture. This is where issues of management and leadership are addressed so that effective service delivery can be achieved through the prudent utilisation of institutional resources including human resources. In pursuant of this key result area, the Department of Agriculture seeks to perform the following strategic objectives (DAFF, 2009:23):

- Achieve departmental service excellence and implement Batho Pele principles.
- Manage risk effectively.
- Provide leadership and cooperative governance in the agricultural sector.
- Implement quality standards in the Department to ensure effective organisational performance and cooperative governance.
- Promote and protect South African agricultural interests internationally.
- Align policy and legislation with the principles of sustainable development.

5.3.6 Ensure knowledge and information management

The Department of Agriculture does not operate in a vacuum. It is affected by activities that are generated internally as well as externally. Knowledge and information management are part of the internal resources of the Department of Agriculture. Knowledge management refers to the acquisition and dissemination of technical information that is pertinent to the agricultural sector such as research, training and extension (DAFF, 2009:24). The majority of farmers in the former homelands are old and semiliterate which means that training and capacity building becomes critical to ensure that emerging farmers are integrated in the mainstream agricultural economy. Information management on the other hand refers to the gathering and dissemination of pertinent information both to internal and external stakeholders (Clapper, 2000:255). In pursuant of this key result area, the following strategic objectives are identified as being critical in the handling of knowledge and information in the sector (DAFF, 2009:24).

- Provide leadership and manage communication and information management effectively.
- Provide leadership and support to agricultural research, training and extension in the sector.
- Improve knowledge management in the Department.
- Ensure consumer confidence in agricultural products and services.

5.3.7 Ensure national bio-security and effective risk management

The purpose of this key result area is to ensure that the production of food is done under conditions of food safety so that consumers can be protected from diseases associated with agricultural products. For example, the excessive use of dangerous chemicals can affect the quality of horticultural products such as vegetables and crops. Within the livestock sector, there are a number of diseases that can affect the

quality of the meat produced such as foot and mouth disease, and swine fever which can be transmitted to humans as well. For domestic animals such as dogs, the most common disease is rabies which may originate from wild animals that end up transmitting it to dogs.

Agriculture is prone to a number of man-made and natural risks and disasters that may have serious repercussions for the sector. These include among others the following: pests such as a large flock of particular birds and locusts, veld fires, draughts and floods, snows and evasive plant and animal species. Such adversities can seriously affect the food production of the affected country. For example, South Africa is a leader in the production of ostrich products and some few years ago, there was a serious disease that affected the ostrich sector in such a huge scale that resulted in importing countries refusing to accept ostrich products particularly meat and that brought the entire industry into serious economic woes.

Climate change is another risk that is associated with agriculture. Global warming is regarded as one of the prime challenges facing humanity today and the dissemination of information to farmers regarding climatic conditions is becoming critical to ensure that farmers minimise their losses. In pursuance of this key result area, the Department of Agriculture seeks to support the sector by performing the following strategic objectives (DAFF, 2009:24):

- Establish and maintain effective early warning and mitigation systems in agriculture.
- Manage the levels of risks associated with food, diseases, pests, natural disasters and trade.
- Promote safe and nutritious food.
- Ensure consumer confidence in agricultural products and services.

The discussion that was presented in this section sought to provide an analysis of the mission of the Department of Agriculture. At this point, the reader may be asking himself or herself as to how should this mission be implemented within the Department? The implementation of the Mission is cascaded *down to functional units* called directorates which will play a central role in terms of empirical data gathering for this study. But before zooming into functional units, it is imperative that two more sections be discussed first and the obvious reason for that is to provide a complete picture of the nature of the beast by dissecting its component parts. These sections are: values of the Department of Agriculture and the organisation of the Department of Agriculture.

5.4 VALUES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Values are defined by Giddens (1989:733) as "ideas held by human individuals or groups about what is desirable, proper, good or bad." Callahan (2007:111-12) extends the definition by stating that "... values have become central to one's life; the person of character is willing to publicly defend and act on these values. That is, the person of integrity takes responsibility for his or her own judgements and choices." In other words, values provide more general guidelines in defining what is socially perceived to be good and desirable. They define what is regarded as important, worthwhile and worth striving for (Haralambos, 1985:6; Terry, 2003:107; Shah, 2007:47-48). From the definitions provided above, it is apparent that every institution must be driven by certain guidelines that are socially perceived to be good and desirable and these good and desirable guidelines must be linked to the mission of that institution so that the existence of that institution and its operation or conduct should ultimately be perceived by society as being good and desirable.

There are two more concepts that are closely related to values, they are: norms and culture. Institutional norms are specific guidelines that direct the conduct of institutional members to act or behave in a particular way. They are specific guides to action which defines acceptable and appropriate behaviour in various particular situations (Haralambos, 1985:5-6; Van Wart and Dicke, 2008:85-88). In institutions, norms are packaged as rules and regulations governing how institutional members should behave in specific situations. For example, the Department of Agriculture has a policy on how its members should be dressed during official working hours.

Institutional culture is the way in which members of that institution do things within that institution. It is the collection of ideas and habits that have been learned, shared and transmitted from generation to generation (Stoner, 1982:393; Kelman, 2005:24). Cultural indoctrination is a process where institutional members are constantly bombarded with cultural messages that result in the internalisation of those messages. A group is able to function coherently by subscribing to the same culture which implies that it may be difficult to direct the effort of institutional members where their cultural belief systems differ. Stoner (1982:393; Callahan, 2007:111-12) goes on to provide a vital link among these three concepts (culture, values and norms) by proclaiming that *culture* refers to prevalent patterns of activities, interactions, norms, values, attitudes, and feelings which institutional members have and it also includes the formal aspects of institutional life as well as

the informal (covert attitudes that institutional members possess). The relationship among these concepts may be graphically depicted in the following manner:

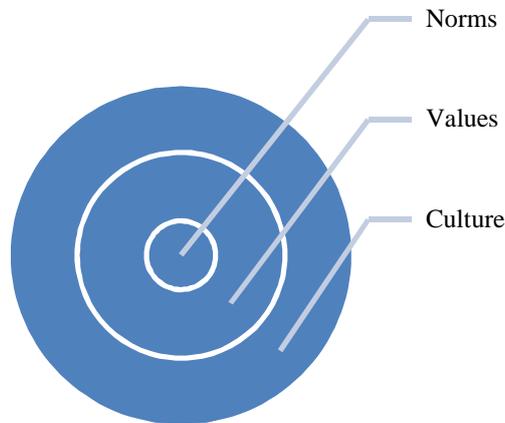


Figure 5.2: Culture, values and norms (Adapted from Stoner, 1982:393)

According to figure 5.2 above, at the centre, lie the institutional norms that, when taken as a collective, they provide the values of that institution. A collection of values depicted in the middle of the figure provide the culture of the institution. In other words, culture is a *sum total* of all the values and norms of an institution.

Another important point to take into consideration when discussing institutional values is the relationship between the mission of the institution and its values. The underlying philosophy that pins the institutional mission to institutional values is the notion that suggests that the mission of the institution can be effectively realised only if members of that institutions share the same or believe in the same values. Internal squabbles are caused by institutional members who do not share the same values and as a result, different values become the order of the day. That is why it is imperative that the values of an institution be internalised by all members so that all institutional members can be *harnessed to the same wagon* and that is the reason why the articulation of the mission and values is so critical for the mobilisation of members of the institution towards the realisation of the vision of the institution (Newman *et al.* 1982:8-9; Cole and Parston, 2006:68-69).

Having provided a brief discussion and explanation of the three related concepts (culture, values and norms), the discussion is now going to focus on the values of the Department of Agriculture which are provided below:

5.4.1 *Bambanani* (hold one another)

Bambanani is a Nguni term that denotes a philosophy of cooperation among group members. The term comes from the word *bamba* which means *hold* and this means that if a group or a community wants to prosper or succeed in whatever is being acted upon, they need to *hold* one another so that the effort of each member contributes to the overall objective of the group or society. The Department of Agriculture (2009:24) defines the value of *Bambanani* in the mobilisation of institutional members towards the realisation of objectives as “... we believe that the sum of our collective efforts will and should be greater than the total of our individual efforts.” In other words, whilst acknowledging that individual contribution is critical, the Department is usually judged upon the output of all its members. This argument is in fact valid when one considers that if one individual member does something good or bad, it is the whole Department that gets the accolade or the vilification.

Bambanani is not only about the mobilisation of institutional members but it is also about *love, caring* and *respect* for one another. This implies that whilst institutional members work together towards the realisation of objectives, they should do that in the spirit of *helpmekaar* (one-for-all and all-for-one) and with the understanding that *charity begins at home* which means that before service delivery is provided to clients of the Department of Agriculture, members or employees must be treated in the spirit of *bambanani* first. In other words, the value of *bambanani* is that it should inculcate in institutional members the *spirit of cooperation* which is the foundation for democratic leadership. Unless members of the institution foster the spirit of cooperation, pulling towards the same direction may be difficult and that may lead to disunity among group members.

Bambanani is equally useful in fostering a spirit of community among members and that should culminate in a *shared vision* as suggested by Kouzes and Posner (2002:112; Van Wart, 2008:239). By and large, a shared vision should invariably affect members positively and that should result in better handling of conflicts and should significantly raise *morale* among institutional members and high morale as it was discussed in chapter 3, should lead to *effective service delivery* to clients.

5.4.2 Drive

Drive is “the *desire* and *determination* to get things done or to achieve something” (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary 1995, s.v. “drive”). The propensity to do something is usually derived from the *passion* that a group has towards the

achievement of the objectives being pursued. Passion is the burning desire that propels members to want to accomplish their goal. For example, a gang of thugs may stage a daring bank robbery because of their desire to gain access to the money that the bank is holding. Those thugs are then said to be driven by a strong desire to loot the bank as they consider the risk of being killed or arrested very low compared to their desire to gain access to the bank's cash using any means necessary.

The question that may be pertinent for this study is: what is the *nature* and *source* of the drive that propels members of the Department of Agriculture to want to achieve the objectives that they have set themselves to accomplish? Rainey and Van Wart (1997:196-7; Van Wart, 2005:210) offer a possible answer to this question where they make a claim that people will begin to perform optimally based on the nature of the motivation factors prevailing in that particular institution. The subject of motivation was adequately discussed in chapter 3 where the writer proclaimed that motivation is part of morale. Morale was defined in chapter 3 (see section 3.2) as "all psychological factors or forces that influence the performance of a group" (Lawrence (1966:9). This definition implies that there has to be certain forces that cause members of an institution to be anointed with the spirit or passion to achieve their objectives (Rainey and van Wart, 1997:204-06; Van Wart, 2005:210). In short, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors must be applied so that the morale of members can be elevated as this will then act as a driver for effective human performance. The Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:24) defines their drive to succeed as being "we are purposeful and energised in all that we do." But this statement seems to lack substance as it does not explain the forces behind their being *purposeful and energised*. However, one may assume that this value is based on morale boosting culture that is based on good employee motivation strategies where all psychological factors affecting all employees are taken seriously.

5.4.3 Excellence

Excellence refers to the quality of the service rendered (Rainey and van Wart, 1997:360; Jreisat, 1992:155; Rosen 1993:6-7). Public institutions are largely funded by tax-payers' money and as such, their contribution to societal development becomes a national issue. This issue was argued in chapter 1 (see section 1.2) where it was mentioned that public institutions should be driven by the principles of *effective* and *efficient* service delivery. Holzer and Callahan (1998:43) suggest that service excellence is not an individual effort but a team effort whereby all functional units of the institution need to be *harnessed to the same wagon* so

that ultimately, each unit plays its part in a manner that contributes positively to the realisation of the overall objective. Holzer and Callahan seem to suggest that service excellence is an institutional issue where all functional units should participate. These writers provide an example using a hospital environment where they claim that the success of the hospital is a function of medical personnel (doctors, nurses, technicians), reception staff, maintenance personnel, billing personnel, food staff, cleaning staff as well as volunteers or interns. The main point that Holzer and Callahan are making is that the quality of the health care provided by a hospital will depend on the effective functioning of all the functional units of that hospital.

To the Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:24), service excellence means that "we are committed to exceeding our customers' expectations for quality, responsiveness and professional excellence." In short, the Department is making a commitment that they will provide services that go beyond what is expected in terms of quality and that they will also provide value for money by delivering services promptly.

5.4.4 Innovation

Every institution whether it be private or public must undergo a state of gradual transformation for the purpose of being relevant to the changing needs of its clients. Innovation refers both to the technological improvement of products as well as the ability to change or improve the systems and processes that are prevailing within an institution (Rosen, 1993:174; Veenswijk, 2005:204-06). For example, at the beginning of this chapter (see section 5.2), it was pointed out that one of the most challenges facing public institutions in South Africa since the 1994 democratisation process, is the fact that the goals to be achieved are changing rapidly and this rapid change exerts enormous stress on the systems and processes of these institutions to the point where they enter a state of positive entropy (disorder), that is, they become self-destructive (Williams, 1980:121; Rosen, 1993:174-75; Rainey and van Wart, 1997:317; Morse and Buss, 2008:335-36).

On the other hand, innovation is a condition where changes both in products and systems and processes are consciously managed so that they do not enter the state of disorganisation. To the Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:24), the culture of innovation is presented as "we motivate and reward creativity, innovation and new knowledge generation that support outstanding performance." In other words, the Department is making a commitment that they do not only encourage innovation but also reward those who are highly innovative in their work. The

Department also provides a link between innovation and knowledge. This link is vital as it implies that innovation is a function of knowledge (technical capability).

5.4.5 Integrity

Integrity is defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. 'integrity') as '... the quality of being honest and having strong moral principles.' Ethical behaviour is concerned with the intent, means and consequences of moral behaviour. Integrity requires that members of an institution should uphold high moral judgement so that they should be able to differentiate between right and wrong conduct (Cameron and Stone, 1995:74; Milner and Joyce, 2005:24-33). This argument is also supported by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 where it is written in section 195.1(a) that '... public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following principle: *a high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained*'. To the Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:24), the ethical directive states that '... we maintain the highest standards of ethical behaviour, honesty and professional integrity', agrees with the argument that was presented above that since public institutions are largely funded by tax-payers' money, they should be managed in such a way that the public derives value for the money that has been allocated to those institutions. This means that bad conduct such as corruption and maladministration should be discouraged at all cost (Cameron and Stone, 1995:76; Ghezae, 2009:21-26). In short, integrity requires that members of the Department of Agriculture should conduct themselves in a manner that is ethically correct and should desist from unethical conducts that may bring harm not only to the Department but also to the public at large. Cameron and Stone (1995:77-78; Milner and Joyce, 2005:24-33) provide a list of behaviours that may be viewed as being tantamount to corruption and maladministration. These behaviours are:

- Bribery, graft, patronage, nepotism, influence peddling.
- Conflict of interest, including such activities as making financial transactions to gain personal advantage, and accepting outside employment during the tenure of government.
- Misuse of inside knowledge; for example, through acceptance of a business appointment after retirement or resignation.
- Favouring relatives and friends in awarding contracts or arranging loans and subsidies.
- Accepting improper gifts and entertainment.

- Protecting incompetence.
- Regulating trade practices or lowering standards in such a manner as to give advantage to oneself or to friends, relatives.
- The use and abuse of official and confidential information for private purpose.

5.4.6 *Maak 'n plan* (make a plan)

Maak 'n plan is an Afrikaans phrase that requires that even where a situation seems hopeless, one should always find a way of overcoming it (have a will to go on). The philosophical undertone of *maak 'n plan* is that one should not give up no matter how challenging the situation is. This philosophy is predominant in the farming community where it is normally stated that “...’n boer maak ‘n plan” (a farmer will always come up with a solution to any problem) The Department of Agriculture (DAFF, 2009:24) proclaims under *maak n plan* that “... we always will find a way to make it happen.” This may be understood to mean that officials of the Department will always go out of their way to try and provide services even where there are formidable challenges along the way.



Figure 5.3: Leadership values of the Department of Agriculture (Source: Department of Agriculture, 2009:24)

It was argued above that a collection of *values* culminate in the *culture* of that institution and since culture is normally created by the leadership, it is equally true that values are also defined by the prevailing leadership culture found in an institution at a particular point. Moving from this premise, it is possible for one to develop a model that integrates institutional values and the leadership culture of the institution. In other words, the Department has made a commitment that their philosophy of leadership shall be based on the values that have been discussed

above. The model presented above as figure 5.3 is then constructed to depict such relationship for the Department of Agriculture.

5.5 ORGANISATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

The Department of Agriculture, just like any other institution, is organised in a manner that follows the traditional way of categorising or grouping similar functions so that it becomes possible to deploy resources for the purpose of attaining the stated objectives. Organisation is defined by Smit and Cronje (1992:176) as a process that "… entails grouping together activities necessary to attain common objectives, as well as allocating each group of activities to a person with the necessary authority to supervise those responsible for performing the activities. Organising is therefore basically a process of specializing, departmentalizing, delegating, decentralising and coordinating and together with span of control, these processes are regarded as the basic principles of organising." This implies that before any institution can implement its objectives, it has to undergo an organising process that will indicate how all institutional resources including human resources are going to be marshalled for the sole purpose of implementing or realising those stated objectives, that is, the process of organising provides a framework for institutional activities so that the strategy of the institution can be implemented (Van Wart and Dicke, 2008:60-61). For example, the stated objectives of the Department of Agriculture were discussed earlier in this chapter as consisting of the following strategies:

- Ensure availability and access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food.
- Eliminate skewed participation and inequality in the sector.
- Increase growth, income and remunerative job opportunities in agriculture.
- Enhance the sustainable management and efficient use of natural agricultural resources and production inputs.
- Ensure efficient and effective governance and partnerships.
- Ensure knowledge and information management, and
- Ensure national bio-security and effective risk management.

The definition as provided by Smit and Cronje seems to suggest that after having identified these broad objectives, the Department of Agriculture needed to embark on the *organising* exercise for the purpose of operationalising or implementing these broad objectives. Before one could provide specific discussion of the structural organisation of the Department of Agriculture, one more concept of

organising needs further elucidation and this is known as the *principles* of organising.

The definition of organisation provided above indicates that the main purpose of organising is the *marshalling of all institutional resources for the purpose of implementing the strategy of that institution*. Another important point to bear in mind here is that as a result of the organising process, the institution would have *derived certain advantages* that are fundamentally akin to organising. These advantages are: the clarification of responsibilities, the apportioning of accountability, clearly defined channels of communication, harnessing or synergisation of functions to be performed, and meaningful deployment of personnel (Smit and Cronje, 1992:179).

The organising process follows a particular methodology that is fundamental to the whole process of organising. This methodology has to contain the following elements: specialisation, departmentalisation, span of control, line and staff positions and coordination.

Specialisation is a process where the strategy or goal of the institution is broken down into smaller but related tasks so that personnel with the right skills can then be deployed (Hellriegel *et al.* 1998:372). Dale (1978:111) advocates that "so far as possible, the work of each person should be confined to a single function, and related functions should be grouped together under one head." The principle of job specialisation was first advocated by Frederick Taylor who is regarded as the father of scientific management (Porter *et al.* 1975:34-35; Robbins, 1990:183; Robbins and Barnwell, 2002:95). Taylor postulated that to increase productivity, the goal of the institution must be broken down into small tasks (division of work) that are highly specialised and standardised (Stoner, 1982:262; Bratton and Gold, 1994:62). The advantages of specialisation are that workers acquire dexterity on the job they are doing and also training becomes easy. The downside of specialisation is that it breeds monotony and boredom (Potter *et al.* 1975:35; Chmiel, 2008:119-122).

Departmentalisation is the process where similar tasks are grouped together to form a functional unit or a department which makes it easier to mobilise personnel towards the realisation of the stated goal or strategy. Stoner (1982:264; Robbins, 2005:454-56) says that "the job functions of employees need to be divided among them and combined in logical ways. Workers with related functions usually share a common work area and constitute a work unit. Efficiency of work flow depends on the successful integration of various units within the institution. Division of work

and logical combinations of tasks should lead to logical department and subunit structures. For example, the Department of Agriculture has a number of functional units that are known as directorates and these will be at the centre of this study because the empirical data that will be collected will be sourced from those directorates or functional units. What Stoner is trying to say is that the principle of departmentalisation requires that related tasks must be grouped into units or functions so that personnel can be deployed in a productive manner.

Span of control refers to the number of employees that are serving under a leader (Smit and Cronje, 1992:202; Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1998:519). This has a direct bearing on the leadership performance of the leader in terms of supervision (Stoner, 1982:290; Robbins, 2005:456-57). The larger the number of employees a leader controls, the wider is his or her span of control. Too many subordinates reporting to the leader may make it more difficult for the leader to coordinate the activities of those subordinates effectively. On the other hand, fewer subordinates reporting to the leader may result in over-supervision and may also mean that the line of communication is made too long as more leaders are placed in the channel. A thin span of management can also be very expensive because more managers would tend to be more expensive than subordinates (Smit and Cronje, 1992:203-4; Schermerhorn, 2004:127).

Line and staff positions refer to a process that delineates between those employees who are directly involved in the implementation of objectives and those who are providing a supportive role (Stoner, 1982:310; Hellriegel *et al.* 1998:372). For example, the employees of the Department of Agriculture are made up of those officials who are technically trained in agricultural sciences such as veterinarians, livestock production scientists, horticultural production scientists, agribusiness economists, legal advisors and human resource management professionals. Since the core business of the Department is agricultural support to the sector, all agricultural scientists would be classified under line position and all those professionals such as legal advisors and human resource professionals would be classified under staff position. In the main, line employees are directly responsible for the implementation of agricultural policies whereas staff functions are there to provide support to line functionaries.

Coordination is defined as the extent to which the work activities of the institutional members are logically consistent and coherent. It can also be explained as the act of harnessing all functions of the institution so that they all focus on the main goal of the institution in a synergised manner (Stoner, 1982:281; Robbins and Barnwell, 2002:109-110). Smit and Cronje (1992:189-90) put it

clearly when they say that “once an institution has been divided into specialised functions or departments, and the corresponding objectives have been formulated, management must see to it that the different departments will be able to work together.” Most probably, one of the major challenges facing public institutions is the issue of weak coordination which often leads to *silo* implementation of objectives (Clapper, 200:256). The writer has observed that more often than not, directorates within the Department of Agriculture do not plan together and this invariably leads to *solo implementation* of programmes (own). This has been a major problem more in particular with farmer financing programmes where the granting of funds to projects is done without the support of other directorates and it is only at the time when the project is about to collapse that attempts may be made to try and mobilise support and unfortunately at that point it is usually too late to save that particular project (Haralambos, 1980:296-7; Rothmann and Cooper, 2008:88-89). In chapter 4 (see section 4.4), the importance of a culture that promotes the sharing of the vision of the institution was emphasised, and the effective coordination of all functional units would facilitate the sharing of the vision as leaders would inculcate the culture of consultation *inter se*. After all, one unit of the institution cannot single-handedly be able to implement objectives effectively; it needs the support of all functional units as well as staff units of that institution.

A general discussion of organisation was presented above and it is now the appropriate time to turn the focus to the Department of Agriculture for the purpose of establishing the *nature* and *extent* of its organisational set-up. The organisation of the Department of Agriculture as reflected in the Strategic Plan Document (2009:20) is graphically represented in figure 5.4.

5.5.1 Minister of Agriculture

In South Africa, ministers are appointed by the president (usually from members of parliament but two ministers can be appointed outside of parliament) in accordance with section 91 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 to oversee the implementation of the vision of the ruling party. Once appointed, each minister will be entrusted with the responsibility of overseeing the work of a particular department in terms of implementing the political vision of the ruling party. Departments are public institutions that are established by parliament as implementing agents for government policies and in most cases, they are classified in terms of sectors or functions that government wants to perform. For example, agriculture is headed by the Minister of Agriculture, trade and industry is headed by the Minister of Trade and Industry, public enterprises is headed by the Minister

of Public Enterprises. A collective of ministers together with the president and the deputy president are known as the *õcabinetõ*.

The Office of the Minister of Agriculture is responsible for all matters pertaining to agriculture in the Country. The central role of the Minister is to ensure that government policies on agriculture are implemented.

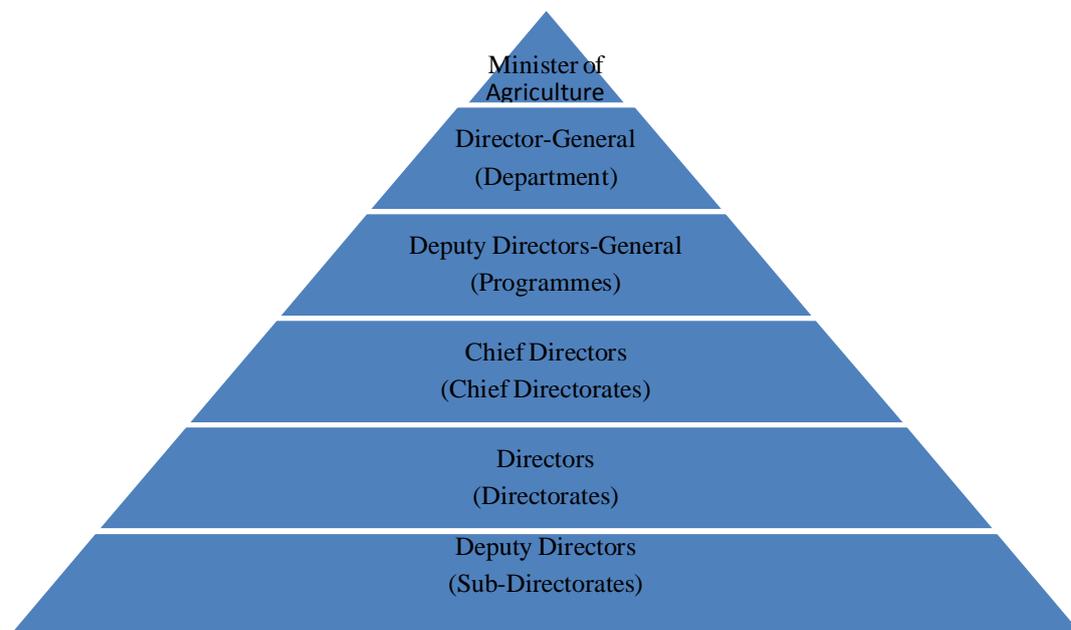


Figure 5.4: Organisation of the Department of Agriculture (Adapted from: the Department of Agriculture, 2009:20)

5.5.2 Director-General

The Office of the Director-General is responsible for the overall implementation of agricultural policies. The Director-General is the first person whom the Minister consults in planning the implementation of political objectives. It is the Director-General who must mobilise all needed resources including the plan or strategy that will guide the implementation of those objectives. In other words, the Director-General is the top technocrat who must assist the Minister to implement government objectives as promulgated by the ruling party and he or she is accountable to the Minister.

5.5.3 Deputy Directors-General

In order for government policies to be effectively implemented, they need to be broken down into a number of *broad objectives* that are known in the Department

of Agriculture as *programmes*. Deputy Directors-General are responsible for effective implementation of government policies through programmes. For example, the purposes of the various branches are provided by the Agriculture Strategic Plan (2009/10:26-47) in the following manner:

- The programme provides the Department with strategic leadership and management, as well as overall administration (programme 1).
- The purpose of the programme is to promote agricultural productivity and profitability through the identification of opportunities, sustainable use and protection of land, water and genetic resources and infrastructure development to ensure household food security (programme 2).
- The programme develops and facilitates the implementation of appropriate policies and targeted programmes aimed at promoting equitable access to the agricultural sector to promote shared growth and the commercial viability of emerging farmers. It also manages agricultural risk and disaster, agricultural education and training, extension and advisory services, scientific research and technology development (programme 3).
- The purpose of the programme is to facilitate market access for South African agricultural products nationally and internationally. The programme also provides agricultural economic and statistical services to support economic growth and development and monitors the economic performance of the sector (programme 4).
- The purpose of the programme is to manage the risk associated with animal diseases, plant pests, genetically modified organisms, registration of products used in agricultural field and provision of food safety to safeguard human life (programme 5).

5.5.4 Chief Directors

A programme under a deputy director-general is further categorised into sub-programmes that are headed by chief directors. Sub-programmes are made up of a number of functionally related directorates.

5.5.5 Directors

Directors are responsible for functional directorates and it is these functional directorates that are directly responsible for implementing government objectives. Each directorate is a line function that is responsible for a small part of the broader objective as listed under the programmes of the deputy directors-general.

Directorates can be regarded as the foot soldiers as they are in the forefront of government policy implementation. This implies that, like in the army, if directorates are not effective in carrying out their duties, government policies cannot be implemented successfully. Leadership is primary in effective policy implementation and that is why this study is focussing mainly on those leaders who are crucial in the implementation of government objectives on the ground.

5.5.6 Deputy Directors

Deputy directors constitute the *middle management echelon* of the Department and operate below directors. Deputy directors are at the forefront of policy or strategy implementation within their respective directorates (Department of Agriculture, 2008a:18).

5.6 ROLE OF DIRECTORATES IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MISSION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Since directorates are defined as being at the centre of government policy implementation in the agricultural sector, it is imperative to provide the reader with a brief discussion of the nature of work they provide to the Department of Agriculture so that when the empirical discussion is presented in chapter 7, the reader will be in a position to link those discussions to the basic functions of the various directorates. In other words, in this section, the writer is providing answers to the general and fundamental question which people that are not members of the Department of Agriculture may wish to ask and that is: "what does the Department of Agriculture do on daily basis?"

It is not possible to provide analysis of individual directorates and what has been done here is to combine *functionally related* directorates and then provide the analysis at that level. Basically, this is at chief directorate level but the results would be the same even where the analysis was done on individual directorates because the inputs to chief directorates are provided by directorates anyway. According to the "Agriculture Strategic Plan 2009/10" document, there are eleven *line functional* chief directorates and two *staff* chief directorates. Participants shall be selected from both the chief directorates responsible for line functional directorates as well as from the chief directorates responsible for staff directorates. These chief directorates are analysed below.

5.6.1 Planning and monitoring

Operations management is provided through the chief directorate that is responsible for planning and monitoring. The key result area (KRA) to which this chief directorate contributes is the one that deals with issues of *ensuring efficient and effective governance and partnerships* (key result area 5), that was listed under section 5.3.5 above, are carried out. The strategic objectives (SO) to which it relates is the one that deals with issues of *providing leadership and cooperative governance in the agricultural sector* and also, the one that deals with *implementation of quality standards in the Department of Agriculture to ensure effective organisational performance and cooperative governance* (DAFF, 2009:31) and these are expected to yield the following strategic outcomes:

- Excellent delivery of departmental services.
- Clear policy direction, agreed priorities, coherent planning and focused and aligned implementation of objectives.
- Enhanced strategic and operational planning, monitoring and evaluation.

5.6.2 Communication and information

The directorates that are contributing to this chief directorate are responsible for key result area 6 that was discussed in section 5.3.6 above which deals with problems associated with *ensuring that knowledge and information management* is provided and the strategic objectives that must be realised deal with issues of *providing leadership and managing communication and information management effectively* and also, to *improve knowledge management in the Department of Agriculture* (DAFF, 2009:31). These strategic objectives contribute to the following strategic outcomes:

- Enhanced integrated advocacy campaigns for priority programmes and projects.
- Stable, reliable and up-to-date information and communication technologies and management systems.
- Good and improved knowledge management.

5.6.3 Partnerships

Contributing directorates are responsible for the implementation of key result area 5 that was discussed under section 5.3.5 above which deals with problems

associated with *ensuring efficient and effective governance and partnerships*. The strategic objectives that are relevant here deal with issues of *providing efficient and effective governance* and also, the *promotion and protection of South African agricultural interests internationally* (DAFF, 2009:32). The strategic outcomes expected include the following:

- Effective governance and partnerships.
- Effective availability of overseas development assistance (ODA) for agriculture in South Africa and the rest of Africa.
- Effective coordination and facilitation for international engagements.

5.6.4 Agricultural production

Directorates that are functionally responsible for agricultural production contribute to key result area 1 that was discussed under section 5.3.1 above and there are two strategic objectives that are in focus here and they deal with issues of *promoting production, handling, processing and consumption of nutritious foods* and the *promotion and supporting of household income generation and food production in the sector* (DAFF, 2009:34). The intended strategic outcomes are:

- Improved food production and availability at local level.
- Improved support mechanisms for food production at household level.

5.6.5 Engineering and resource management

The group of directorates that are responsible for engineering and resource management contribute to key result area 4 which looks at *enhancing sustainable management and efficient use of natural agricultural resources and production inputs* which was discussed under section 5.3.4. The strategic objectives that are feeding into this key result area look at issues of *ensuring the management of agricultural indigenous genetic resources, land and water* and also, issues pertaining to the *promotion of effective production systems, including the use of energy, labour and mechanisation* (DAFF, 2009:35). These strategic objectives are expected to bring about the following strategic outcomes:

- Sustained management and utilisation of genetic and natural resources.
- Improved adoption of sustainable production systems.

5.6.6 Livelihoods development support

Directorates in this group are expected to contribute to key result area 2 that deals with the *elimination of skewed participation and inequality in the sector*, which was discussed under section 5.3.2 above. These directorates are expected to ensure that issues of *increasing access to existing resources and opportunities within the agricultural sector for historically disadvantaged groups and individuals* are achieved (DAFF, 2009:39). The strategic output variables include the following:

- Increase access and support to agrarian reform beneficiaries, entrepreneurs and agribusinesses.
- Increase the integration of black people in agribusinesses.
- Increase commercialisation of black farming enterprises and agribusinesses.
- Increase economic value of public and private investment in existing and new agricultural development initiatives.
- Enhance performance and efficiency of the sector.

5.6.7 Sector services and research

Directorates that are supporting this chief directorate are expected to implement key result areas 3 and 6 that were discussed under sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.6 respectively. These key result areas deal with problems associated with *increasing growth, income and remunerative job opportunities in agriculture* as well as to *ensure knowledge and information management*. The strategic objectives that are feeding into these key result areas are designed to ensure that there is an *increase in the level of public and private investment for agricultural development*, and that there is *provision of effective leadership and support to agricultural research, training and extension in the sector* (DAFF, 2009:41). These strategic objectives are expected to yield the following strategic outcomes:

- Increased economic value of public and private investment on existing and new agricultural development initiatives.
- Enhanced performance and efficiency of the sector through training and capacity building.

5.6.8 Trade and marketing development

The group of directorates that are responsible for trade and marketing development contribute to key result 3 that was discussed under 5.3.3 above which looks at

increasing growth, income and remunerative job opportunities in agriculture. The strategic objectives that are feeding into this key result area look at issues of *increasing market access for South African and African agricultural products, domestically and internationally* (DAFF, 2009:44). These strategic objectives are expected to bring about the following strategic outcomes:

- Improved market access for all farmers.
- Increased investments in marketing infrastructure.
- Improved business intelligence reporting to support investor confidence in the sector.

5.6.9 Economic and statistical services

The economic and statistical services group of directorates aim to provide services under key result area 3 that was discussed under section 5.3.3 that deals with problems relating to increasing growth, income and remunerative job opportunities in agriculture and the main strategic objective is to *increase the level of public and private investment for agricultural development* (DAFF, 2009:45). The strategic outcome to flow from this strategic objective is the following:

- Improved business intelligence reporting to support investor confidence.

5.6.10 Plant health and inspection services

The sustainable production of food, provision of safe and affordable food and national and international trade in agricultural products are supported and dependent upon a reliable bio-security regulatory framework that is well implemented not only within South Africa but also regionally and internationally. The key result area that these directorates contribute to is number 2 which deals with issues of *eliminating skewed participation and inequality in the agricultural sector* that was discussed under section 5.3.2. This is delivered under the strategic objective that seeks to *ensure equitable access and sustained participation by all farmers in the agricultural sector* (DAFF, 2009:48). The following are the main strategic outcomes that are expected to flow from the above strategic objective:

- Improved level of participation of the emerging sector in agriculture.
- Reduction of risks associated with food, propagation material, genetically modified organisms, diseases and the use of agrochemicals.

- Increased access to markets through the application of bio-security measures.

5.6.11 Food and veterinary services

Directorates that contribute to food and veterinary services are meant to deal with problems that arise from key result area 3 that tries to assist the agricultural sector to eliminate skewed participation and inequality in the sector. This is driven by the operational strategic objective that aims *to ensure equitable access and sustained participation in the agricultural sector* (DAFF, 2009:49). The expected strategic outcome emanating from the above strategic object is the following:

- Improved level of participation of the emerging sector in the agricultural sector.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this chapter was to dissect the belly of the beast so that its internal organs can be understood. The reader was provided with information that is key to the understanding of issues that will be presented in chapter 7 where the results of the empirical survey will be discussed. From introductory remarks, the chapter proceeded by providing a discussion of the vision of the Department of Agriculture and it was mentioned that the vision is the dream that helps the Department to focus its energy towards the realisation of that dream. From the vision came the mission of the Department of Agriculture and this was defined as all the things that led to the creation of the Department. In other words, the Department was created to support all role-players in the field of agriculture so that the country can achieve food security where everyone is assured safe and nutritious food. The mission was then divided into a number of factors that were called key result areas (KRAs) and these were listed as: ensure availability and access to sufficient safe and nutritious food, eliminate skewed participation and inequality in the sector, increase growth, income and remunerative job opportunities in agriculture, enhance the sustainability management and efficient use of natural agricultural resources and production inputs, ensure efficient and effective governance and partnerships, ensure knowledge and information management, and ensure national bio-security and effective risk management.

Values of the Department were presented and discussed and it was mentioned that the collection of values points to culture of the Department of Agriculture. These values were presented as: *bambanani*, drive, excellence, innovation, integrity, and

maak 'n plan. Next to be discussed was the organisation of the Department of Agriculture which basically looked at issues of stratification where authority was broken down to a number of levels (pecking order) that were listed as: minister, director-general, deputy directors-general, chief directors, directors and last but not least, deputy directors. From the organisational stratification, the discussion focussed on the role that is played by directorates in implementing the mission of the Department of Agriculture as it was identified under section 5.3 where the mission of the Department was discussed. It was also mentioned that the main aim of discussing the role of the directorates in this chapter was to assist the reader by providing relevant information that will make it easier to understand the issues that will be presented in chapter 7 where the empirical survey will be presented.

The next chapter aims to explain the research methodology that was adopted for this study so that the reader can gain a better outlook of its strengths and challenges. Chapter 6 is also important for better understanding of chapters 7 and 8 where the results will be presented and where findings and recommendations will be constructed

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

“One starts with a research topic. Then one develops hypotheses and identifies the variables to be measured. Now it is time to plan the data collection.” Gerald J. Miller and Marcia L. Whicker.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the method/s that will be employed in the gathering of the empirical data that is needed in order to answer the questions that were posited in chapter 1 (see section 1.7). This chapter will begin by explaining the research process in general so that the reader can be in a position to follow the various stages that were employed in this study. The next section to be discussed in this chapter is the questionnaire as it was chosen as the data collection instrument for this study and this will be followed by a discussion on the challenges associated with the questionnaire instrument such as reliability and validity issues. The chapter proceeds by discussing ethical issues associated with doing research in the social sciences and it also explains how those ethical issues would be handled by the researcher in the gathering of the empirical data that are specific to this study. Last but not least, the chapter will conclude by providing a summary of the salient points that would have been discussed in the various sections of the chapter.

6.2 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

The research effort can be broken down into a number of tasks or components which must be adequately handled as sub-units of the entire research project so that by dealing with each task, the researcher ends up with a complete research report which meets the general requirements of the scientific research methodology (Leedy, 1989:9; Clark-Carter, 2004:3; Dunn, 2010:7). The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995, s.v. *process*) explains the term *process* as *“a series of actions or tasks performed in order to do, make or achieve something.”* Miller and Whicker (1999:21) compare the process of conducting a research project to that of building a house. In the process of building a house, a number of steps are taken such as drawing up a building plan which will guide the actual process of building the house. The builder needs the right building materials that would be used in building the house and above that, he or she also needs tools that will assist him or her in carrying out the building activities and lastly, the builder must be knowledgeable or must have

the proper skills that are necessary in order to build a quality house. The same goes for the researcher: a research plan that specifies how the research project will be tackled must be followed and this is usually spelled out in chapter 1. This must also be followed by the choice of the correct or appropriate instruments that would be employed in the collection of relevant data and the researcher must be adequately trained in the field of scientific research methodologies so as to be able to conduct acceptable research in his or her chosen field. The research process can be represented graphically as follows:

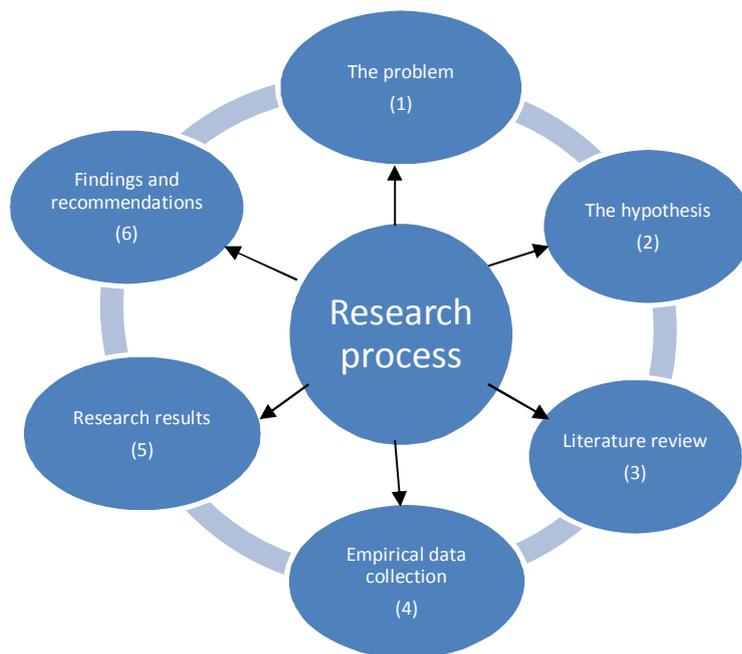


Figure 6.1: The research process (Adapted from Leedy, 1989:9)

6.2.1 The problem

At the centre of any research project, lies the *problem* that is being *investigated* and this point is explained clearly by Leedy (1989:45) where he states that “... at the very heart of every research project is the problem. It is paramount in importance to the success of the research effort, and it should be so considered by every researcher. The situation is quite simple: no problem, no research. To see the problem with unwavering clarity and to be able to state it in precise and unmistakable terms is the first requirement in the research process.” In other words, research projects must be driven by clearly defined problems so that all the research efforts should be organised around the desire to solve the stated problem. In its basic form, a research project can be regarded as an attempt at *problem resolution* (Coolican, 2006:5; Cargan, 2007:15).

6.2.2 The hypothesis

The hypothesis is the untested answer of the forces that have given rise to the problem (Seale, 1998:103; Cherulnik, 2001:5). In other words, the hypothesis provides a *prima facie* causal relationship between the problem under investigation and the proposed hypothesis (Cozby, 1993:13; Dunn, 2010:10-11). The relationship is such that the researcher actually believes that the problem came about because of the forces contained in the hypothesis (Clark-Carter, 2004:11). For example, one is walking from the car park towards a shopping mall and one sees two policemen chasing after a young man who is running full speed away from the mall. The thought that one might attach to this interesting but puzzling situation could be that the young man is running away because *he has broken the law* since he is being chased by the police. The problem one is trying to solve is that the young man is running away and he is being chased by the police. Our hypothesis is driven by the forces that suggest that people who are running away from police (the law) must have committed a crime, hence one would be convinced that the young man one sees running away has committed a crime somewhere in the shopping mall. Whether that is true or not, one will find out when one asks somebody who has witnessed the act that led to the chasing of the young man.

Leedy (1982:6) provides an interesting argument when he states that hypotheses are nothing new. They are constant, recurring features of everyday life. They represent the natural working of the human mind. Something happens, immediately, you attempt to account for the cause of the happening by constructing a series of reasonable guesses. In so doing, you are hypothesising. Hence, the hypothesis in the example that the young man must have fallen foul of the law since he is being chased by amaphoyisa (police) is a natural working of the human mind that is trying to attach meaning to a puzzling situation. What Leedy is saying is that there is a difference between the human mind to that of an animal. The human mind will attach meaning to every occurrence and in so doing, human beings have succeeded in providing answers to a large number of problems associated with life such as the provision of food and shelter whereas animals tend to gather food when they are facing hunger. For example, a pride of lions will hunt when they are driven by hunger and after eating, they will take refuge under trees until such time that hunger becomes a driving force again. On the other hand, humans will produce enough food to last for the entire season and the food will be stored until needed much later. This example suggests that the ability of humans to hypothesise has enabled the human species to proliferate by solving a number of problems associated with the challenges of life in general and this phenomenon is

attributed to the ability of humans to *construct* hypothesis when faced with problems.

6.2.3 The literature review

Once the problem has been *clearly defined* and the hypothesis has been *proposed* as being the possible cause of the problem, the research process in the human sciences must proceed by undergoing a *review of the related literature*. The purpose of the literature review is for the researcher to gain *insight* into the nature of the problem being researched by consulting works done by other researchers in the field.

This practice must have come about after the famous quote by Sir Isaac Newton that *one can see further if one stands upon the shoulders of giants* (see chapter 4, section 4.3.2.1). Another important point to mention here is that the field of human science has been extensively researched which means that there would always be a high probability that someone has already tried to provide answers to the question which the researcher is trying to solve. Earlier on in chapter 2 (section 2.1) the Zulu idiom that *indlela ibuzwa kwabaphambili* (if one does not know the path to one's destination, one should ask those who have travelled through), was provided for the purpose of amplifying the importance of undertaking the literature review exercise which is basically a journey undertaken for the purpose of 'looking into' the existing knowledge that is *related* to the problem being investigated for the purpose of identifying gaps that are still persisting within that field of enquiry so that the researcher can then provide findings that contribute to further advancement of the theory in that field (Anderson, 2009:97; Cargan, 2007:18-19).

For example, this study lies in the domain of public leadership and it was imperative for the researcher to undertake a literature review as was presented in chapter 2 so that the knowledge gained from that review could be used as a theoretical foundation towards the construction of the questionnaire that will be described below in this chapter and that will lead to the gathering of the empirical data that will be discussed in chapters 7 and 8.

Another example that illustrates the need for undertaking a literature review is the analogy that literature review is like undertaking a long distance journey for the first time. The traveller needs to have a road map (in this technologically advanced era, a global positioning system (GPS)) that will provide direction from point A to point B until the final destination. If one happens to undertake this long distance journey (say from Pretoria to Cape Town), for the first time without proper

direction, one may end up in the wrong city (if one does not know where one needs to be, every road will take one anywhere). In short, the literature review exercise is important because it provides the researcher with the "road map" that will point towards the right direction thereby saving the researcher time and money. Saving time in the sense that the researcher will be able to delineate the research project and give it a focus. The researcher will save time in the sense that he or she will not waste time by undertaking research on problems that have already been covered by early researchers and this may avoid the phenomenon known as *plagiarism* (stealing works of other researchers).

6.2.4 The empirical data collection

After reviewing the related literature, the next stage of the research process is to design and collect the empirical data that will be used to confirm or reject the hypothesis that was proposed as an answer to the problem. There are two types of data that are available to the researcher: primary data and secondary data (Anderson, 2009:12-13; Cherulnik, 2001:70-71). Primary data is basically the "raw data" or "firsthand data" that is collected directly by the researcher which will be processed into *information* that will culminate in the resolution of the problem. On the other hand, secondary data is the kind of data that is available to the researcher from other sources such as books, journals, internal documents, the internet and periodicals/magazines. Secondary data is used primarily to define the problem under literature review and as such, it is regarded as part of the theory whereas primary data is regarded as being part of the actual research (empirical research). In the human sciences, primary data is normally collected by means of a number of instruments including the *questionnaire*, *structured interview* or *focus group* (Anderson, 2009:12-13).

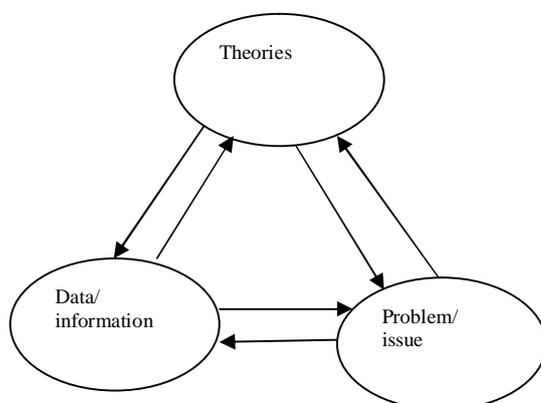


Figure 6.2: Theory and practice in research (Sourced from Anderson, 2009:12)

Anderson (2009:12) has provided a useful graphical relationship between theory, problem and data/information. Theory provides the framework against which empirical data can be tested. For example, a questionnaire is based on a theoretical or a normative (how things ought to be) framework and it is a tool that is then used to gather empirical data which provides the 'practical situation' on the ground (how things actually are). The information processed from empirical data is then used to solve the problem being investigated. These relationships are depicted above in figure 6.2.

6.2.5 The research results

After the data gathering tool has been designed and the required primary data has been collected, the next stage of the research process is to process (analyse) and discuss the information as depicted by the processed primary data. This is where startling discoveries are made (Cherulnik, 2001:10). Does the data provide support to the hypothesis or does it disprove it? This is the stage where the researcher begins to extract meaning from the data and Leedy (1989:8) provides an interesting discussion of this fact when he states that '... facts, events, happenings, observations are of themselves only facts, events, happenings, observations - nothing more. But all these are potentially meaningful. The significance of the data depends upon the way in which the human brain extracts meaning from those data. Facts, unprocessed by the human brain, are worthless in research. They become a travesty on the very concept of research.' Leedy is providing a warning to every researcher that research is about *squeezing meanings* out of the data collected so that facts can emerge that then 'speak for themselves'. In isiZulu, the term *ukuhluzza* (sifting) is used to refer to a process where *umqombothi* (sorghum beer) is sifted using *ihluzo* (sifting tool made out of special grass). The moral of the analogy is that one cannot brew sorghum beer and present it to the *ibandla* (gathering) without having done the sifting. This will be tantamount to disrespect of the lowest degree to the people who must drink the beer as the by-product called *emashica* in siSwati is usually given to pigs. In the same vein, that is why Leedy asserts that the collection of empirical data, no matter how extensive it may be, is a futile exercise if the researcher is not going to do the 'sifting' (*ukuhluzza*) so that finer facts can emerge from the data.

6.2.6 Findings and recommendations

Once the facts have been sifted, the researcher needs to provide the 'environmental impact assessment' of those facts so that the reader can be made aware of any phenomenon or issue that has been discovered during the sifting period. This is the

time when the researcher provides answers to the question: what did you find during your research journey that can make us to have a better understanding of the field or theory that you are contributing to? This is the stage where the sifted facts are analysed and interpreted by the researcher as part of the resolution of the problem.

Chapter 1 opened with a story about two ladies Mrs. Sun and Mrs. Wind who had a challenge of persuading a man to take off his coat. Mrs Wind opted to act like a bully by blowing the man fiercely with the hope that he (the man) would take off his coat but instead, the man clung to his coat and refused to take it off. On the other hand, Mrs. Sun began her persuasion by shining warmly until the man decided to take off his coat voluntarily. The moral of the story here is that the truth of any research becomes evident through the interpretation of the facts that were discovered through the sifting stage. The truth about the persuasion approaches adopted by Mrs. Wind and Mrs. Sun became apparent after the facts were sifted and the truth was that, Mrs. Wind *failed* to persuade the man to take off his coat whereas Mrs. Sun *succeeded* in doing so. Based on this information, one could conclude that bullying people like what Mrs. Wind did may increase the level of resistance and revolt (people cling tenaciously to what they have) but where Mrs. Sun's approach is adopted, the facts seem to suggest that people are more likely to support the objective voluntarily by showing strong commitment to it. In other words, the findings are: *bullying increases the level of resistance whereas gentleness increases the level of commitment.*

Recommendations are ideas or blue prints that are offered by the researcher as *possible strategies to solve the problem.* Recommendations provide the *way-forward* that needs to be followed if the problem is to be resolved effectively. For example, in the man in a coat story, the recommendations could be that the leader must *refrain* from *bullying* subordinates and should instead, inculcate the culture of treating people with respect and dignity because that will lead to *self-drive* and *commitment.*

6.3 THE QUESTIONNAIRE AS THE ADOPTED DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT FOR THIS STUDY

Section 6.2 above provided a brief discussion on the research process so that the reader can be in a position to comprehend the direction or flow which is adopted by the study. This section is focussing on the actual research methodology that is going to be adopted by this study and the main research instrument chosen being the questionnaire. The following issues pertaining to the use of the questionnaire

are also going to be discussed in this section: prerequisites for a properly designed questionnaire, questionnaire development for this study, contents of the questionnaire of the study, distribution of the copies of the questionnaire to participants, and, data processing and interpretation strategy to be used in this study.

6.3.1 Prerequisites for a properly designed questionnaire

The term "questionnaire" is defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary...1995, s.v. "questionnaire") as "... a written or printed list of questions to be answered by a number of people, especially as part of a survey." As a research instrument, the questionnaire seeks to retrieve data that is *imbedded deep in the subconscious mind of the participants* (Clark-Carter, 2004:8). Leedy (1982:142) provides an interesting description of this phenomenon by stating that "... data sometimes lie buried deep within the minds or within the attitudes, feelings, or reactions of men and women. As with oil beneath the sea, the first problem is to devise a tool to probe below the surface. A commonplace instrument for observing data beyond the physical reach of the observer is the questionnaire." This may be likened to a fisherman who is trying to catch a fish that is swimming below the blue waters of the ocean, he is not sure what kind of fish will be caught until the fish is pulled out of the water. The researcher is also facing the same dilemma when collecting data by means of the questionnaire. The data is not visible to the naked eye and it becomes visible only after it has been collected or "fished out" of the person's mind. The argument is elaborated further by Miller and Whicker (1999:87) where they explain that the purpose of a questionnaire is to assist the researcher to collect pertinent data that will subsequently be processed into information which will then provide facts that will culminate in the resolution of the stated problem. It becomes axiomatic that in order to solve a behavioural problem using the questionnaire as a primary data collection instrument, *the questions contained in the questionnaire should result in a predictable relationship between the participants' responses and what the researcher is trying to solve*. In other words, the role of the questionnaire is to assist the researcher to collect pertinent data whose primary objective is to facilitate the resolution of the stated problem. This then implies that data that is not contributing to the resolution of the stated problem should not be included in the questionnaire.

The major challenge that a researcher immediately faces when collecting data using a questionnaire is that people attach different meaning to the same data. For example, people who smoke may react differently to the statement "smoking is bad

to children's health. A smoker may argue that that statement is not true since he grew up under parents who were smokers and he has also been smoking for twenty-five years and his lungs are in perfect shape. On the other hand, a person who has never smoked may protest vehemently against people who smoke close to children as he or she may strongly believe that smoking is indeed harmful to children's health. Surely, the difference of opinions in this example implies the existence of a deeper problem when it comes to data collection using the questionnaire, and that is, people will answer contents of the questionnaire based on their own "hidden agendas." This implies that people will provide information to satisfy their own hidden agendas. The debate whether South Africans should be allowed to own guns provides yet another example. Some people argue that owning a gun may increase the level of violence in the South African population whereas the camp that advocates for gun ownership may argue that guns do not make people violent but that some people are predisposed to violent behaviour which has nothing to do with them owning guns. The question is: which camp is right? Surely, this debate cannot be closed as long as people approach the question of gun ownership from their different hidden agendas.

Schmitt and Klimoski (1991:347-48) provide useful guidelines for the construction of a questionnaire and they argue that the primary objective of developing questions is to solicit complete and accurate data about the phenomenon under investigation. They advise that a good questionnaire should take cognisance of the following issues:

- The questionnaire should be constructed using words that are simple, direct and familiar to potential respondents

To solicit good and accurate responses from participants, the language used should be simple, direct and familiar to the people who are filling in the questionnaire. Technical terms, unless well understood by the participants should be avoided. For example, in the field of public management, terms such as *leadership*, *morale*, *feedback* and *motivation* are also used as concepts or constructs and if not simplified further, may not be properly understood by participants. The idea here is to provide a condition where the responses given by participants reflect precisely what the research is trying to collect so that accurate resolution of the problem can be achieved (Anderson, 2009:253).

- Questions should be made as clear and specific as possible

Questions should be framed in such a way that the participant is not placed in a position where he or she may need further clarification. For example, the question "how often do you drink?" may invite further questions in the mind of the participant such as: drink what, water, soft drinks or alcoholic beverages? The question should be clear enough to reflect the type of drink which the researcher is investigating so that correct responses can be provided by those who are participating in the survey (Miller and Whicker, 1999:92; Seale, 1998:131-32).

- Double-barreled questions should be avoided

Double-barreled questions are essentially two questions that address separate issues but presented as one item. They normally elicit only one response to the issues presented. For example, questions such as the following should be avoided: do you plan to leave your job and look for another one during the coming year? Are you demotivated because of bad supervision? Are you battling to find employment because of lack of formal qualification? Such questions have the potential of providing the participants with a choice of answering only one and not the other (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991:347; Miller and Whicker, 1999:93; Anderson, 2009:77; Seale, 1998:131-32).

- Leading or loaded questions should be avoided

When constructing the questionnaire, the researcher is advised to avoid the use of leading or loaded questions. Leading or loaded questions are those questions that are constructed in such a way that they persuade the participant to provide answers in a particular way through implication or suggestion (Miller and Whicker, 1999:93; Coolican, 2006:79). Leading and loaded questions lead to psychological manipulation of participants by "forcing" them to respond in a particular manner so that the biasness or subjectivity of the researcher can be justified. Researcher subjectivity is the most critical factor in behavioural research where the researcher tries to camouflage his or her personal beliefs so that by presenting the results, he or she would claim that "research is showing that black people are not good leaders". Schmitt and Klimoski (1991:347) also states that leading and loaded questions are designed in such a way that participants must agree with the researcher's hidden biasness. For example, the question "do you agree with the Minister of Police's support of legislation that will infringe on your rights to own more than one firearm?" is loaded with biasness against changes in the firearm legislation. As it stands, this question is actually implying that the participant

should not agree with the changes that are proposed in the firearm legislation since these changes are a direct violation of the citizens' right to own more than one firearm. Surely, all those people who own more than one firearm would most probably provide a no answer.

- Questions must be made applicable to all respondents

Participants to the study must possess the same qualities that the questionnaire is trying to collect and those participants who do not possess those qualities that the researcher is interested in should be excluded from the survey. For example, asking the question, "how long have you been married?" to unmarried participants would be inappropriate because these participants would not provide the required response since they do not possess this quality. In other words, the researcher must not assume that participants will possess the same qualities rather he or she should ensure that the questionnaire is designed for the appropriate population so that those who fall outside or lack the required qualities should be excluded (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991:348; Coolican, 2006:71-74).

The purpose of this section and the ones above was to provide the reader with the theoretical exposé regarding the use of the questionnaire as a data-gathering instrument and this was necessitated by the fact that this study will collect all data needed by means of the questionnaire. The requirements of a good questionnaire were discussed so that the ultimate collection of data brings about the kind of data that are specifically designed to resolve all issues listed under the problem statement. The discussions that will be provided hereunder are going to be more *specific to the questionnaire instrument that was adopted for this study*. In other words, the focus is shifting from being *theoretical* to being *practical* so that the reader can be placed in a position where he or she is provided with adequate information regarding the use of the chosen questionnaire instrument by explaining issues around the development of the questionnaire, the contents or items contained in the questionnaire, the distribution of the questionnaire to the intended participants and the strategy to be adopted for the processing and interpretation of the collected data.

6.3.2 Design and development of the LPI questionnaire

There are two options available to a researcher in the behavioural sciences: to develop a questionnaire from scratch or to adopt an existing questionnaire. The advantages of using an existing questionnaire are provided by Schmitt and Klimoski (1991:345) where they argue that "... frequently, researchers and

practitioners are interested in constructs that have been widely researched elsewhere and for which existing measures are available. Particularly when one of the objectives is to contribute to the scientific literature, existing measures should be used unless there is a compelling measurement (lack of reliability, too many items, etc) or conceptual reason to develop a new measure. Use of previously existing measures, even when the primary objective is a local, practical, or policy one, will allow comparability of survey results across organisations and situations. The spectrum of previous literature is an aid to the interpretation of findings. In other words, the use of an existing questionnaire provides what is usually called *control environment* where the results of the survey conducted using an existing questionnaire can be compared to the results of previous investigations, and this is the same way as saying that previous investigations provide the *norm* so that future results can then be compared to the established norm.

This study has opted for the use of an existing questionnaire instrument called the Leadership Practices Inventory© (LPI) which has been developed by Kouzes and Posner. Some of the reasons for choosing the LPI were espoused in chapter 4 (section 4.2) where it was mentioned why the Kouzes/Posner Leadership behaviour model was chosen as the research instrument for this study. Those reasons were provided as:

- Institutions are people.
- There is a great need for leadership transformation in South Africa.
- There is extensive research conducted under the Model.
- The Model is designed for all layers of management.
- The authors are highly regarded in the academic world.

The purpose of this section is to provide a short background regarding the development of the LPI so that the reader can gain insight into the manner in which the LPI was constructed as a research instrument. As far back as early 1980s, Kouzes and Posner began to question the fallacious belief that sought to assert that the leadership function could only be assigned to people who are *born to lead*. As it was argued in chapter 2 (section 2.5.1) that under the trait theory, leadership was defined in terms of the qualities or traits of the leader and not what the leader does. To study leadership under this approach, it simply means that the researcher would try to discover those qualities that good leaders possess and that excludes the behaviour displayed by the same leader under observation. In other words, researchers focus on leadership qualities (what the leader has) and disregard the manner in which the same leaders interacts with his or her followers (what the

leader does). This belief led to a myth that claimed that because leaders needed certain qualities to lead, very few people could perform the function of leadership, therefore, only a selected few could perform the function of leadership successfully and these few people were normally located at the top of the leadership echelon.

Contrary to this approach, Kouzes and Posner decided to focus on middle managers who constitute the vast majority of leaders in institutions and they wanted to discover what these men and women do when they perform the function of leadership and that essentially meant that the focus would be directed to the actions (behaviour) of those leaders and not how they are made of (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:11-12). In other words, the research focused on how ordinary people lead others to achieve extra-ordinary results without focusing exclusively to top managers who are by nature few in numbers.

The main hypothesis that Kouzes and Posner posited was that the function of leadership is a set of skills and abilities that can be learned by anyone who aspires to be a leader. In other words, leadership was regarded as a learnable skill similar to the skill needed to drive a car (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:13). A driver of a car needs to learn the skill of motor driving and this skill is not an exclusive domain of a few individuals but is open to all who have the desire to drive motorcars. Central to the Kouzes/Posner Model, is the premise that leadership skills can be acquired by all those who are eager to learn the secrets of leadership and by deduction, leadership is nothing more than the behaviour that the leader exhibits while interacting with followers (Kouzes and Posner, 2002:14).

To test this hypothesis, Kouzes and Posner developed a research instrument which they called 'the Personal-Best Leadership Experience Questionnaire (PBLEQ) where thirty-eight open ended questions were constructed (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:12). More than four thousand case studies were collected where participants were asked to describe the actions they took when they successfully accomplished a project or a programme. The study was conducted both in the public and the private sectors in the United States of America and from this study, the results confirmed the hypothesis that leadership was not an inborn quality, a position or a place rather, it is a behaviour with observable set of skills and abilities that are available to everyone who aspire to learn and improve his or her leadership. Kouzes and Posner were able to identify certain pattern of behaviours that they categorised into five factors which they called the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership® and from these factors, the LPI was designed and developed (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:12). The five factors were named as follows: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage

the heart. These factors became the cornerstone of the LPI where each factor was developed to contain six elements.

The LPI is designed to give leaders a 360° feedback on their leadership behaviour and if leadership is the way the leader behaves towards his or her followers, then feedback is critical in strengthening the relationship between these two camps (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:5). Essentially, leadership feedback is designed to reveal strengths and weaknesses of the leader so that the quality of the relationship could be improved and that would enable the leader to avoid derailment since negative and positive feedback will be provided by those who are closer to the leader (if one wants to know how hot the fire is, one should ask those who are closer to it).

The LPI was developed as an instrument to test the five factors which were identified under the Personal-Best Leadership Experience Questionnaire (PBLEQ) where leaders were asked to describe in a narrative form what they did to bring successes to projects or programmes that they were responsible for (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:11-12). From the narrative description of the Personal-Best Leadership Experience Questionnaire (PBLEQ), a number of behavioural statements were developed and refined in consultation with participants and experts in the field of leadership and the final product was the LPI which consists of thirty behavioural questions that are packaged into six per factor (each factor has six elements). These behavioural statements were then developed into a questionnaire using the Likert scale of measurement where participants are asked to rate the leader in terms of *frequency of engagement* in that particular behaviour. A low rating indicates infrequent engagement and a higher rating indicates frequent engagement (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:72). The ten point Likert scale have the following variables:

- 1- Almost never
- 2- Rarely
- 3- Seldom
- 4- Once in a while
- 5- Occasionally
- 6- Sometimes
- 7- Fairly often
- 8- Usually
- 9- Very frequently
- 10- Almost always

The LPI must be completed by two types of participants: the leader who is rating himself or herself and the observers (manager, subordinates, co-worker, other). It is the observers who complete the 360° evaluation and since the leader is naturally expected to rate himself or herself high (subjectivity), it is the inputs of observers that bring objectivity to the process and issues of disagreement become apparent when the scores of the leader differ significantly from the scores of participants (this discussion will be extensively treated in chapter seven where the empirical data for this study will be discussed).

6.3.3 Contents of the LPI questionnaire

As has been discussed under 6.3.2 above, the LPI is a leadership rating scale that seeks to measure the frequency of engagement of certain behaviour by the leader being evaluated. The items of the LPI questionnaire are arranged on a ten point Likert scale and one being the lowest, ten being the highest value. The items on the LPI are arranged or grouped into six per factor so that each factor gets supported by six elements. There are five of these factors (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart) which provide a total score of 30.

The LPI was adapted to suite the purpose of this study with permission from the authors (Kouzes and Posner) and the entire copy of its contents is provided as an example. It is important to note that the questions are tabled from 1 to 30 without specifying the factors to which they belong. This is done deliberately so as to establish consistency and objectivity. But when the data collected is being processed, the elements are then classified according to their relevant factors. It is also important to note that the items are the same for both leader and observers and the only thing that differs is that the leader uses the pronoun "I" whereas for observers, the use of pronouns was avoided otherwise, the questions are packaged exactly the same for both types of participants. Participants were classified as follows:

D1 (director)

D2 (deputy director)

D3 (subordinate)

Because the study is conducted under conditions of anonymity, the names of directorates (functional units) were codified by using codes which were arbitrarily chosen from 571 to 608. For example, if directorate 571 had two deputy directors, the coding would be:

D2-1	first deputy director
D2-2	second deputy director
D1-D2-1	director evaluating deputy director 1
D1-D2-2	director evaluating deputy director 2
D3-1-D2-1	subordinate number 1 evaluating deputy director 1
D3-2-D2-1	subordinate number 2 evaluating deputy director 1
D3-1-D2-2	subordinate number 1 evaluating deputy director 2
D3-2-D2-2	subordinate number 2 evaluating deputy director 2

Table 6.1: Coding of participants (Source: own)

A typical LPI for a deputy director is provided below where the contents of the LPI questionnaire are indicated:

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE: DEPUTY DIRECTOR



“Leadership is people development”

RESEARCHER: AMON MYENI

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please write your identity code in the space provided at the top of page 4. Below your identity code, you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviour. Please read each statement carefully and use the **RATING SCALE** on the next page (page 3) to respond to each statement. Ask yourself: **“how frequently do I as deputy director engage in the behaviour described?”**

- Be realistic about the extent to which you actually engage in the behaviour.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- Do not answer in terms of how you would like to behave or in terms of how you think you should behave.
- Do answer in terms of how you typically behave on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving yourself 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your behaviour. Similarly, giving yourself all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either.
- For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box on the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the research questionnaire one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. Every statement must have a rating.

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The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10.

Choose the number that best applies to each statement starting from page 4.

1. **Almost never**
2. **Rarely**
3. **Seldom**
4. **Once in a while**
5. **Occasionally**
6. **Sometimes**
7. **Fairly often**
8. **Usually**
9. **Very frequently**
10. **Almost always**

CODES:

DIRECTOR - D1
DEPUTY DIRECTOR - D2
DIRECT REPORT - D3

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Your identity code: _____

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviour? Please use the RATING SCALE indicated on page 3. Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box on the right of the statement.

1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.

2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.

3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.

4. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.

5. I praise people for a job well done.

6. I spend time and energy ensuring that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.

7. I describe a compelling image of what the future could be like.

8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.

9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.

10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.

11. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.

12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.

13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
-
14. I treat others with dignity and respect.
-
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
-
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.
-
17. I show others how their long-term interest can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
-
18. I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.
-
19. I support decisions that people make on their own.
-
20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
-
21. I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
-
22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.
-
23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans and establish measurable milestones for the projects and the programmes that we work on.
-
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choices in deciding how to do their work.
-
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
-

26. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.

27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.

29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

DIRECTORATE'S CODE:

571

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6.3.4 Distribution of copies of the LPI questionnaire

In chapter 5 (section 5.1), issues pertaining to changes in the political environment were discussed where it was pointed out that because of the rapid changes in the political arena which invariably exert pressure on the organisational structure of the affected institutions, it was decided to conduct this study under the former Department of Agriculture (DoA) which is currently known as the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) and this meant that only those functional units that were part of the former Department of Agriculture would be included in the study. At that time (June 2009), the Department of Agriculture had thirty-eight functional units (directorates) and only thirty directorates were selected for this study because the other eight had just been created and were still vacant which meant that they had no personnel as well as directors at the time. In other words, only those directorates that had directors were selected and they were thirty in total (DAFF, 2009:20).

Since directorates are headed by directors, the total population of directors as part of the participants in this study was thirty (30) directors. From the thirty directorates, the population of deputy directors in this study was eighty (80). For the purpose of this study, the population of subordinates had a qualifying criterion of a minimum salary level 9. This meant that only subordinates who were level 9 and above would be included as subordinates in this study. This criterion was motivated by the fact that normally, deputy directors would directly supervise assistant directors and assistant directors who are called lower management would be responsible for the rest of the employees. Another qualifying criterion was that subordinates were set at a maximum of three per deputy director, that is, up to three subordinates were allowed to evaluate a deputy director. The total number of employees below deputy directors at the time when the study was conducted was 2590 (see figure 7.1 for category of employees).

Participants	Questionnaires distributed	Questionnaires returned	Percentage
Deputy directors (D2)	80	32	40%
Directors (D1)	30	15	50%
Subordinates (D3)	240*	76	31.7%

*Limited to 3 subordinates per deputy director

Table 6.2: Number of questionnaires distributed and returned

The distribution of the questionnaires was done by hand through the offices of directors. The personal Assistants (PAs) were the contact persons in each directorate. Table 6.2 above depicts the number of questionnaires that were distributed and returned.

6.3.5 Data processing and interpretation strategy

This section deals with the manner in which the collected data will be processed and interpreted. The data will be processed using a computer programme that was designed specifically for the processing of the LPI data. Another important point to mention here is that although the data was collected from individuals, the final analysis is at departmental level (institutional level) focussing on each category of participants separately. Lastly, the section will also explain how the data will be presented for the purpose of making proper analysis and interpretation.

6.3.5.1 LPI data processing programme

The data will be processed using a computer programme that has been designed specifically to process data that is collected using the LPI. The data will be treated in the same manner as was explained under section 6.3.3 above where the names of the participating directorates as well as the names of participants will be entered using codes. The scores of the deputy directors (self) are then entered using the same codes (D2-1-571; D2-2-571; D2-3-571) and this means that there are three deputy directors in the directorate 571. The participants who evaluated these deputy directors would be entered using the same order (D1-D2-1; D3-1-D2-1) and this means that the scores of the director (D1) who evaluated deputy director 1 (D2-1) and the subordinate 1(D3-1) who also provided scores would be entered separately below the deputy director 1. This process will be repeated until all scores have been entered from all participants. On the computer programme, deputy director is called (S-self), director (M-manager) and subordinate (D-direct report). The following example is provided to clarify the method for the directorate coded as 573:

Participants	Codes	Number of elements
Self (S)	D2-1	Items from 1-30
Manager (M)	D1-D2-1	Items from 1-30
Direct report1 (D)	D3-1-D2-1	Items from 1-30
Direct report2 (D)	D3-2-D2-1	Items from 1-30
Direct report3 (D)	D3-3-D2-1	Items from 1-30

Table 6.3: Classification of participants on the computer programme (Source: Own)

In the above example, all the participants belong to directorate 573 and the deputy director being evaluated is 1. If there were more deputy directors attached to directorate 573, their scores would be entered in the same manner and this goes for the other group of participants such as the director and the subordinates in the same directorate. This process will be repeated exactly the same way for all the participants.

6.3.5.2 Level of analysis

Unfortunately, as the computer programme was designed to process data for individual leader and not for group processing, the scores of all participants per directorate will be calculated manually and using the average method, the final product (average) will be taken as the view of all participants in that particular category, for example, deputy directors, directors or subordinates. Since the analysis is done at institutional level, this process will be repeated until the data is uploaded to the institutional level. This means that the data will be aggregated from individual directorates to the entire institution so that the views of all participants would be presented as an institutional view. It is important here to note that the categorisation of participants, that is, deputy directors, directors and subordinates will be adhered to so that the analysis will be done in terms of the views of the particular category. For example, the views of directors in terms of each factor would be treated separately from the views of the other group of participants. This is in line with the contents of the hypothesis that was posited in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) where it was proposed that deputy directors of the Department of agriculture have challenges in terms of the following:

- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not act as models for their subordinates.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not share their vision with their subordinates.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not challenge the institutional systems and processes in order to effect change.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not delegate powers to their subordinates.
- Deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable challenges.
- Leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture have led to low employee morale.

In order to confirm or disprove these propositions, the data from each category of participants has to be treated separately.

6.3.5.3 Data interpretation strategy

The purpose of this section is to explain the methods that will be used by this study to interpret the empirical data. Two data interpretation strategies will be employed: the Likert scale and the LPI percentile ranking.

- The Likert scale (internal norm)

The data will be interpreted using the same computer programme that would be used for the processing of data. The computer programme will generate a report where the views of participants per category will be interpreted using total scores. The reader is reminded that each factor consists of six elements and since each element has a higher value of ten, participants' scores would be measured against a total score for each factor of $6 \times 10 = 60$. For the purpose of this study, the Likert scale shall be divided into two segments denoting the leadership behaviour status of deputy directors. The green segment which represents scores from 7 to 10 shall be interpreted as being the 'strength' of deputy directors (which will indicate frequent engagement in that factor) and the red segment shall denote scores from 1 to 6 (which will indicate infrequent engagement in that factor) and it shall be interpreted as the 'weakness' of deputy directors (see graph 6.3 below). In other words, green will represent 'leadership behavioural strength' and red will represent 'leadership behavioural weakness'. A summary graph depicting total scores per category will be presented (bar graph). The scores of each participant would be compared as averages and these will then be plotted on the same graph (bar graph) and this will be done for all five factors. A list of all the elements (30) will be provided to show the highest (most performed) and lowest (least performed) scores allotted by participants. This list will also indicate the ten lowest (least performed) elements given to the deputy director by the other participants (director and subordinates).

Leadership behaviour weakness (red zone)						Leadership behaviour strength (green zone)			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
almost never	rarely	seldom	Once in a while	occasionally	sometimes	fairly often	usually	very frequently	almost always

Figure 6.3: Ten point Likert scale (Source: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:16)

- LPI percentile ranking of scores (external norm)

The analysis will also include a graph (percentile ranking graph) showing the actual scores of each category of participants in percentages (see figure 6.4 below). A percentile rank is typically defined as the *proportion of scores in a distribution that a specific score is greater than or equal to* (Elifson, Runyon and Haber, 1982:81). A category of participants' percentile rank on a norm-referenced evaluation (NRE) will indicate the proportion of participants in that group (category) who in the past have scored the same or lower than the participants in this study. For example, a category of participants in this study with a percentile rank of 75 would have provided a score that is equal to or more than 75 percent of the same category of participants in the LPI database. In other words, percentile rank indicates the category of participants' standing relative to other participants in that category who have participated in the LPI survey in the past. The percentile rank of a score is the percentage of scores in its frequency distribution that are the same or lower than it. Percentile ranks are commonly used to clarify the interpretation of scores on standardized tests (Hoel and Jessen, 1977:32-33).

Percentile rank should not be confused with *percent scored*. Percentile rank usually indicates how the category of participants in a study compare to other participants in the same category who have participated in the same survey in the past, while *percent scored* provides information about the *proportion of scores allocated* by a category of participants in relation to the total scores found in a factor. For example if a category of participants (deputy directors) has scored 47 out of 60 (10x6) on factor 2 (inspire a shared vision), the *percent scored* would be $47 \times 100 / 60 = 78\%$. In other words, percentile rank is definitely not the percent of allocated scores. Percent correct scores are normally analysed under the criterion referenced evaluation (CRE) method which assesses participants' evaluation of their leader's performance in terms of his or her leadership behaviour based on a *specific set of standards or criteria* (behavioural statements). These criteria are based on specific leadership skills or objectives the individual leader being evaluated possesses. In other words, the criterion referenced evaluation *measures the level to which the criteria have been met* by scoring on a Likert scale that has values from 1 to 10 (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:14-16).

A norm-referenced evaluation (NRE) involves comparing a category of participants' score with the scores provided by other participants of the same category who have participated in the LPI survey in the past. In other words, the usefulness of the scores provided by a category of participants become even more meaningful when those scores are pitted against past scores that were provided by

participants of the same group or norm. *High percentile* will mean that deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture are more effective when playing the leadership role whereas *low percentile* will indicate a situation where deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture will be regarded as being not so effective when they play their leadership role. In other words, norm referenced evaluation (NRE) is generally used for the purpose of comparing a participant's leadership behaviour perceptions to other people who took the same survey in the past. *The results are reported in comparison to other people in the same category rather than how much of a specific criterion has been met* (Elifson *et al.* 1982).

Percentile ranks are often normally distributed (bell-shaped see figure 6.4 below) and as depicted on figure 6.4 below, percentiles are values of x that divide the histogram into 100 equal parts. The philosophy behind the normal distribution (also known as the Gaussian distribution named after Gauss who did so much research on it) is that most phenomena when studied seem to gravitate towards the centre (called the mean) (Clark and Cooke, 1989:16). The mean is the midpoint and it divides the data into two segments with equal parts (Elifson *et al.* 1982:95).

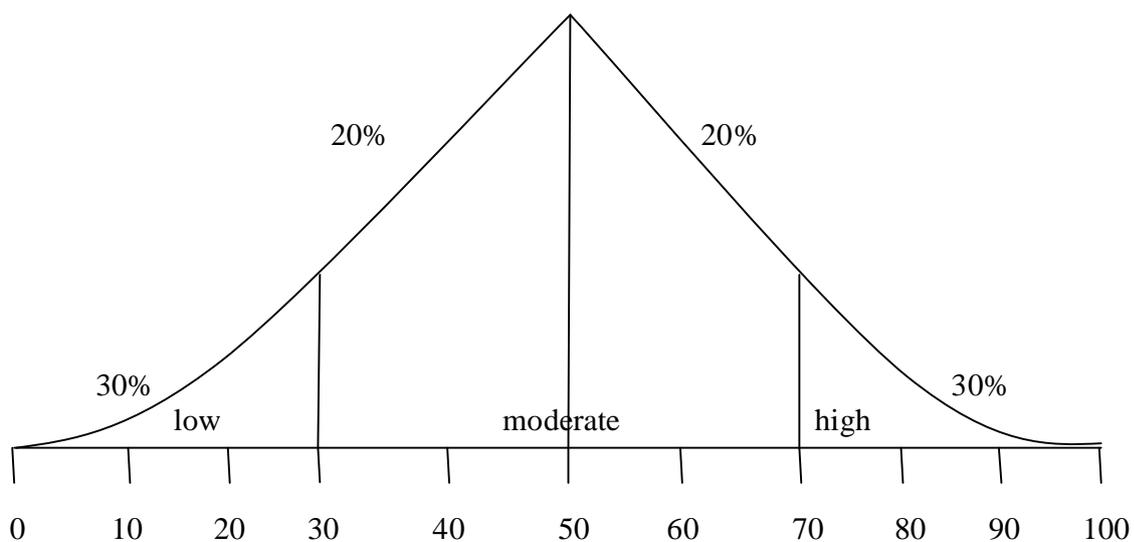


Figure 6.4: LPI percentile normal distribution (Source: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:112)

For the purpose of this study, the percentile rank distribution is indicated by figure 6.4 below where the percentile distribution is from zero to 100 (Clark and Cooke, 1989:49). The percentile values of x move from one point to the other by 10 and the midpoint of this distribution is at 50th percentile which may be regarded as the mean (midpoint of the percentile distribution). Kouzes and Posner (2003:112) have indicated that the area from the 31st percentile to the 69th is regarded as the 'moderate' or average (norm) where most of the participants' scores who have

taken part in the survey in the past fall. Scores from the 70th percentile to the 100th will be marked as being *öhighö* and likewise, scores between the 30th percentile and zero will be regarded as being *ölowö* (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:112).

The percentile ranking graph as depicted below (see figure 6.5) is critical in the interpretation of the data since it compares the scores of all participants who took part in this study against the scores of all the thousands of participants across the world that have been evaluated by the authors using the LPI. For the purpose of this study, this graph will be used as a measure of the level of *employee morale* where *öhighö* will represent high employee morale and *ölowö* will represent low employee morale.

Just like the normal distribution graph (figure 6.4), the percentile ranking graph (figure 6.5) is constructed on the principle of a normal distribution of scores. The graph is divided into three segments where the first line runs through the 30th percentile and the second line runs through the 70th percentile. The vertical axis of the graph provides the percentiles from zero to 100 with an incremental value of 10. The horizontal axis represents the five factors of the LPI survey (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart to endure). The segments as demarcated by the lines are such that the first segment denotes *ölowö* percentiles (from 0% to 30%) whereas the middle segments denotes *ömoderateö* percentiles (from 31% to 69%) and the third segment denotes *öhighö* percentiles (from 70% to 100%).

The meaning of the graph is that where the *percentile scores* of a category of participants for this study (deputy directors or directors or subordinates) fall within the *öhighö* zone (high zone according to the LPI graph is from 70% to 100%) is, say at 75%, this would mean that that category of participants for this study (deputy directors or directors or subordinates), would have scored equal to or higher in that factor than 75% of all category of participants that have taken part in the LPI survey in the past (Moore, 1991:216). Likewise, a *percentile score* of say 25% provided by any category of participants for this study (deputy directors or directors or subordinates) would mean that the category of participants who have taken part in the LPI survey in the past have scored 75% higher than the category of participants in this study in that factor under observation (100% - 25% = 75%) and would be regarded as being *ölowö* (low percentile scores according to the LPI percentile ranking is from 0% to 30%). Put in another words, 25% percentile score provided by any category of participants for this study (deputy directors or directors or subordinates) would mean that the score provided has 25% of the cases (LPI percentile distribution) equal to or below it (Malec, 1993:39). The reader is

reminded that a *percentile distribution* refers to the *proportion of scores in a distribution that a specific score is greater than or equal to* (Zeller and Carmines, 1978:48).

It is important that the reader be aware that the actual *calculation of percentiles is done by a computer programme* which means that only the results in terms of percentiles shall be displayed and not the process of calculation. This is mitigated by the fact that the data needed to calculate the percentiles are not provided by the authors of the LPI survey. However, the standard formula to calculate the percentiles in general (Elifson *et al*, 1982:85) is:

$$\text{Percentile rank} = \frac{\text{cum } \dot{e}_{,,} + \frac{X - X_{,,}}{i} (\dot{e}i)}{N} \times 100$$

This means that:

Cum $\dot{e}_{,,}$ = cumulative frequency at the lower real limit of the interval containing X,

X = given score,

X_{,,} = score at lower real limit of interval containing X,

i = width of interval,

$\dot{e}i$ = number of cases within the interval containing X.

The percentiles shall be calculated based on individual factors and the products (actual percentiles) shall be joined by means of a line graph. Another important point to bear in mind here is that the category of participants shall be treated separately which means that the percentile ranking is between the *same group* of participants which means that the percentile graph will consist of three lines representing deputy directors (D2), directors (D1), and subordinates (D3). On the graph, the five factors are represented by numbers 1 to 5 respectively.

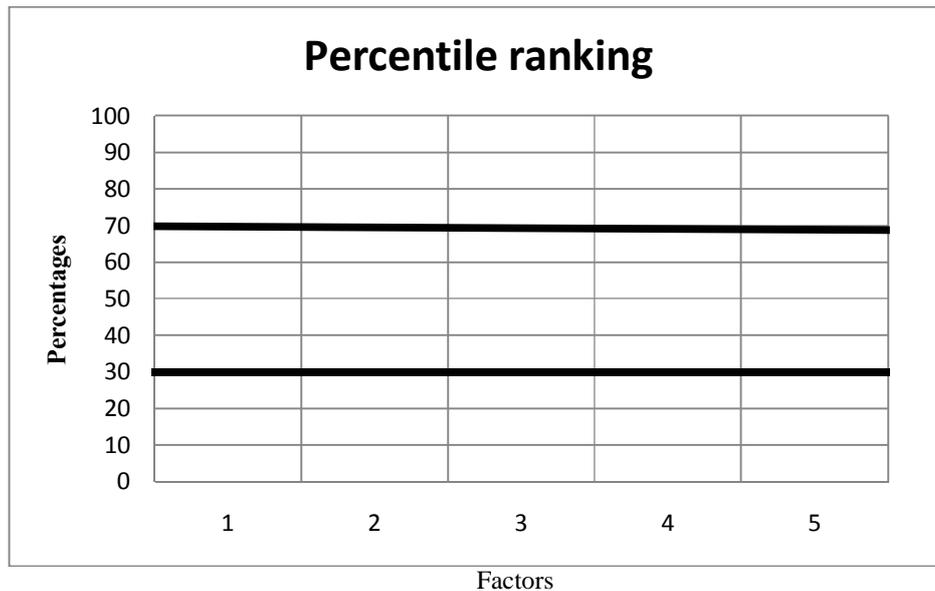


Figure 6.5: Normal distribution of percentile scores (Source: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:112)

6.3.6 Criterion for the confirmation or rejection of the hypothesis

The hypothesis and its attended sub-hypotheses shall be evaluated based on the criterion that is indicated in chapter 7 (see section 7.4) where in terms of percentage analysis of the data, a factor shall be regarded as leadership behaviour strength (rejection of the hypothesis) where the percentage is at least 65% or more (65% and above shall be regarded as being closer to 70% and 64% or less shall be regarded as being closer to 60%). For example where the six elements of a factor are added and then expressed in terms of percentage such as $37 \times 100 / 60 = 62\%$. This would mean that in terms of the group of participants providing these scores, deputy directors would have a leadership behaviour weakness because the percentage of that factor is less than 65% and this would mean that the hypothesis or any of its attended sub-hypotheses would be confirmed (main hypothesis and sub-hypotheses are expressed in the negative). The reader is constantly reminded that these parameters are set by the items found in the ten point Likert scale where it was decided that scores from 7 to 10 would be regarded as being leadership behaviour strength (main hypothesis and sub-hypotheses would be rejected where percentage score is from 65% and above).

6.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE LPI QUESTIONNAIRE

When designing and using a data collection instrument, it becomes critical for the researcher to observe two fundamental principles of research and they are: the

extent to which the instrument is accurate in measuring the data being collected and the extent to which the collected data provide credible evidence or indicate the actual condition of the variables being measured (Anderson, 2009:149; Cargan, 2007:229-235). The purpose of collecting empirical data is to draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding a particular issue or problem and if the instrument used is faulty, that is, does not measure the data being collected accurately, the conclusions being drawn from the provided data will not be valid (will not solve the problem being pursued). The fundamental question which every reader of a research report would be grappling with is, how reliable was the instrument used in measuring the data from which these findings were drawn and, how valid are these findings being presented? Schmitt and Klimoski (1991:88) attest to this situation by stating that meaningful research cannot be conducted where reliability of the measuring instrument is in question. This problem was clearly demonstrated in the Judge Nkola Motata's drunk-driving case which began in 2007 where Judge Motata was accused of crashing into a security wall somewhere in Johannesburg. At the centre of the dispute between the prosecutor and Judge Motata's lawyers was the way in which a blood sample was extracted from Judge Motata and the subsequent analysis thereof. The lawyer representing Judge Motata successfully repudiated the manner in which the blood sample was taken (three hours after the crash) and analysed and the court decided not to use the blood sample as evidence against Judge Motata (State has a strong case against judge; Prosecutor admits testimony not without problems. 2009. The Star, 02 June 2009:2).

In chapter 4 (see section 4.2) it was mentioned that one of the reasons for the choice of the LPI questionnaire as the chosen instrument for this study, was the fact that there is extensive research conducted using this instrument. This implies that since thousands of participants have been evaluated using the LPI questionnaire, it must have been constructed in such a way that issues of reliability and validity would have been sorted out along the way. The authors (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research) claim precisely that indeed these issues have been addressed and their arguments are presented below.

6.4.1 Reliability of the LPI questionnaire

The authors of the LPI have provided sufficient technical information in terms of the internal reliability of the LPI (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). Since the LPI is a commercial research instrument, the authors are obliged to provide technical information so that those who want to purchase the instrument have some form of assurance regarding its scientific adequacy and this is a standard

requirement of all tradable products where the buyer is usually provided with technical information regarding the functioning and handling of the product. As it has been argued above under section 6.4 that *reliability* and *validity* of any research instrument are paramount to the effective use of the instrument for the purpose of collective scientific data, the argument provided by the LPI authors is of critical importance in providing technical information regarding the LPI questionnaire.

The authors begin by explaining that the term ‘reliability’ refers to the extent to which an instrument contains *measurement errors that cause scores to differ for reasons unrelated to the individual respondent*. This means that the fewer the errors found, the more reliable the instrument is, and the established norm is that for a questionnaire to be accepted as having good reliability, it must have reliabilities scores that are above .60 (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). The authors claim that the factors found in the LPI have reliabilities that are consistently above .60 (see table 6.3). The authors have established that the tendency for the reliability coefficients of leaders seem to fall between .75 and .87 which is somewhat lower than the coefficients of their observers which are usually hovering between .88 and .92, and the authors proclaim that this is not an issue. Table 6.3 below depicts the reliability coefficients of leaders, their subordinates and managers as established by the authors after observing evaluations of a total sample size as follows:

- Leaders (self-people being evaluated) = 17908
- Managers (observers) = 1426
- Subordinates (observers) = 5234

Behaviour	Leaders (self)	Observers (all)	Managers	Subordinates
Model	.77	.88	.86	.90
Inspire	.87	.92	.92	.92
Challenge	.80	.89	.89	.90
Enable	.75	.88	.86	.89
Encourage	.87	.92	.92	.93

Table 6.4: Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) Coefficients for the LPI by Respondent Category (Sourced from Kouzes and Posner, www.leadershipchallenge.com/research)

What is of particular importance for this study is the point that was made in the beginning of this chapter that the most important usefulness of an existing

questionnaire is that it establishes the norm against which the data being collected can be compared. It is expected that the scores of all participants of the study will be compared with this data (norm) so as to identify any abnormalities which may indicate the extent to which each category of participants feel about the five factors contained in the LPI. Scores lower than the norm will indicate a worst case scenario whereas scores higher than the norm will indicate a highly effective leadership environment within the Department of Agriculture which in turn will imply that employee morale should be high.

6.4.2 Validity of the LPI questionnaire

Validity in terms of a research instrument addresses the question of whether or not that particular instrument truly measures what it purports to measure (trustworthiness) and, accordingly, whether its scores have meaning or utility for a respondent. Like reliability, validity is determined in a number of ways such as *face validity*, *criterion validity* and *construct validity* and this fall within the realm of *internal validity*" (Miller and Whicker, 1999:59). A pertinent point is made by these authors where they propose that "... validity and reliability refer not only to measurements but it includes also *empirical inferences*". After all, the test of empirical knowledge is not the validity of the measurements but rather the degree to which the inferences they support are consistent with future experience (Cherulnik, 2001:95-98). The decisive point is the validity of the empirical inferences, not the validity of the measurements upon which they are based (Miller and Whicker, 1999:59; Clark-Carter, 2004:39-42). These authors confirm what has been said above that the major issue around validity is the extent to which the empirical data reveal the truth about what was measured so that the conclusions made cannot lead to a situation where readers of the report begin to doubt the inferences being proposed. Before discussing the validity of the LPI questionnaire, it is important to provide a brief discussion of the internal validity concept so that the reader can have a better understanding of the arguments provided by Kouzes and Posner in terms of the validity of the LPI.

6.4.2.1 Face validity

Face validity sometimes called "content" validity is referring to the degree to which responses generated by the questions being asked are a true representative of the issues being investigated (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991:101; Dunn, 2010:184). For example, a questionnaire that seeks to investigate the "employment practices" of a particular institution should have questions that will be restricted to issues around "employment practices" so that the interpretation of the data collected from

participants can help in reaching correct conclusions regarding issues around employment practices of the institution being investigated. According to Schmitt and Klimoski (1991:102; Coolican, 2006:72-89), the person designing the survey instrument should ensure that the following conditions are met:

- The area of performance or behaviour about which conclusions are desired must be carefully demarcated.
- The intended uses of the questionnaire needs to be clearly formulated.
- The degree to which the test items reflect or sample the behaviour or performance being tested should be carefully specified.

6.4.2.2 Criterion validity

Criterion validity evaluates whether the items of the questionnaire reflects a certain set of abilities. In order to measure the criterion validity of a questionnaire, the person designing the questionnaire must calibrate it against a known standard (norm) or against itself (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991:103; Clark-Carter, 2004:31-32). The process of comparing the questionnaire against an *established* measure is known as *concurrent validity* (Cargan, 2007:232) and where the questionnaire itself is used over many times (such as the LPI) so that a pattern is established, is known as *predictive validity* (Dunn, 2010:185), that is, over time, a pattern of how data will behave when collected by the use of the same questionnaire will emerge. In short, criterion validity seeks to provide the norm against which the collected data can be compared (Cargan, 2007:233). For example, the argument that motorists who drive under the influence of alcohol may pose danger on the roads, can be measured by recording motorcar accidents and then test the status of those drivers who caused those accidents to see if there is any relationship between drunken driving and accidents. In other words, criterion validity establishes *cause-and-effect* relationship between the variables being investigated (Cargan, 2007:39).

6.4.2.3 Construct validity

Construct validity refers to the degree to which inferences can legitimately be made from the operationalisations of the questionnaire to the theoretical constructs on which those items on the questionnaire were based (Dunn, 2010:184). In other words, construct validity seeks to provide answers to the question: will the questionnaire measure what it ought to measure? In other words, is the questionnaire constructed in such a way that it should provide correct measure of the concept being investigated? This point is central to all academic studies because of the assumption that they must be based on a particular theory so that the

inferences produced would contribute to the body of that theory. For example, this study is about leadership behaviour and as such, it must ultimately contribute to the theory of leadership.

The preceding arguments on the validity of the questionnaire were important in the sense that the reader should now be in a position to evaluate the arguments provided by Kouzes and Posner in terms of their questionnaire (LPI). What the reader wants to establish is the extent of the validity of the LPI as a questionnaire that seeks to provide credible information in terms of leadership behaviour of those leaders who are being investigated. The following arguments regarding the validity of the LPI are provided by the authors as follows:

The authors claim that because of the fact that the items on the LPI are related to the statements that workshop participants generally make about their own or others' *personal-best leadership experiences*, respondents have found the LPI to have *excellent face validity* (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). Validity is also determined empirically (objectively) where *factor analysis* is used to determine the *extent to which the instrument items measure common or different content areas* (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). The results from various analyses reveal that the LPI contains five factors, the items within each factor corresponding more among themselves than they do with the other factors (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). For example, responses to the thirty leadership behaviour items were subjected to a principle factoring method with iteration and varimax rotation. Five factors were extracted with eigen-values greater than 1.0 and accounting for 60.5 percent of the variance. Five interpretative factors were obtained and these factors were consistent with the five subscales of the LPI. This was obtained even though a few item-factor loadings share some common variance across more than one factor. The stability of the five factor solution was tested by factor-analysing the data from different subsamples and in each case, the factor structure was essentially similar to the one involving the entire sample (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research).

The authors make a very important point when they proclaim that the question of whether the LPI scores are significantly related to other critical behavioural (individual and institutional) performance measures is probably the most important *practical* matter to participants (leaders and their institutions). This means that the effectiveness of any leader must induce derived institutional effectiveness. Overall, the LPI has excellent *concurrent validity*, and leadership scores are consistently associated with important aspects of *managerial* and *institutional effectiveness* such as *workgroup performance, team cohesiveness, commitment, satisfaction*, and

credibility (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). For example, utilising only the responses from the LPI-Observer, the authors examined the relationship between *leaders' effectiveness* and their *leadership practices* (as measured by the LPI). By including only the responses from other participants about their leaders, the authors claim that they were using relatively independent assessments, which contributed to the minimisation of potential *self-report* bias (most leaders tend to allocate high scores to themselves). Regression analysis was performed, to check if there was in fact a relation between leader competency and the LPI and this was done with *leader effectiveness* as the *dependent variable* and the *five leadership practices* as the *independent variables*. The regression equation was highly significant in the sense that the results indicated a state where $F = 318.88$, $p < .0001$ (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). The leadership practices explained over 55 percent (adjusted $R^2 = .756$) of the variance around constituents' assessments of their managers' leadership effectiveness (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research).

The authors also claim that another method for examining the *discriminant validity* of the LPI is to determine how well LPI scores differentiate between *high- and low-performing leaders* (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research). This issue was examined using *discriminant analysis* as a classification technique. The authors wanted to determine how well LPI scores could *group leaders* into various *performance-based categories*. The lowest third and highest third of the leaders on the LPI-Observer leader effectiveness scale formed the low- and high-performing categories. Approximately 85 percent of the sample of LPI-Observer respondents was used to create the *canonical discriminant function*, with the remaining 15 percent used to create a *holdout sample* for classification purposes. One discriminant function was derived and it correctly classified 92.6 percent of the known cases and 77.8 percent of the cases in the holdout sample. Including the middle third of the sample in this analysis, resulted in correct classification of 71.1 percent of the known cases and 67.9 percent of the holdout sample. All four of these results indicated a state that was beyond the .001 level of chance probability (www.leadershipchallenge.com/research).

6.5 ETHICAL ISSUES IN THE GATHERING OF THE EMPIRICAL DATA

The purpose of this section is to explain how ethical issues were handled in the entire study but more in particular those ethical issues that involve the collection and use of data from participants. Ethical issues by nature permeates right through the entire research process and according to Anderson (2009:79; Dunn, 2010:146-147), these issues can be packaged in the following order: firstly, ethical issues can

arise at research design and planning, secondly, ethical issues can also arise during the data-gathering process and, thirdly, ethical issues may arise after the data-gathering process. These issues are briefly discussed below as follows:

6.5.1 Ethical issues at research design and planning phase

Since this study was going to take place within a government institution, the first requirement was to ask for a written permission from appropriate authority within the Department of Agriculture (a copy will be attached as one of the appendices). The authority granted for the study to be conducted within the Department of Agriculture paved the way to issue letters to the units (directorates) that were identified as study centres (participants).

Once permission was granted, a letter was then sent to all potential participants through their directors informing them about the intended study (letter shall be appended). The purpose of the letter was to explain the aims and objectives of the study and it also mentioned the type of participants that were required to take part in the study. It was also explained that the information solicited from participants would be collected by means of a questionnaire.

6.5.2 Ethical issues at data-gathering process

Since the study was going to be conducted within the Department of Agriculture where the researcher was working, the distribution of the questionnaire was done personally where each directorate was visited and then the correct number of questionnaires was then handed over to the personal assistant (PA) of the director. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a letter that explained how the data requested should be entered. The letter (to be appended at the end of this thesis) also gave assurance that the information provided would be treated with utmost confidentiality and anonymity where names of individuals and those of directorates were not going to be mentioned.

As it was explained under section 6.3.3, that the names of the directorates would be coded so that the privacy of those participants who provided information from those directorates would be protected and the privacy of participants was also further protected by the fact that the empirical analysis would happen at institutional level where all the data provided by participants would be aggregated so that the views expressed by the participants who took part in the survey, becomes an institutional view (collective view of the Department of Agriculture) as opposed to functional units view (individual directorates of the Department of

Agriculture) or individual view (employees or officials of the Department of Agriculture in their individual capacity).

There was no attempt from the researcher to create an environment where potentially deceptive or covert methods of data-gathering could be employed. This means that the provision of information was a voluntary activity and indeed, those participants who did not want to take part in the study were not coerced and only participants who were willing to provide the data needed were able to do so and the actual number of participants who took part in the study will be provided in the next chapter (chapter 7 see section 7.2.2).

6.5.3 Ethical issues after the data-gathering process

When the permission to conduct the study was granted, it was agreed that once the results of the study were written, a presentation would then be arranged where feedback would be provided to those directors whose directorates took part in the study so that an opportunity could be afforded to those directors to suggest any amendments that would enhance fairness, accuracy and relevance. This exercise is important for the purpose of minimising conflicts and objections that may arise along the process which may prevent the thesis being approved by the University of South Africa under whose auspices it is conducted.

6.6 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss two issues pertaining to the method in which empirical data should be collected. The first issue was about the provision of a theoretical perspective wherein the methodology for collecting data was discussed. A theoretical framework was provided wherein the research process was discussed. It was pointed out that the research process must consist of the following sequential stages: identification of the problem to be resolved by the study, the provision of a guiding proposition packaged under the hypothesis, the reviewing of literature that is related to the subject being investigated, the drawing-up of a strategy or method that will guide the researcher during the data collection stage, and the collected data must be processed and analysed so that findings or conclusions and recommendations can be inferred.

The second issue that was discussed in this chapter was the research instrument that would be used to collect data. It was pointed out that the questionnaire would be the main instrument to be used for data collection for this study. A brief discussion of the questionnaire as a data collection instrument was provided where

issues around the designing of a questionnaire as a data collection instrument were discussed. The chapter proceeded by discussing how the Leadership Practices Inventory© (LPI) as a chosen data collection instrument for this study was designed and developed. Contents or items of the LPI were provided so that the reader could be made aware as to how data would be collected using the LPI. The chapter went on to discuss the manner in which the LPI was distributed to prospective participants and this was followed by a discussion on the processing and interpretation of the data to be collected using the LPI. The chapter proceeded by providing a brief discussion on issues around reliability and validity of a questionnaire in general and this was followed by a specific discussion on the reliability and validity of the LPI as the chosen instrument. Finally, this chapter also explored ethical issues in respect of the entire study.

Now that the essential *research methodological issues* have been discussed, the following chapter (chapter 7) will provide the *analysis of the empirical data* that was collected using the LPI questionnaire. It is hoped that the arguments presented in this chapter will provide a logical base for the reader to appreciate the analysis of the collected data (since the reader is now aware how the data was collected). According to the research process framework that was presented in section 6.2 above, the purpose of the analysis is to provide a 'sifting' process that will then enable the researcher to provide *inferences* in chapter 8.

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

“It’s not the mountain we conquer – but ourselves.” Sir Edmund Hillary.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Embarking on a research project is like trying to climb a mountain where the ultimate goal is to reach the summit and be able to tell those who have not yet undertaken the journey how wonderful the world looks like from the mountain top. In other words, the mountain climber begins to experience the world from a different perspective. But the biggest thrill comes when the successful mountain climber begins to describe the wonders of viewing the world from the top of the mountain to those who have not yet undertaken such a journey. Likewise, a researcher undertakes a research journey where data is collected that enables the researcher to view the world from a different perspective. But the biggest thrill of doing research is the discovery of facts through the analysis of the data and be able to tell those who have not yet undertaken such a research journey.

The purpose of chapter 7 is to present, analyse and discuss the empirical data that was collected from participants using the LPI questionnaire. The chapter will begin by discussing the challenges that were encountered during the data collection stage. The chapter will proceed by discussing the nature of the collected data so that the reader would be assisted in understanding how the data was packaged and this will be presented in a tabular form where factors/practices and their elements/behaviour would be packaged accordingly. After the analysis of the elements, the chapter will present and analyse the data according to total scores per factor as indicated in the table depicted under nature of collected data. The next point to be discussed would be the percentile ranking of the factors against the established LPI international norm. The percentile ranking will provide a stratification of the data per category of participants (deputy directors, directors and subordinates) according to all five factors. Finally, the data would be evaluated against the main hypothesis and also against the sub-hypotheses that were proposed in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) for the purpose of establishing whether the data do support these hypotheses or not.

It is important for the reader to bear in mind that the three categories of participants (deputy directors, directors, subordinates) were exposed to the same type of data

and what is being presented and analysed is the manner in which each group of participants *reacted to the data*.

The chapter will then proceed by evaluating the data against the hypothesis that was proposed in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) and this will be followed by concluding remarks in terms of the issues that emerged from this chapter.

7.2 CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED DURING THE DATA-GATHERING PROCESS

The aim of this section is to provide a brief description of the challenges that were encountered during the data-collection process. It is important to deal with these challenges here so that the reader can be able to understand the basis of the analysis that will be provided below. The first challenge that needs discussion is the nature and composition of all employees in the directorates that were included in the survey. There were thirty directorates that were selected for the study and this excluded directorates attached to the Minister's office and the Office of the Director-General. The second challenge to be considered refers to the number of copies that were distributed and also the actual number of copies that were subsequently returned. The third challenge pertains to the issue of concealing true feelings by inflating the scores given so as to project a positive image of the individual being evaluated.

7.2.1 Composition of employees in the Department of Agriculture

Although the survey was directed at three types of participants: deputy directors, directors and subordinates of deputy directors (assistant directors level 9-10), it is important to present an analysis of all employees so that a global (institutional) picture can be painted. Deputy directors do not operate in a vacuum, they are surrounded by a great number of other employees who are below assistant director level and these employees would invariably be affected by the leadership behaviour of deputy directors in the same extent and this implies that by definition, the survey should have extended to all employees below deputy directors. This was not done because it would have made the survey too cumbersome hence the survey was limited to those subordinates at level 9 and 10. The challenge here refers to the manner in which these employees are distributed within the Department of Agriculture which raises a serious leadership challenge for deputy directors. In chapter 2 (see section 2.5.5.1) a proposal was made that the effectiveness of any leader is also dependent upon the environment (situation) under which the leader operates. The *contingency approach* to leadership states that in order for a leader to

be effective, he or she must consider the type of followers he or she is dealing with as well as the nature of the environment under which the leadership process is happening (Rayner and Adam-Smith, 2009:56-59). Contingency means "it depends on other factors." For effective leadership, there needs to be an appropriate "fit" between the behaviour or leadership style of the leader and the attitudes and ability of the followers and also the type of environment under which the leadership process is being conducted (Lussier and Achua, 2004:140; Dym and Hutson, 2005:40; Isaksen and Tidd, 2006:311-312). The distribution of employees below deputy directors is depicted by figure 7.1 below.

There were thirty directorates (mainly functional units) that were selected for the survey with a total population of employees below deputy director level equalling two thousand five hundred and ninety (2590). These employees are distributed in the following categories: level 10 has 102 employees who constitute 4% of total population. Level 9 has 336 employees who constitute 13% of total population. Level 8 has 439 employees who constitute 17% of total population. Level 7 has 362 employees who make up 14% of total population. Level 6 consists of 369 employees who contribute 14% to the population of employees below deputy director level. Level 6 has 80 employees who make 3% of total employees and level 4 has 75 employees that contribute 3% to total population. Level 3 consists of 175 employees making 7% of total population and level 2 is made up of 652 employees who contribute 25% of total population. There was no level 1 at the time when the study was conducted within the selected directorates.

The challenge here is that the Department of Agriculture is a *national institution* whose main role is to provide *leadership, policies, norms and standards* for the agricultural sector and as such, it has to have an army of professional employees who are able to communicate with stakeholders at a high level and to do that, the minimum level should have been at least level 9 (assistant director level). But looking at the distribution of employees within the Department, one is confronted by a serious situation where the majority of the employees fall below level 9. For example, the Department is expected to provide guidance to all provincial departments of Agriculture and this involves the holding of meetings and the facilitation of workshops and how can an employee at level 8 be able to facilitate a meeting that is attended by provincial employees at level 12? The issue of levels in the public sector plays an important role in terms of estimating the *positional power* that an employee can exert towards others (Plunkett, Attner and Allen, 2005:259-60). Employees at lower levels will always find it tough to address employees at higher levels and more in particular when it involves issues of policies and strategies. This is tantamount to employing primary school teachers

without the required qualification to work as university lecturers and one doubt if such teachers can effectively deal with the situation. A war is fought and won using professionally trained soldiers who have the ability to handle any war situation.

Figure 7.1 reveals a serious leadership dilemma for the Department of Agriculture where only 17% of the employees (levels 9-10) can be deemed to be professionals who are capable of interacting effectively with provincial departments and the rest (83%) may not be properly placed in terms of providing effective professional services to provinces. What is even more worrying is the fact that a large number of employees are at level 2 (25%) which means that the Department is full of messengers, cleaners and tradesmen and these employees do not contribute directly to the mission of the Department. The restructuring of the Department is always an exercise in *painting the house with different colours* and never alter the shape of the house. To do proper restructuring, the Department needs to look seriously into the nature of employee distribution so that at the end, it should be populated with highly qualified and adequately trained professionals who will be able to deal with all stakeholders more in particular, provincial departments of agriculture on an equal footing. Changing the names of directorates does not lead to effective restructuring. Effective restructuring should result in a completely new order where the majority of the employees are professionals.

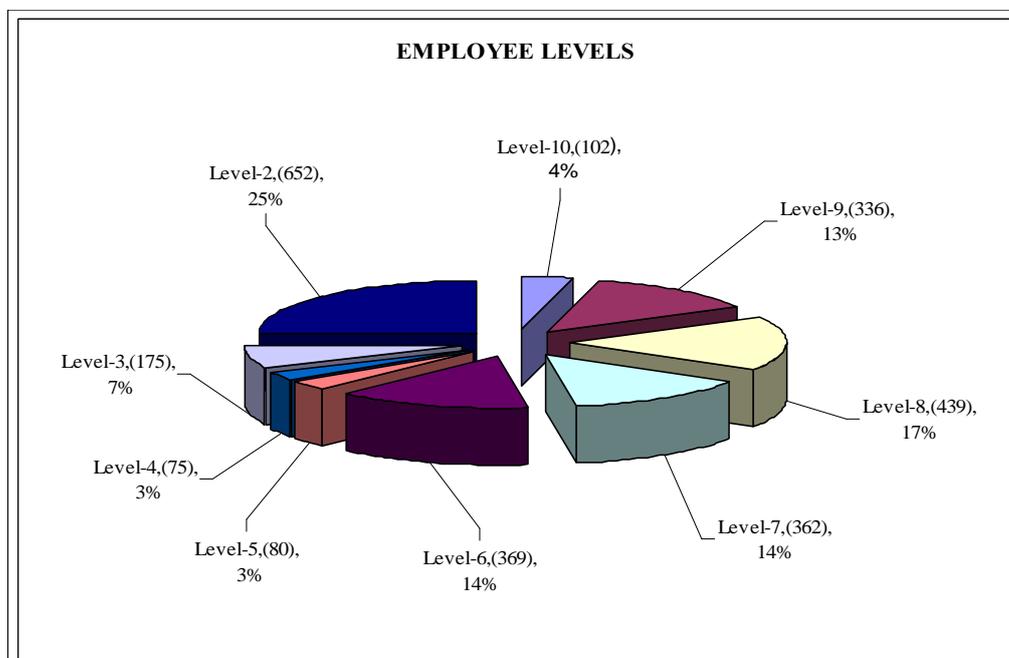


Figure 7.1: Employee levels (Source: DAFF 2009)

Another anomaly that was identified is that the distribution of employees among directorates is also not even. The largest number of employees found in one directorate was 439 employees whereas the lowest number of employees found in another directorate was 5. This is equivalent to a teaching situation where one teacher has 439 learners in his or her class whilst the other teacher next door has only five learners and yet these teachers must be paid the same salary. Surely, the directorate with 439 employees would be placed in an unfair situation and this means that all issues of employee leadership and management will lay heavily upon the shoulders of the director with such a large number of employees yet, at the end of the month he or she must earn the same salary (more responsibilities, less rewards).

7.2.2 Distribution and returns of the LPI questionnaires

The success of any research survey is largely dependent upon the willingness of the participants to take part in the survey. The LPI questionnaires were distributed to the following participants as shown below including the number of participants who responded:

Participants	Number of selected participants	Number of participants who responded	Percentage
1. Deputy directors (D2)	80	32	40.0%
2. Directors (D1)	30	15	50.0%
3. Subordinates (D3)	240*	76	31.7%

*limited to 3 subordinates per deputy director

Table 7.1: Number and category of participants (Source: Own)

Table 7.1 above depicts the category of people who were selected to take part in the survey. As mentioned before, three categories were identified: deputy directors, directors and subordinates of deputy directors. Eighty deputy directors were selected and 32 deputy directors responded which means that 40% of the category took part in the survey. There were 30 directors who were selected for the survey but only 15 of them responded which translates to 50% of response rate. The third category consists of subordinates of deputy directors (only those who hold levels 9 and 10) who had a total population of 438 individuals but limited to 3 subordinates per deputy director ($80 \times 3 = 240$). 76 of those participants responded and that translates to 31.7% response rate.

The challenge associated with the distribution of the questionnaires is that some participants showed no interest in the survey and as such they chose not to respond.

Initially, the researcher was hoping for higher response rate from all participants since the study was authorised by the Department and bearing in mind that the researcher is also an employee of the Department of Agriculture. However, this does not mean that people were coerced to respond. The process was entirely voluntary and that is why there was no attempt at pressuring participants to respond.

7.2.3 Fear regarding the provision of negative information

It was noticed that some directors tried to inflate the scores by awarding very high scores predominantly 10s and 9s so that their deputy directors could appear competent. This is a general phenomenon in survey research when the participants deliberately provide high scores because they do not want to invite further questions where the scores are too low. One then wonders if those directors were not doing so to protect themselves as they were aware that low scoring would directly impact on their own leadership behaviour in the sense that poorly performing deputy directors may blame their directors for not providing an environment that is conducive to effective leadership.

Another issue to consider here is the point of anonymity of the survey within directorates. The questionnaires were distributed and collected via the director's office and that may have influenced some participants as they were aware that the scores would be seen by both the director and the deputy director being evaluated. In some cases the deputy directors collected the questionnaires directly from their subordinates and in that case, some subordinates may have been reluctant to provide negative evaluation of their deputy directors.

Despite the research challenges provided above, the researcher believes that the data provided does represent the true reflection of the situation. This assurance is provided based on two conditions: firstly, the researcher is adequately familiar with the leadership situation within the Department of Agriculture since he currently works there, and secondly, the norm that is provided by the LPI will provide a *control mechanism* so that any abnormality can be easily detected.

7.3 NATURE OF THE COLLECTED DATA

Up to so far, the chapter has provided a brief discussion on peripheral but equally important issues and it is now time for the discussion to focus directly on the collected data for the purpose of making proper analysis. It is important for the reader to bear in mind the fact that although the data was collected from

individuals, the final analysis is at institutional level as it was explained in chapter 6 (see section 6.3.5.2) where it was argued that unfortunately, as the computer programme (that is part of the LPI) was designed to process data for *individual* leader and for *group* processing, the scores of all participants per directorate will be calculated manually and using the *average method*, the final product will be taken as the view of all participants in that particular category, for example, deputy directors, directors or subordinates. Since the analysis is done at institutional level, this process will be repeated until the data is uploaded to the institutional level. This means that the data will be aggregated from individual directorates to the entire institution so that the views of *all participants would be presented as an institutional view*. It is important here to note that the categorisation of participants, that is, deputy directors, directors and subordinates will be adhered to so that the analysis will be done in terms of the views of the particular category. For example, the views of directors in term of each factor would be treated separately from the views of the other group of participants.

Table 7.2 below depicts the final data as it was processed from the individual scores. This data forms the basis for all analysis and inferences that will be made in this chapter as well as in chapter 8. The table is provided so as to provide answers to the question: where does this data come from? The reader is reminded that the data comes from the participants and it was aggregated for the purpose of establishing the averages and this means that the figures provided in table 7.2 are the final average scores per element as scored by participants in their different categories. The data in table 7.2 was further categorised in terms of the five factors that make up the LPI model (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart). The elements/behaviour are listed under each factor (six per factor). Each element may be rated from 1 to 10 and that means that the total score per factor that can be awarded is $6 \times 10 = 60$. The total score for all five factors is $60 \times 5 = 300$. Table 7.2 also depicts the category of participants listed here as D2 (deputy director), D1 (director), and D3 (subordinates).

The reader will also note that questions are arranged in terms of factors and not as they appear in the LPI questionnaire as reflected in chapter 6 (see section 6.3.3) and for the sake of clarity, the number of each question as it appears in the LPI questionnaire is provided in brackets at the end of every question. For example, question number 6 under factor 1 (Model the way) reads "Deputy directors are clear about their philosophy of leadership (Q26)", and Q26 in brackets means that this question is question number 26 on the LPI survey. In other words, the

sequential placement of questions in the LPI survey is not followed in the analysis of the data.

Factors	Elements/behaviour	D2	D1	D3
Model the Way	1. Deputy directors set a personal example of what is expected (Q1)	8	6	7
	2. Deputy directors make certain that their subordinates adhere to agreed-on standards (Q6)	8	6	7
	3. Deputy directors follow through on promises and commitments (Q11)	8	6	7
	4. Deputy directors ask for feedback on how their actions affect subordinates' performance (Q16)	7	6	5
	5. Deputy directors build consensus around organisation's values (Q21)	8	7	7
	6. Deputy directors are clear about their philosophy of leadership (Q26)	9	6	7
Inspire a shared vision	1. Deputy directors talk about future trends influencing work (Q2)	7	6	6
	2. Deputy directors describe a compelling image of the future (Q7)	7	6	6
	3. Deputy directors appeal to others to share dream of the future (Q12)	6	6	6
	4. Deputy directors show others how their interests can be realised (Q17)	7	6	6
	5. Deputy directors paint a "big picture" of group aspirations (Q22)	8	7	7
	6. Deputy directors speak with conviction about meaning of work (Q27)	8	7	7
Challenge the process	1. Deputy directors seek challenging opportunities to test skills (Q3)	8	6	6
	2. Deputy directors challenge their subordinates to try new approaches (Q8)	7	6	6
	3. Deputy directors search outside the Department for innovative ways to improve (Q13)	7	7	6
	4. Deputy directors ask "what can we learn?" when things go wrong (Q18)	8	6	6
	5. Deputy directors make certain that goals, plans, and milestones are set (Q23)	8	6	7
	6. Deputy directors experiment and take risks (Q28)	7	6	6

Enable others to act	1. Deputy directors develop cooperative relationships (Q4)	9	7	7
	2. Deputy directors actively listen to diverse points of view (Q9)	8	7	7
	3. Deputy directors treat others with dignity and respect (Q14)	9	8	8
	4. Deputy directors support decisions made by their subordinates (Q19)	8	7	7
	5. Deputy directors give their subordinates choice about how to do their work (Q24)	8	7	8
	6. Deputy directors ensure that their subordinates grow in their jobs (Q29)	8	7	7
Encourage the heart	1. Deputy directors praise their subordinates for job well done (Q5)	8	7	7
	2. Deputy directors express confidence in their subordinates' abilities (Q10)	8	6	6
	3. Deputy directors creatively reward people for their contributions (Q15)	8	7	7
	4. Deputy directors recognise their subordinates' commitment to shared values (Q20)	8	7	6
	5. Deputy directors find ways to celebrate accomplishments (Q25)	7	7	5
	6. Deputy directors give team members appreciation and support (Q30)	8	7	7

Table 7.2: Average scores per category of participants

7.4 ANALYSING THE COLLECTED DATA

In chapter 6 (see section 6.3.5.3), it was explained how the data (discrete data) for the purpose of this study will be analysed and interpreted using a ten point Likert scale where data with values from 7 to 10 would be regarded as a leadership behaviour 'strength' whereas data with values from 1 to 6 would be regarded as a leadership behaviour 'weakness'. Figure 6.3 which is repeated below here as figure 7.2 was presented for the purpose of indicating the values of 1 to 10 where the *green zone* is regarded as leadership behaviour strength while the *red zone* is representing leadership behaviour weakness. The reader is reminded that it is the *frequency of engagement* that determines the level of *leadership behaviour condition* and one can deduce from figure 7.2 that the items on the Likert scale from 7 to 10, denote a situation where deputy directors frequently engage or practice in the element being analysed whereas items from 1 to 6 indicate

infrequent engagement or practice in the element being analysed. The reader must bear in mind that this study seeks to measure leadership behaviour which can either be regarded as a strength because *deputy directors frequently behave that way* or it can also be regarded as a weakness where deputy directors *do not normally behave in that way*.

Another important point to be noted here for the purpose of this study is that where the difference in the ratings of elements between the deputy directors and the other groups of participants (directors and subordinates), is more than 1.5, this will be regarded as a significant difference. The 1.5 is the value that is regarded by Kouzes and Posner, (2003:108) as being acceptable or normal in terms of the *range between two variables* of the LPI scores. For example deputy directors may rate themselves on one of the elements as being worthy of a 9 whereas the subordinates or directors may allocate a 6. This means that the range between 9 and 6 is 3 which is twice the accepted range of 1.5 and this may be interpreted to mean that the difference is of significant nature and may be taken as an indication that the observers (directors and subordinates) are not convinced that their deputy directors are doing a good job in terms of that particular element.

Leadership behaviour weakness (red zone)					Leadership behaviour strength (green zone)				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
almost never	rarely	seldom	Once in a while	occasionally	sometimes	fairly often	usually	very frequently	almost always

Figure 7.2: Ten point Likert scale (Source: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:16)

It should also be borne in mind at this point that the role of directors and subordinates in this study is to provide a *control mechanism* which is usually known as a *360 degree feedback* because of the ability of the observers to provide different scores to those provided by the leaders (deputy directors) being evaluated. It is generally understood that any person who is subjected to a behaviour evaluation would tend to rate himself or herself high because no reasonable person would regard himself or herself as a failure more in particular when it concerns managerial leadership and in siSwati, this phenomenon is idiomatically coined "*licaca alitiva kunuka* (a skunk is not affected by its stink)ö. The inability of leaders to be conscious of the impact of their behaviour has resulted in numerous leadership derailment consequences of leaders in South Africa and the writer maintains that it is probably one of the most potent killers of leadership careers in the public sector. For example, one has probably learnt about the leadership derailment of top leaders in the quasi-government institutions such as the South

African Airways, Denel, Spoornet, Eskom and others as well as in the traditional government departments.

In terms of percentage analysis of the data, a factor shall be regarded as leadership behaviour strength where the percentage is at least 65% or more. For the purpose of this study, 6.5 or 65% and higher will be regarded as a 7 and in view of this, it will be regarded as referring to frequent engagement determining leadership behaviour; in other words, it would be regarded as a leadership behaviour strength as it would be lying closer to point 7 (fairly often) on the Likert scale than to point 6 (sometimes). For example where the six elements of a factor are added and then expressed in terms of percentage such as $37 \times 100 / 60 = 62\%$. This would mean that in terms of the group of participants providing these scores, deputy directors have a leadership behaviour weakness because the percentage of that factor is less than 65%. The reader is constantly reminded that these parameters are set by the items found in the ten point Likert scale where it was decided that scores from 7 to 10 would be regarded as leadership behaviour strength and where these scores are converted into percentages, the same principle should obviously be applied.

Another purpose of this chapter is to package the data reflected in table 7.2 in a graphical format and then conduct an analysis regarding the behavioural connotations (inferences) of the data as reflected on the graph (bar graph). This exercise will be conducted for all the five factors and the main aim being to answer the following questions as posited by the LPI questionnaire authors (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:93-95):

- In which behaviour/s do deputy directors give themselves the highest rating?
- In which behaviour/s do they rate themselves second highest?
- Which is their lowest rated behaviour/s?
- In which behaviour/s do directors give their deputy directors the highest rating?
- Which is the second highest behaviour given by directors?
- Which is the lowest score awarded by directors to their deputies?
- In which behaviour do subordinates give their deputy directors the highest rating?
- Which is the second highest behaviour given by subordinates?
- Which is the lowest behaviour rated by subordinates?
- Is there any similarity between the scores of the deputy directors, directors and subordinates?
- If there are differences, what could be the cause?

7.5 ANALYSING THE DATA: LEADERS MODEL THE WAY

The first factor to be analysed using a bar graph is called 'model the way' and for the purpose of this study, to 'model the way' is to provide exemplary leadership where the actions or behaviour of deputy directors are in line with their stated leadership paradigms (beliefs). Leadership credibility is the foundation of leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2003b:13). Leadership credibility is earned by ensuring that what leaders say they will do is actually what they do. In other words, the actions of leaders must synchronise with their voices and this can be achieved by clarifying personal values and beliefs which must be expressed in a personal style that is devoid of mimicry. It is at that point where leaders would be able to build common bond with their subordinates that is based on a set of common values that every member identifies with and is willing to defend. These issues were extensively discussed in chapter 4 (see section 4.3) and the analysis that will be conducted here merely *puts the theory into practice* so as to ascertain whether deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture are doing a good job or not in terms of exemplary leadership.

7.5.1 Ratings by all participants

Figure 7.3 below depicts the scores that were provided by participants in terms of this factor (model the way) in a form of a bar graph. The elements/behaviour are plotted on the vertical axis (y) and the scores awarded are plotted on the horizontal axis (x). Deputy directors' scores are represented by the *blue bar* whereas the *red bar* represents the scores provided by directors. The *green bar* represents the scores provided by subordinates. Scores range between 10 (the highest) and 1 (the lowest). The ratings should be regarded as indicators of *strengths and weaknesses* of deputy directors in terms of the behaviour being analysed as was discussed under section 7.4 above (see figure 7.2). The highest scores (7 to 10) represent strengths and the lowest scores (1 to 6) represent weaknesses in terms of the element/behaviour being analysed. The scores are analysed below in the following manner:

7.5.1.1 Ratings by deputy directors

According to the first question that was asked in factor 1 (model the way), as reflected in table 7.2 above, the highest score that was given by deputy directors is element number 6 where a score of 9 was awarded. This element states that deputy directors are clear about their philosophy of their leadership. In other words, deputy directors perceive themselves as leaders who know a great deal about issues

of exemplary leadership. This also means that deputy directors perceive themselves as leaders who are able to synchronise their actions with their voices (what they say is what they do).

There are four elements that were rated by deputy directors as being second highest (score given is 8). Deputy directors set a personal example of what is expected (element 1), they also make certain that people adhere to agreed-on standards (element 2), deputy directors also perceive themselves as leaders who are able to follow through on promises and commitments that they make to their subordinates (element 3), and deputy directors perceive themselves as leaders who are able to build consensus around institutional values (element 5). The lowest rated element by deputy directors is number 4 (score given is 7) which refers to issues of asking feedback from their subordinates on how their actions (behaviour) affect the morale of their subordinates. Although this element (element 4) is rated by deputy directors as being their lowest, it is still regarded as strength according to the ten point Likert scale that was discussed under section 7.4 above.

In terms of this factor (model the way) it can be deduced that deputy directors perceive themselves as having *leadership behaviour strength* in issues relating to exemplary leadership to their subordinates.

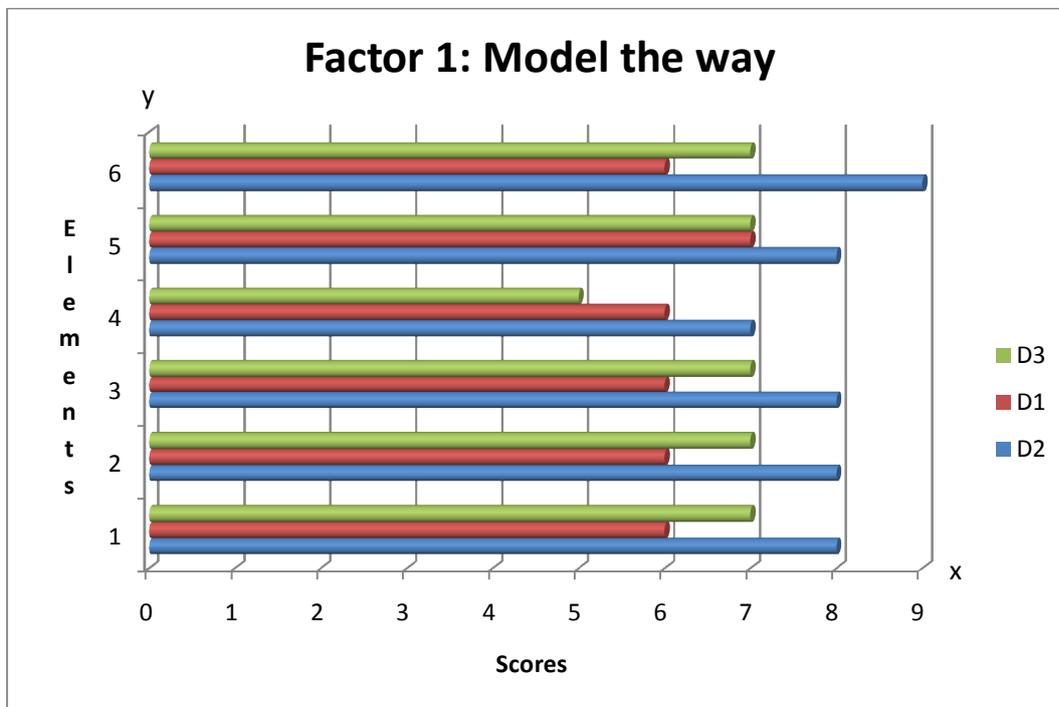


Figure 7.3: Participants' scores - Leaders model the way (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:106)

7.5.1.2 Ratings by directors

Directors have rated element 5 the highest (score 7). They believe that their deputy directors are capable of building consensus around institutional values. In other words, directors imply that their deputy directors have in-depth understanding of institutional values of the Department of Agriculture (for institutional values, see chapter 5 section 5.4). The lowest ranked elements (with a score value of 6) according to directors are: deputy directors set a personal example of what is expected (element 1), deputy directors make certain that their subordinates adhere to agreed-on standards (element 2), deputy directors follow through on promises and commitments they make to their subordinates (element 3), deputy directors ask for feedback on how their feedback affect their subordinates' performance (element 4), and deputy directors are clear about their philosophy of their leadership (element 6). According to the ten point Likert scale, and since these five elements were given a score of 6, directors perceive these elements as weaknesses of deputy directors. In other words, directors feel that their deputy directors need to engage more frequently in: setting a personal example of what is expected (element 1), make certain that their subordinates adhere to agreed-on standards (element 2), deputy directors need to follow through on promises and commitments they make to their subordinates (element 3), deputy directors need to ask for feedback on how their actions affect their subordinates' performance (element 5), and deputy directors need more clarity about their philosophy of leadership to be able to provide exemplary leadership (element 6).

7.5.1.3 Ratings by subordinates

According to figure 7.3, subordinates gave their deputy directors the highest score in five elements and the score awarded is 7 on the following elements: deputy directors set a personal example of what is expected (element 1), make certain that their subordinates adhere to agreed-on standards (element 2), deputy directors do follow through on promises and commitments they make to their subordinates (element 3), and subordinates also feel that their deputy directors do build consensus around institutional values (element 5). Subordinates also believe that their deputy directors are clear about their philosophy of leadership (element 6). Since these elements were given a score of 7, they are regarded as strengths of deputy directors which mean that subordinates perceive their deputy directors as engaging frequently in those elements. The lowest ranked element according to subordinates is number 4 which was awarded a score of 5. This element deals with issues of eliciting feedback from subordinates regarding conducts of deputy directors. A score of 5 on this element is the lowest of all the groups of participants

and it means that according to subordinates, deputy directors do not ask for feedback on how their actions affect subordinates' performance as frequently as they should.

7.5.2 Similarities and differences in the ratings

Figure 7.3 provides an interesting revelation in terms of agreement and disagreement of the participants. The three groups of participants do not agree in their ratings except on element 5 (deputy directors build consensus around organisation/institution's values) where directors and subordinates gave similar ratings (score given 7). This element refers to issues around building consensus around institutional values and strength in this element means that deputy directors are able to articulate the values of the Department of Agriculture more frequently to their subordinates.

Another observation to note is that directors rated their deputy directors lowest on most elements which may mean that they are not convinced that their deputy directors engage strongly on issues of *modelling the way* (exemplary leadership). Although most of the scores provided by subordinates are higher than the scores provided by directors, the scores are lower than those provided by deputy directors which may also indicate that all three groups of participants differ in terms of their perception regarding the ability of deputy directors to act as exemplary leaders. According to the Likert scale classification criteria, subordinates regard five of the elements (except element 4) as leadership behaviour strengths for deputy directors whereas directors seem to disagree. According to directors, most of the elements (five elements except element 5) are regarded as leadership behaviour weaknesses for deputy directors because they fall below 7 on the Likert scale.

It is important to reiterate the discussion that was presented under section 7.4 above regarding the extent of rating difference between deputy directors and the observers (directors and subordinates) where it was stated that where the difference in the ratings of elements between the deputy directors and the other groups of participants (directors and subordinates), is more than 1.5, this will be regarded as a significant difference. In other words, when groups of participants provide different scores, it is also important to look at the *extent* of the difference to ascertain whether it is *light* (minor) or *intense* (major) because if it is too intense, it means that the observers feel strongly about what is being stated in that particular element.

The 1.5 is the value that is regarded by Kouzes and Posner, (2003:108) as being acceptable or normal in terms of the *range between two variables* of the LPI scores (the wider the range, the larger the difference of opinion). For example, deputy directors may rate themselves on one of the elements as being worthy of a 9 whereas the subordinates or directors may allocate a 6. This means that the range between 9 and 6 is 3 which is twice the accepted range of 1.5 and this may be interpreted to mean that the difference is of significant nature and may be taken as an indication that the observers (directors and subordinates) are not convinced that their deputy directors are doing a good job in terms of that particular element.

It is apparent that most of the scores provided by directors for this factor (model the way) have a difference from deputy directors' view that is more than 1.5 and the only elements that differ more than 1.5 in terms of subordinates are element 4 and element 6 which confirms that subordinates seem to concur with their deputy directors that this factor is a leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors whereas directors feel otherwise.

These differences are indicated on table 7.3 below:

Element/behaviour	D2	D1	D3	Difference exceeding 1.5
Set personal example of what is expected	8	6*	7	D1-2
Make certain that subordinates adhere to agreed-on standards	8	6*	7	D1-2
Follow through on promises and commitments	8	6*	7	D1-2
Ask for feedback on how their actions affect their subordinates' performance	7	6	5*	D3-2
Build consensus around institutional values	8	7	7	
They are clear about their philosophy of leadership	9	6*	7*	D1-3 D3-2

*Difference between deputy directors' scores and the other participants' exceeding 1.5

Table 7.3: Differences in participants' ratings of Leaders model the way (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003b:108)

7.5.3 Possible reasons for disagreements

Modelling the way is a situation where the leader sets the *leadership agenda* so that followers can *emulate it* (chapter 4, section 4.3). In other words, the leader becomes a *model* for good leadership and to be exemplary to others, the leader needs to foster *good communication among group members* (see chapter 3 where it was discussed that *esprit de corps* among group members is also influenced by the *nature and flow* of communication within the group). The lowest score provided by

all participants is around element 4 (ask for feedback on how their actions affect their subordinates' performance) and since even deputy directors themselves agree that feedback on their actions is their lowest score, there is no way of knowing how their directors and more in particular, their subordinates feel about the way they lead. The possible result of lack of feedback is *group resentment* which in turn leads to *group disunity*, hence the disagreements in terms of the scores awarded because directors as a group are not quite convinced that their deputies are doing a good job in providing exemplary leadership and on the other hand, subordinates may be unhappy the way they are treated by their deputy directors. The main thing to note here is that directors and subordinates may be affected differently (directors may feel that their deputies are not always providing exemplary leadership whereas subordinates may resent the manner in which they are being led which may be exacerbated by the fact that feedback is not elicited), hence, the different scoring among them.

7.6 ANALYSING THE DATA: LEADERS INSPIRE A SHARED VISION

Once leaders have clarified their leadership values (exemplary leadership) as stated under factor 1 (model the way), the next factor to consider according to Kouzes and Posner (2003:13) is the one that deals with the promotion of the institutional vision to which leaders ascribe so that their subordinates can be enlisted in a manner that synchronises subordinates' own dreams with the main vision of the institution and this is done through the process of providing an *inspiring vision* that is understood and *shared* by all subordinates (see chapter 4, section 4.4). This factor (inspire a shared vision) seeks to evaluate how deputy directors inculcate the culture of promoting the vision of the Department of Agriculture to their subordinates so that it can be embraced or shared by all. Employees find meaning to their work when they know that what they do contribute to the bigger goal of the Department. This section will also provide analysis based on the same format that was employed under factor 1 which covers the following issues: ratings by all participants, similarities and differences in the ratings, and possible reasons for disagreements.

7.6.1 Ratings by all participants

Just like figure 7.3 above, figure 7.4 provides the scores that were provided by participants in terms of this factor (inspire a shared vision). The elements/behaviour are plotted on the vertical axis (y) and the scores awarded are plotted on the horizontal axis (x). Deputy directors' scores are represented by the *blue bar* whereas the *red bar* represents the scores provided by directors. The

green bar represents the scores provided by subordinates. Scores range between 10 (the highest) and 1 (the lowest). The scores are analysed below in the following manner:

7.6.1.1 Ratings by deputy directors

Deputy directors rated themselves highest on two elements: element 5 (paint a big picture of group aspirations) and element 6 (speak with conviction about meaning of work). This means that deputy directors perceive their leadership behaviour strength to be in their ability to articulate group aspirations (what the group need to do) and also they regard themselves as having ability to emphasise the meaning of work to their subordinates, that is, provide the reason why the tasks allocated to the group is so important towards the accomplishment of the mission of the Department. Both elements were given a score of 8.

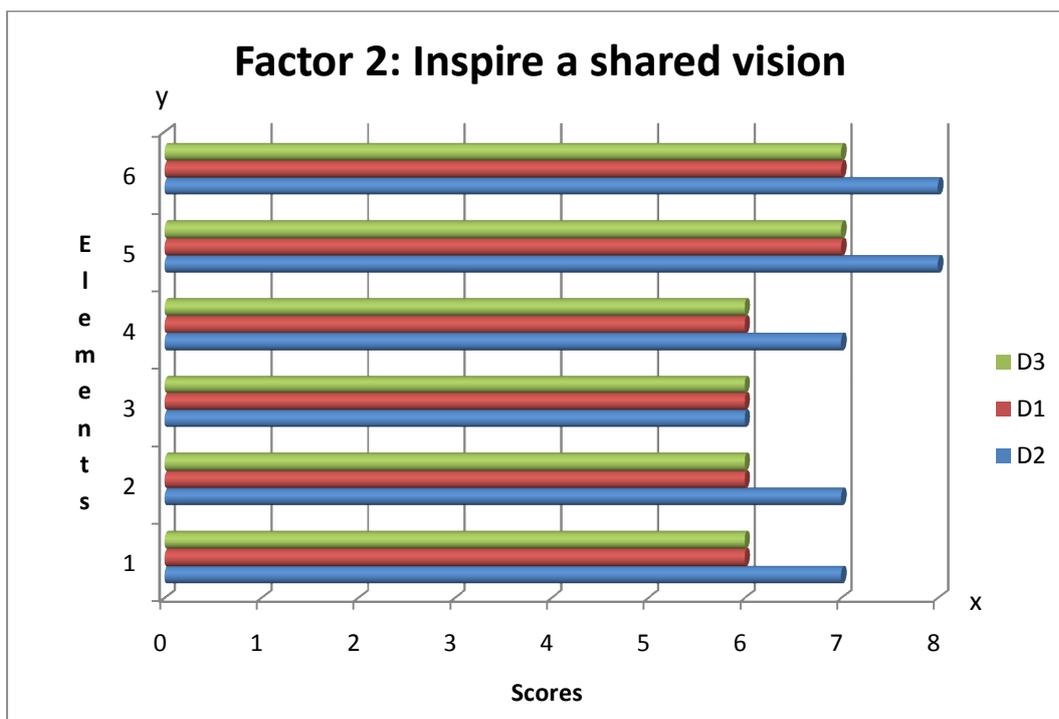


Figure 7.4: Participants' scores - Leaders inspire a shared vision (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:106)

Three elements (element 1, element 2 and element 4) were rated second highest and since these elements were given a score of 7, they are also regarded as leadership behaviour strength as established on the ten point Likert scale classification criteria. This means that deputy directors perceive themselves as having the ability to discuss with their subordinates about future trends that may

have influence in the manner in which work would be performed. Deputy directors also perceive themselves as having the ability to describe a compelling image of the future, that is they regard themselves as future - directed leaders (futurists) and in the process, deputy directors perceive themselves as having the ability to demonstrate to their subordinates how their (subordinates) aspirations can be realised by ascribing or sharing to the broader vision of the Department, that is, deputy directors preach the philosophy of a win ó win situation where subordinates are encouraged to support the vision of the Department and in return, their own aspirations become realisable. For example, by working hard and supporting the vision of the department, subordinates can be supported in their desire to engage in further studies which will ultimately enable them to òclimb the institutional ladder (career advancement opportunities)ö.

Deputy directors have rated themselves lowest on element 3 where a score of 6 was awarded and this means that they perceive themselves as having a leadership behaviour weakness in this element which according to the ten point Likert scale is classified as a leadership behaviour weakness. This element deals with issues of appealing to subordinates to share in the dream about the future. The dichotomy between this element and element 2 (deputy directors describe a compelling image of the future) is that whilst deputy directors are able to describe a compelling image of the future, they do not have the ability to convince their subordinates about future prospects. In other words, deputy directors do not know how to sell the vision to their subordinates although they are able to describe it. Why is this the case? To provide a possible explanation, the reader is referred to factor 1 (element 4) where subordinates provided the lowest score (score of 5) regarding issues of being given the opportunity to provide feedback on how the behaviour of their deputy directors affect their (subordinates) performance. This means that since deputy directors do not ask for feedback, they are most likely not going to share their vision either with their subordinates and hence they perceive themselves as not having done enough in this element (element 3).

7.6.1.2 Ratings by directors

The highest score given by directors is also for element 5 (paint a òbig pictureö of group aspirations) and element 6 (speak with conviction about meaning of work). These elements were given a score of 7 and according to the ten point Likert scale classification criteria, these represent leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors. This means that directors agree with their deputies that these two elements are the ones where deputy directors are proficient.

Four elements (element 1, element 2, element 3 and element 4) were rated by directors as leadership behaviour weakness with a score of 6 and according to the Likert scale classification criteria, these are classified as leadership behaviour weakness as they fall below 7. It is interesting to note that these elements were given the same score (score of 6) exactly the same score that was given to elements 1 to 4 under factor 1.

As was the case under factor 1, directors are not convinced about their deputies' ability to inspire a shared vision by talking about future trends influencing work convincingly to their subordinates. Since directors were not convinced that their deputies provide effective exemplary leadership (factor 1), they are equally not convinced that their deputies are capable of describing a compelling image of the future as well as appealing to their subordinates to share in the vision and finally, directors are not convinced that their deputies are able to demonstrate to their subordinates how aspirations of subordinates can be reconciled and accomplished within the wider vision of the Department.

7.6.1.3 Ratings by subordinates

The highest score given by subordinates is also for element 5 (paint a 'big picture' of group aspirations) and element 6 (speak with conviction about meaning of work). These elements were given a score of 7 (which is exactly the same as the score given by directors). Since these elements were rated 7, it means that they are classified as leadership behaviour strength on the Likert scale classification criteria and this means that both subordinates and directors share the same views in terms of these elements.

Just like directors, subordinates have provided a score of 6 on the remaining four elements (element 1, element 2, element 3 and element 4) and according to the Likert scale classification criteria, these elements are regarded as leadership behaviour weakness by subordinates. Possible reason for rating this element low could also be attributed to element 4 of factor 1 where it was mentioned that deputy directors have failed to ask their subordinates' feedback on how their leadership style affect the performance of subordinates. This means that if feedback is not adequately solicited on this issue, it would most probably also indicate a situation where deputy directors do not talk about future trends that influence the way work would be done. This would also mean that deputy directors are not able to describe a compelling image of the future to their subordinates and also, it means that deputy directors do not share with their subordinates the vision of the Department in a convincing manner, and finally, subordinates are also not

convinced that their deputy directors are able to demonstrate to them how their aspirations as subordinates can be reconciled and accomplished within the wider vision of the Department.

7.6.2 Similarities and differences in the ratings

The ratings of all participants have a difference of not more than 1.5 which can be regarded as a condition of close similarity. In other words, all participants agree that deputy directors have strengths and weaknesses as indicated by the ratings provided. However, the similarities among the scores seem to indicate a condition of serious weakness in terms of the behaviour of deputy directors as far as this factor is concerned as close examination of the ratings shows that, although the different participants agree, the ratings given are low. Even deputy directors themselves have rated themselves low on four elements where they provided scores of 7s and their highest score is a mere 8 whereas in the previous factor, the highest score was a 9.

7.6.3 Possible reasons for agreements

Out of the six elements, deputy directors perceive themselves as having leadership behaviour strength on 5 elements (elements 1, element 2, element 4, element 5 and element 6). However, directors and subordinates perceive their deputy directors to have leadership behaviour strength only on two elements (element 5 and element 6). These elements talk about *group aspirations* and the *meaning of work* and these are matters of today (things done now) but when it comes to matters of the future (future directed activities), directors and subordinates are not convinced that their deputy directors are doing a good job regarding those activities that talk to the future. For instance, element 1 looks at future trends that may influence work currently performed. Element 2 talks about a situation where deputy directors ought to describe a compelling image of the future (how things would look like in the future) and element 3 refers to a situation where deputy directors ought to appeal to others to share the vision of the future. In addition, element 4 looks at issues where deputy directors are supposed to show their subordinates how their own dreams can be realised whilst working for the Department.

The implication of the preceding paragraph is that deputy directors may not have a clear vision of where the Department is going and as such, they are unable to preach it to their subordinates and the consequence of that is a situation where subordinates may not be informed about the nature and scope of the future direction the Department is embarking upon and these leadership behaviour

weaknesses may indirectly affect the morale of the subordinates as they are not being adequately informed about the future direction of their Department (in other words, how can they sing the Lord's song in a strange land?).

7.7 ANALYSING THE DATA: LEADERS CHALLENGE THE PROCESS

This factor (factor 3) seeks to evaluate how deputy directors challenge the process so that the activities done by the officials of the Department can be brought in line with its vision. Synchronisation of departmental activities is vital for the purpose of ensuring that the key results areas (KRAs) that were discussed in chapter 5 are realised. Challenging the process is essentially a situation that seeks to provide management strategies to the changing environment. Deputy directors as leaders are also expected to act as *change agents* so that the work performed by their subordinates contributes towards the realisation of the new vision of the Department. As it was mentioned under 7.6 above, subordinates find meaning to their work when they know that what they do contributes to the bigger goal of the Department. This section will also provide analysis based on the following sections: ratings by all participants, similarities and differences in the ratings, and possible reasons for disagreements.

7.7.1 Ratings by all participants

Just like in the previous sections where the data was presented in a bar graph, figures, figure 7.5 below depicts the scores that were provided by participants in terms of this factor (leaders challenge the process). The elements/behaviour are plotted on the vertical axis (y) and the scores awarded are plotted on the horizontal axis (x). Deputy directors' scores are represented by the *blue bar* whereas the *red bar* represents the scores provided by directors. The *green bar* represents the scores provided by subordinates. Scores range between 10 (the highest) and 1 (the lowest). The scores are analysed below in the following manner:

7.7.1.1 Ratings by deputy directors

Ratings by deputy directors in this factor indicate three elements that were rated highest with a score of 8 (element 1, element 4 and element 5). Element 1 deals with issues of providing an environment where deputy directors are able to seek challenging opportunities for the purpose of testing their own skills as change agents. This is the point when deputy directors become 'enterprising' by deliberately looking out for challenging opportunities in the course of moving the Department towards the realisation of its stated objectives/goals. The second

element that was given a score of 8 is element 4 which deals with issues of learning from past mistakes so that the information provided can enable subordinates not to repeat those mistakes again. This means that deputy directors regards mistakes as not being disasters but as learning experiences that are necessary for the purpose of moving the Department towards its stated objectives. The assumption here is that it is through making mistakes that subordinates begin to build confidence in handling challenging tasks knowing that where mistakes are made, they will not be severely punished.

The third element that was given a score of 8 is element 5 which deals with issues of ensuring that subordinates perform their duties based on agreed standards that have clearly defined goals, plans and milestones. These goals, plans and milestones are the barometers that guide the implementation of the KRAs that were discussed in chapter 5 (see section 5.3). In other words, the work effort of subordinates is mobilised around those goals, plans and milestones so that each employee knows precisely what is expected of him or her. Since these elements were given a score of 8, these elements (element 1, element 4 and element 5) are regarded as leadership behaviour strengths for deputy directors according to the Likert scale classification criteria.

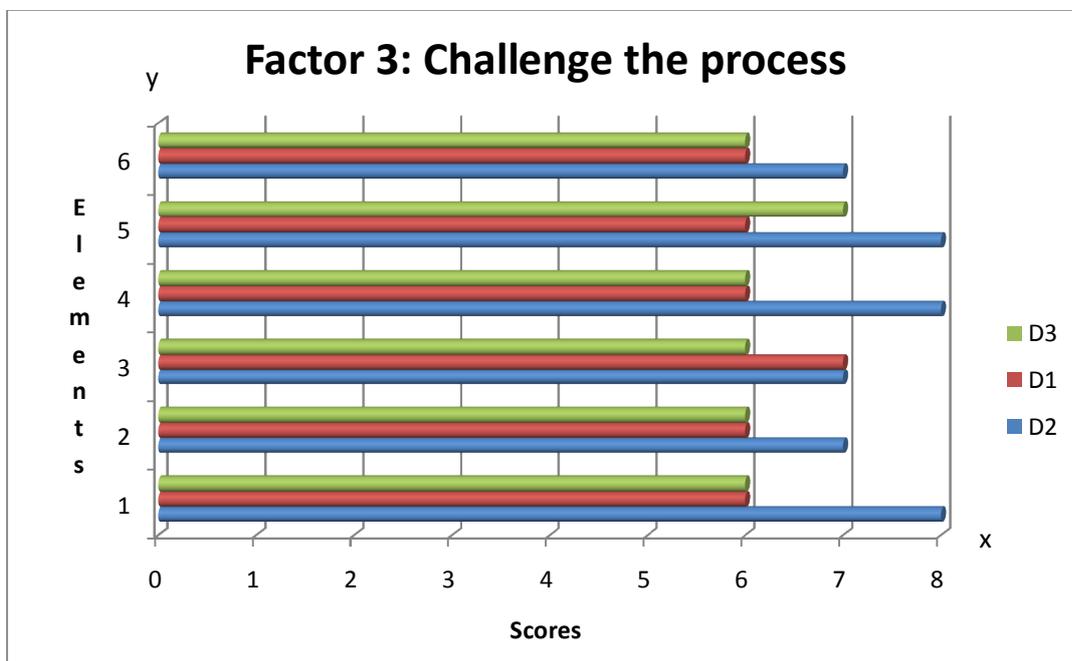


Figure 7.5: Participants' scores - Leaders challenge the process (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:106)

On the other hand, three elements were rated lower than a score of 8 and these are: element 2, element 3 and element 6 (all were given a score of 7). Element 2 deals

with issues of challenging subordinates to try new approaches when they perform their tasks as defined by element 5 (deputy directors make certain that goals, plans, and milestones are set). Element 3 deals with issues where deputy directors are expected to make an external environmental scan for the purpose of identifying new technologies that are appropriate for institutional improvement. This implies that in order to act as 'change agents', deputy directors must harness latest external innovations that will ensure that changes are done effectively. The third element to be rated with a score of 7 is element 6 which looks at issues where deputy directors are expected to experiment and take risks. Changing an institution is a risky business and if deputy directors do not approach this task scientifically by undertaking pilot projects, the failure can be substantial and that may cause serious disorganisation. By proceeding on a piecemeal approach, deputy directors can gain confidence and then begin to accelerate the desired changes since they would have gained enough experience during the testing phase. Risk taking is part of institutional renewal and those deputy directors who are afraid of moving away from their cocoons, they will soon be overtaken by those events they are trying to avoid. Although these elements were lowly rated, they are still leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors according to the Likert scale classification criteria (with a score of 7).

7.7.1.2 Ratings by directors

The ratings by directors present the opposite. According to the ratings by directors, their deputies have leadership behaviour strength on only one element and that element is 3 (search outside the Department for innovative ways to improve). This element was given a score of 7 and according to the Likert scale classification criteria, it is indeed leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors as perceived by their directors. This rating seems to suggest that deputy directors do consult other stakeholders when they are confronted with a new task and this may be driven by the fact that most of the work done by the Department is eventually shared with mainly, the provincial departments of agriculture, hence the need to consult key stakeholders.

The lowest score provided by directors was a 6 which was given to the remaining five elements: element 1 (seek challenging opportunities to test skills), element 2 (challenge their subordinates to try new approaches), element 4 (ask, 'what can we learn?' when things go wrong), element 5 (make certain that goals, plans and milestones are set) and element 6 (experiment and take risks). The low rating of five elements by directors may indicate a situation where directors *are not convinced* that their deputies are doing a good job as 'change agents' in terms of

challenging the institutional processes for change. The difference between deputy directors' scores and those of directors is more than 1.5 for three elements which is a strong indicator of directors' perceptions regarding this factor. This is also confirmed by the Likert scale classification criteria where a 6 lies within the 'red zone' and is classified as a leadership behaviour weakness. It is also interesting to note from table 7.2 that this factor (factor 3) has been rated by both directors and subordinates as being the lowest among the five factors (with five elements given a score of 6).

7.7.1.3 Ratings by subordinates

The highest score (score of 7) provided by subordinates is for element 5 (make certain that goals, plans, and milestones are set). This must be probably true if one considers the fact that deputy directors are at the forefront of the implementation of programmes and projects and as such, they are expected to come up with plans on how programmes should be implemented by their respective directorates. However, subordinates like their directors, have given their lowest scores (score of 6) to five elements: element 1 (seek challenging opportunities), element 2 (challenge their subordinates to try new approaches), element 3 (search outside the Department for innovative ways to improve), element 4 (ask 'what can we learn?' when things go wrong), and element 6 (experiment and take risks). Subordinates' scores differ with deputy directors' scores by more than 1.5 for two elements which means that they (subordinates) are also not convinced that their deputy directors are doing a good job as 'change agents'.

Element/behaviour	D2	D1	D3	Difference exceeding 1.5
Seek challenging opportunities to test skills	8	6*	6*	D1/D3-2
Challenge their subordinates to try new approaches	7	6	6	
Search outside the Department for innovative ways to improve	7	7	6	
Ask 'what can we learn?' when things go wrong	8	6*	6*	D1/D3-2
Make certain that goals, plans, and milestones are set	8	6*	7	D1-2
Experiment and take risks	7	6	6	

*Difference between deputy directors' scores and the other participants' exceeding 1.5

Table 7.4: Differences in participants' ratings of Leaders challenge the process (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:108)

This point is also supported by the Likert scale classification criteria where a six fall within the 'red zone' and is classified as a leadership behaviour weakness.

7.7.2 Similarities and differences in the ratings

According to table 7.4, there are three elements where participants differed more than 1.5: element 1 (seek challenging opportunities) where both directors and subordinates differed with their deputy directors by 2, element 4 (ask 'what can we learn?' when things go wrong) also has a difference of 2 for both directors and subordinates, and element 5 (make certain that goals, plans, and milestones are set) where only directors differed with their deputy directors above 1.5.

7.7.3 Possible reasons for disagreements

There is a strong resemblance between this factor (challenge the process) and the previous one (inspire a shared vision). It was suggested under factor 2 above that the possible reason for participants agreeing with one another is the fact that deputy directors are not strong enough in the *promotion of the vision to their subordinates* and this suggests a situation where both deputy directors and their subordinates may be unaware of ground breaking changes outside the Department and that is why they may not be able to 'preach' any new changes to their subordinates. It then means that failure to understand and propagate new changes in the Department will lead to a situation where deputy directors elect to do the things that they are comfortable with and hence, their inability to properly act as 'change agents'. Another possibility could be that the Department of Agriculture is a public institution with many rules and regulations that may not provide an enabling environment for deputy directors to change things around and because of that, deputy directors have elected to 'react' to changes rather than take a *proactive* role.

The disagreements in the ratings may also be attributed to the fact that deputy directors may not see themselves as responsible for changing the work environment since they are not the 'accounting officers' of their respective directorates. They may see that role as belonging to their directors and since the *person that controls the purse* has the power to *decide what is good for the unit*, only directors can approve on what tasks money should be spent and as such, deputy directors may not be adequately listened to when it come to challenging the way things are done in their respective directorates.

7.8 ANALYSING THE DATA: LEADERS ENABLE OTHERS TO ACT

This factor (factor 4) seeks to evaluate the behaviour of deputy directors in terms of their ability to provide an *enabling environment* where their subordinates can perform their duties effectively. Deputy directors as leaders are also expected to act as *enablers* so that their subordinates can carry out their allocated tasks with verve and alacrity with the notion that what is being done is supported so that all can contribute towards the realisation of the new vision of the Department of Agriculture. Like the previously discussed factors, firstly, it begins by providing an analysis of the ratings made by all three categories of participants (deputy directors, directors, subordinates), and secondly, it provides possible explanations for similarities and differences of the scores provided by all participants. Thirdly, an attempt is made to provide possible reasons for agreements and or disagreements where they exist between categories of participants.

7.8.1 Ratings by all participants

The purpose of this section is to analyse the scores reflected in figure 7.6 below and in table 7.2 that were provided by participants in terms of this factor (leaders enable others to act). The elements/behaviour are plotted on the vertical axis (y) and the scores awarded are plotted on the horizontal axis (x). Deputy directors' scores are represented by the *blue bar* whereas the *red bar* represents the scores provided by directors. The *green bar* represents the scores provided by subordinates. Scores range between 10 (the highest) and 1 (the lowest). The scores are analysed below in the following manner:

7.8.1.1 Ratings by deputy directors

According to the ratings provided by deputy directors under this factor as reflected in figure 7.6 below and in table 7.2 above, their strength lies in two elements: element 1 (develop cooperative relationships) and element 3 (treat others with dignity and respect) which were both given a highest score of 9. What is interesting to note here is the fact that among the five factors presented, this is the only factor where deputy directors awarded a score of 9 to more than one element. This points to a situation where deputy directors believe that they have the ability to foster cooperative relationships with their subordinates by treating them with dignity and respect. Treating subordinates with dignity (ubuntu) is central to good human relations that was mentioned in chapter 1 (see section 1.2) as required by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa wherein it is stated that "Managers of public institutions must foster good human resource management and career

development behaviours so as to maximise human potentialö (Constitution of South Africa 1996, section 195). Maximisation of human potential is closely linked with high employee morale where subordinates strive for superior productivity. Leadership behaviour strength in these two elements denotes a situation where deputy directors perceive themselves as leaders who put their people first and this is also supported by the Likert scale classification which regards a score of 9 as being leadership behaviour strength.

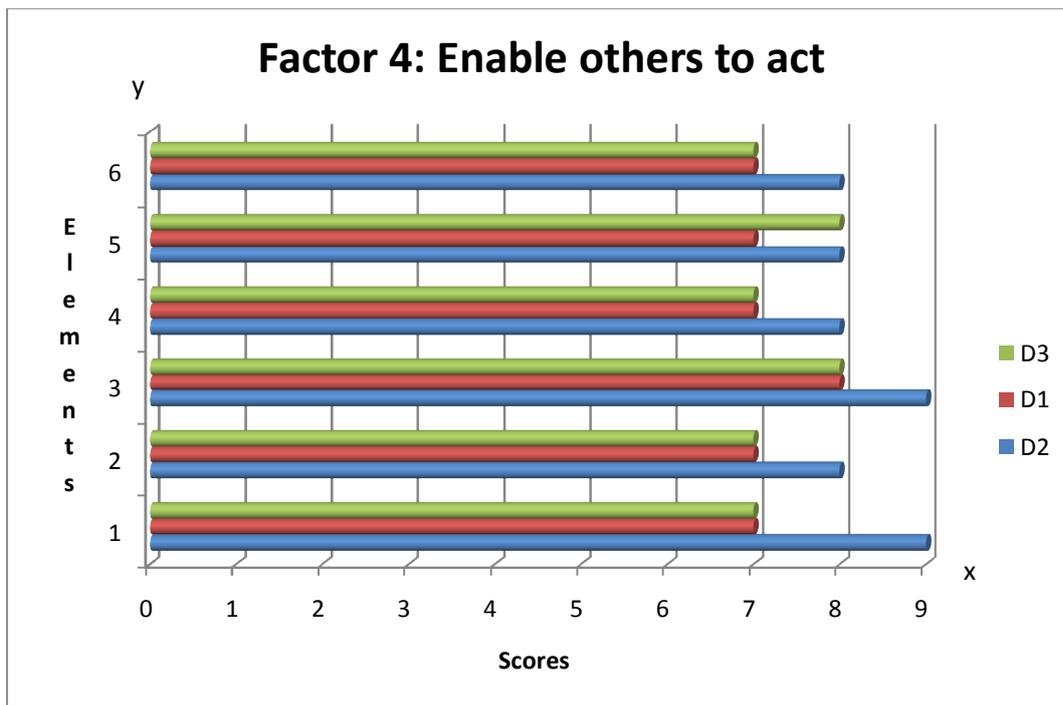


Figure 7.6: Participants' scores - Leaders enable others to act (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:106)

The lowest score allocated by deputy directors is an 8 which was given to the remaining elements as follows: element 2 (actively listen to diverse points of view). This element deals with issues of effective communication where the views of different stakeholders including subordinates are always taken into consideration in all decisions made by deputy directors. Element 4 (support decisions made by their subordinates) deals with issues of encouraging subordinates to come up with their own decisions in the area of their responsibility. Element 5 (give their subordinates choice about how to do their work) deals with issues where subordinates are always encouraged to come up with innovative ways of doing work, and element 6 (ensure that their subordinates grow in their jobs) deals with issues where subordinates are given the opportunity to grow or advance in their chosen careers. Again, the interesting point to note here is that the lowest score of 8 indicates confidence among deputy directors in terms of this factor and

this is the only factor where the lowest score is an 8 and this is supported by the Likert scale classification criteria where a score of 8 is regarded as a leadership behaviour strength and the fact that this is the only factor where deputy directors scored themselves high on all elements indicates that there is a very good human relations environment within the Department.

7.8.1.2 Ratings by directors

The highest score given by directors as indicated in figure 7.6 above and also in table 7.2, is for element 3 (treat others with dignity and respect) and the score awarded is an 8. All the remaining five elements were given a lowest score of 7 and they are: element 1 (develop cooperative relationships), element 2 (actively listen to diverse points of view), element 4 (support decisions made by their subordinates), element 5 (give their subordinates choice about how to do their work), and element 6 (ensure that their subordinates grow in their jobs). The ratings by directors seem to agree with the ratings of deputy directors in the sense that the scores awarded by both groups of participants are higher in this factor than in the previous ones which could be an indication that what is claimed by deputy directors could be the true reflection of the situation as far as this factor is concern. The difference in terms of the gap/interval between deputy directors' ratings and those of directors is in the main, less than 1.5 except element 1 (develop cooperative relationship) where the range/interval is more than 1.5.

The score of 7 is regarded as a leadership behaviour strength when the Likert scale classification criteria is used which also confirms the point made earlier in this section that this factor is the one where all groups of participants awarded highest scores.

7.8.1.3 Ratings by subordinates

According to the ratings of subordinates as reflected in figure 7.6 above and in table 7.2, the highest score they have given as an indicator of leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors is on two elements: element 3 (treat others with dignity and respect) and element 5 (give their subordinates choice about how to do their work) and the score awarded is an 8. The lowest score given by subordinates is a 7 which was awarded to the remaining four elements as follows: element 1 (develop cooperative relationships), element 2 (actively listen to diverse points of view), element 4 (support decisions made by their subordinates), and element 6 (ensure that their subordinates grow in their jobs). There is a close agreement between subordinates and directors in terms of this factor. Both participants

provided the same scores except element 5 (give their subordinates choice about how to do their work) where directors awarded a score of 7 and subordinates awarded as score of 8. The rating of this factor by subordinates, just like the other participants (deputy directors and directors) is also the highest when compared to the previous factors which is a confirmation of the situation as perceived by both deputy directors and directors. Just like directors, subordinates have differed with their deputy directors with more than a range/interval that is more than 1.5 on element 1 (develop cooperative relationships). According to the Likert scale classification criteria, a score of 7 denotes a leadership behaviour strength which confirms the argument provided earlier in the section that this factor is the only one where all groups of participants provided scores not less than a 7.

7.8.2 Similarities and differences in the ratings

The data on graph 7.6 above seems to suggest that this is the only factor where deputy directors are extremely strong since there is a high degree of agreement among the three categories of participants. Other than element 1 (develop cooperative relationships), the range/interval between deputy directors' ratings and the other category of participants is less than 1.5. In terms of the number of high ratings awarded by the various categories of participants, this factor is the strongest if compared to the other factors. Table 7.5 below illustrates the point:

Element/behaviour	D2	D1	D3	Difference exceeding 1.5
Develop cooperative relationships	9	7*	7*	D1/D3-2
Actively listen to diverse points of view	8	7	7	
Treat others with dignity and respect	9	8	8	
Support decisions made by their subordinates	8	7	7	
Give their subordinates choice about how to do their work	8	7	8	
Ensure that their subordinates grow in their jobs	8	7	7	

*Difference between deputy directors' scores and the other participants' exceeding 1.5

Table 7.5: Differences in participants' ratings of Leaders enable others to act (Model: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:108)

7.8.3 Possible reasons for agreements or disagreements

The main reason for such high scoring by participants for this factor could be a confirmation of what was pointed out in factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) and factor 3 (challenge the process) where it was suggested that these two factors seem

to indicate the weakest points for deputy directors. As a result of their leadership behaviour weakness in *promoting a shared vision* and also their inability to *challenge the status quo*, the only best thing that they possibly can do instead, is to forge healthy relationships with their subordinates so that they should "appear" to be *enabling*. But to appear to be enabling in an environment where the vision is not shared and where the status quo is not challenged could be an attempt at concealing the true nature of the situation. This behaviour may be born out of desperation rather than out of sincerity so as to win sympathy from subordinates, that is, to be seen as "caring" in an "uncaring environment". This argument is supported by element 1 (develop cooperative relationships) where the range/interval between deputy directors and the other category of participants is the only one that is more than 1.5. The meaning of this is that although deputy directors are good at pleasing their people, they may not be that good in terms of developing cooperative relationships and cooperative relationships are essentially basic blocks for the development of effective team building or *esprit de corps*. This may mean that subordinates are being enabled as individuals and not as teams and that in itself may create other problems such as individualism, selective preferences or divide-and-rule.

7.9 ANALYSING THE DATA: LEADERS ENCOURAGE THE HEART TO ENDURE

This factor seeks to evaluate the behaviour of deputy directors in terms of their ability to *encourage* their subordinates to *endure* when things seem to fall apart. The implementation of goals always come with its challenges and if the group is not psychologically hardy, discouragements can lead to derailment. It is the duty of deputy directors as leaders to ensure that their subordinates "keep their eyes on the ball" even where the situation seems hopeless and this is done by consistently drumming words of encouragement so that subordinates can view *challenges as opportunities and not as setbacks*. Like the previously discussed factors, this section begins firstly, by providing an analysis of the ratings made by all three categories of participants (deputy directors, directors, subordinates), and secondly, it provides possible explanations for similarities and differences of the scores provided by all participants. Thirdly, an attempt is made to provide possible reasons for agreements and or disagreements where they exist between categories of participants in terms of this factor.

7.9.1 Ratings by all participants

In terms of the data collected under this factor (leaders encourage the heart to endure), the analysis shall be done in line with figure 7.7 below and also in line with table 7.2 above that have tabled the scores that were provided by all participants. The elements/behaviour are plotted on the vertical axis (y) and the scores awarded are plotted on the horizontal axis (x). Deputy directors' scores are represented by the *blue bar* whereas the *red bar* represents the scores provided by directors. The *green bar* represents the scores provided by subordinates. Scores range between 10 (the highest) and 1 (the lowest). The scores are analysed below in the following manner:

7.9.1.1 Ratings by deputy directors

Out of the six elements, deputy directors have rated themselves highest in five of them. The highest score allocated is an 8. These elements are: element 1 (praise their subordinates for job well done) which looks at issues of motivating subordinates by giving them a pat on the shoulder where successes have been recorded. Enduring through hardships is greatly enhanced by providing constant praise where small gains have been made and this also act as morale boosting exercise when subordinates receive praise for doing their work successfully. Element 2 (express confidence in their subordinates' abilities) which deals with issues of providing an environment where subordinates are given the opportunity to do things on their own without being watched all the time.

Element 3 (creatively reward people for their contributions) which deals with the culture of rewarding high performers so that those who are under performing can also raise their level of productivity whilst driven by the desire to claim the performance rewards. Element 4 (recognise their subordinates' commitment to shared values) which provides an opportunity for recognition of those subordinates who work tirelessly to promote the values of the Department so that all employees of the Department can behave in an exemplary manner, and element 6 (give team members appreciation and support) which deals with issues of building a team that is committed to the values of the Department so that all employees can begin to identify themselves with the Department which is a good recipe for effective team spirit which was discussed in chapter 3 (see section 3.4.1) as one of the pillars of employee morale.

The most noticeable difference between the ratings of deputy directors in terms of their leadership behaviour strength in this factor (factor 5) is that these ratings are

less than the previous factor's highest score which was a 9. Although a score of 8 is regarded as being exceptionally high when pitched against the Likert scale classification criteria, the rating of an 8 denotes a situation where, although deputy directors perceive these elements as their leadership behaviour strength, the level of their confidence is not as high as was displayed under factor 4 above where two of the elements were given a rating of 9. The lowest rated element in terms of deputy directors' scores for this factor is element 5 (find ways to celebrate accomplishments) which deals with issues of providing an environment where subordinates are allowed to celebrate their accomplishments no matter how small they may be. Celebrations are also a part of team building strategies and they have the potential of enhancing employee morale. This element was given a score of 7 which, according to the Likert scale classification criteria, is leadership behaviour strength.

Another observation in terms of the ratings provided by directors is that their minimum or lowest score for all the five factors is a 7 which according to the Likert scale classification criteria, indicates that deputy directors regard themselves as having leadership behaviour strength in all those five factors (see table 7.2).

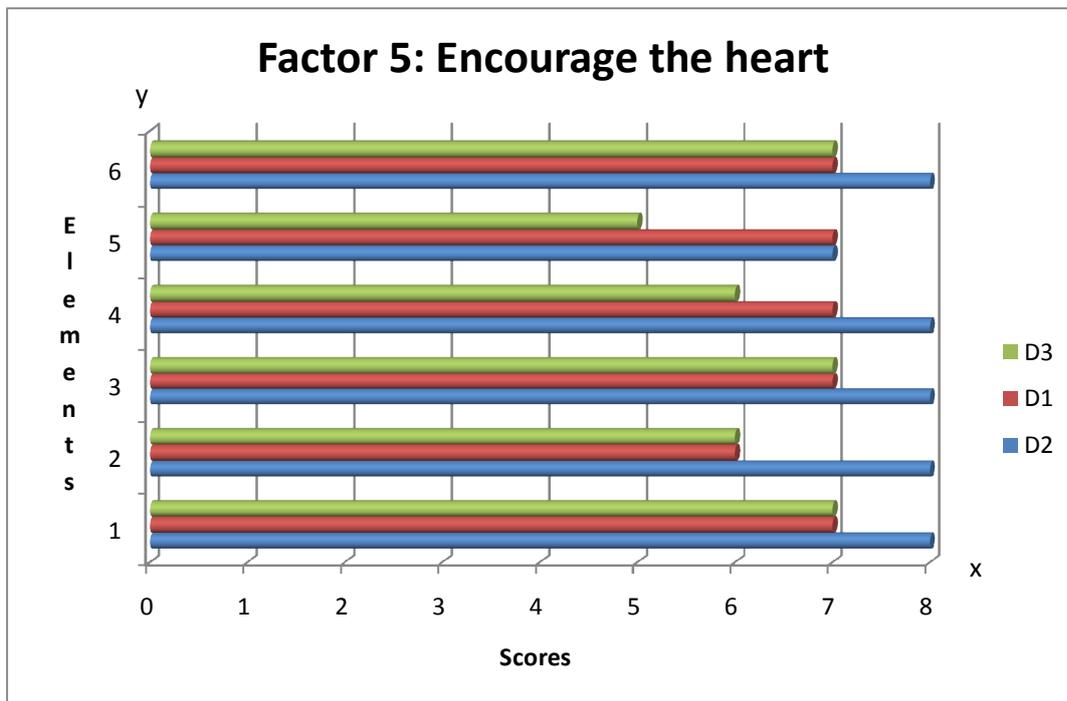


Figure 7.7: Participants' scores - Leaders encourage the heart to endure (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:106)

7.9.1.2 Ratings by directors

The highest score allocated by directors that indicates leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors is also found in five elements: element 1 (praise their subordinates for job well done), element 3 (creatively reward people for their contributions), element 4 (recognise their subordinates' commitment to shared values), element 5 (find ways to celebrate accomplishments), and element 6 (give team members appreciation and support). All these elements were given a score of 7 which, according to the Likert scale classification criteria, is accepted as leadership behaviour strength. The lowest score allocated by directors (score of 6) is in connection with element 2 (express confidence in their subordinates' abilities) where directors are of the view that their deputies do not delegate to their subordinates as much as they should. A score of 6 is interpreted as a leadership behaviour weakness by the Likert scale classification criteria.

7.9.1.3 Ratings by subordinates

In terms of this factor, the leadership behaviour strength of deputy directors as rated by their subordinates lies in three elements: element 1 (praise their subordinates for job well done), element 3 (creatively reward people for their contributions), and element 6 (give team members appreciation and support). The score allocated by subordinates to these elements is a 7.

The second highest score given by subordinates is a 6 and it involves two elements as follows: element 2 (express confidence in their subordinates' abilities) and element 4 (recognise their subordinates' commitment to shared values) but according to the Likert scale classification criteria, a score of 6 is interpreted as a leadership behaviour weakness which then means that subordinates are not so convinced that their deputy directors effectively provide a culture of praising subordinates where a good job has been done. Subordinates are also not convinced that their deputy directors provide a culture where employees who are dedicated to the promotion of institutional values are given prominent recognition.

Element 5 (find ways to celebrate accomplishments) has the lowest score and is the one where subordinates feel that their deputy directors are not doing a good job in terms of this factor and this element was given a score of 5. What is of particular interest regarding this element is the fact that it confirms what subordinates indicated under figure 7.3 (table 7.2) above (element 4, deputy directors ask for feedback on how their actions affect subordinates' performance) which was also given the lowest score of only 5 by this group of participants. This means that

because deputy directors do not ask for feedback in general, their subordinates also feel that they do not find ways to celebrate accomplishments. In fact, the two elements are closely related. If one does not solicit feedback, one will not provide an environment where accomplishments are celebrated since one would not have communicated with subordinates to check what they do not like about the way the leader is behaving/leading. However, what is puzzling is that element 1 (praise their subordinates for job well done) was rated highest and this element is also about providing feedback and surely, if deputy directors provide feedback in terms of praising their subordinates for job well done, they should also be able to find ways to celebrate with their subordinates for the successful accomplishments of the job that they are praising their subordinates for. From this, one can conclude by saying that, although praises are given which may stimulate the motivation of subordinates, there are severe shortcomings concerning deputy directors' feedback activities - an aspect that does not contribute to high motivation among employees.

7.9.2 Similarities and differences in the ratings

Similarities and differences in terms of the ratings of the three categories of participants are reflected in table 7.6 below. There are three elements where participants provided scores with a range that is more than 1.5 and these are: element 2 (deputy directors express confidence in their subordinates' abilities) where both directors and subordinates provided a score of 6 whereas deputy directors rated themselves with a score of 8 and the range is 2. On element 4, subordinates provided a score of 6 whereas their deputy directors rated themselves with a score of 8 which also means that the range is 2. There is also a range of 2 between subordinates and their deputy directors on element 5 (deputy directors find ways to celebrate accomplishment) which was given a score of 7 by deputy directors whereas subordinates provided a score of 5.

Element/behaviour	D2	D1	D3	Difference exceeding 1.5
Praise their subordinates for job well done	8	7	7	
Express confidence in their subordinates' abilities	8	6*	6*	D1/D3-2
Creatively reward people for their contributions	8	7	7	
Recognise their subordinates' commitment to shared values	8	7	6*	D3-2
Find ways to celebrate accomplishments	7	7	5*	D3-2
Give team members appreciation and support	8	7	7	

*Difference between deputy directors' scores and the other participants' exceeding 1.5

Table 7.6: Differences in participants' ratings of Leaders encourage the heart to endure (Model: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:108)

These differences in the ratings denotes a situation where deputy directors perceive themselves as doing a good job in those elements whereas, directors and subordinates regard them as leadership behaviour weakness for deputy directors.

7.9.3 Reasons for agreements or disagreements

The reason for the differences in some of the elements of this factor could be inferred from section 7.9.1.3 above where it was mentioned that there is a strong relationship between element 5 (find ways to celebrate accomplishments) of this factor and element 4 (deputy directors ask for feedback on how their actions affect subordinates' performance) of factor 1 above. Encouraging the heart to endure is essentially an attempt at *fostering a spirit of community* where subordinates are encouraged or provided with motivation to carry on doing what they are doing until it is achieved and as such, it requires serious two-way open communication so that the leader would be able to get feedback from subordinates about those leadership issues that may enhance or derail the effort of subordinates. The culture of celebrating each and every success, no matter how small it might look, is a catalyst for *staying the course* and if deputy directors do not celebrate with their subordinates when a good job has been achieved, there would be no way of knowing (from the subordinates' perspective) whether the accomplishment of such a task was an important step towards the realisation of the bigger goal of the group and this may mean that subordinates would eventually feel unappreciated and alienated.

7.10 ANALYSING THE DATA: TOTAL SCORES FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS

From section 7.5 to section 7.9, the data as it was scored by the three categories of participants (deputy directors, directors, subordinates), were presented in a form of bar graphs and tables. In essence, the focus was largely on individual elements and their scoring (see table 7.2). The purpose of this section and its attended subsidiary sections is to present the data according to *total scores per factor*. This means that instead of concentrating on individual elements, the data is now *up-scaled* to factor level. The reader is reminded about the discussions that were presented under section 7.3 above where it was mentioned that the data will be packaged around six elements per factor and also, that each element will carry a minimum score of 1 and a maximum score of 10. This means that the possible total score that can be awarded to a factor is $6 \times 10 = 60$, and since there are five factors involved, the total score for all factors is $60 \times 5 = 300$. Table 7.7 below provides the data as aggregated from table 7.2 above and in addition, the aggregated scores per factor per category of participant will also be expressed in terms of percentages. For example if the

total score as provided by directors on factor 1 (model the way) is 37, it means that out of a possible score of 60, directors have provided a score of 37 for the factor and the percentage thereof is $37 \times 100 / 60 = 62\%$. This process shall be done for all the factors and for all groups or categories of participants. The purpose of this exercise is to express the elements in terms of factors to which they belong so that a *factor analysis* as opposed to an *individual element analysis* can be done. The reader is reminded that a factor percentage that is more than 65% will denote a leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors in that particular factor whereas a factor percentage that is below 65% will be regarded as a leadership behaviour weakness for deputy directors in that particular factor.

Factor	D2	D2 percent	D1	D1 percent	D3	D3 percent
Model the way	48	80	37	62	40	67
Inspire a shared vision	43	72	38	63	38	63
Challenge the process	45	75	37	62	37	62
Enable others to act	50	83	43	72	44	73
Encourage the heart to endure	47	78	41	68	38	63
Total	233		196		197	

Table 7.7: Total score and percentage per factor (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:92)

Another purpose of this section is to analyse the data focusing on the total scores given so that it can be ascertained as to which factor/s was scored highest or lowest (see table 7.7). This is done to double-check the credibility of the analysis of the scores that were presented under each element. The analysis shall be conducted in the same order where data provided by deputy directors will be analysed first then followed by the analysis of the data presented by directors and last but not least, data provided by subordinates. Since directors and subordinates fall in the category of observers (completing the 360 degree), for the purpose of ascertaining their combined views as observers, their scores shall be combined and shall also be presented in a form of a line graph. The final analysis shall combine the data from all categories of participants so that a complete picture can be painted. The data will be packaged in terms of graphs in the following manner:

7.10.1 Deputy directors

The first factor to be considered deals with issues of clearly defined leadership intentions of the leader and it is known as *model the way* and as it has been explained under section 7.10 above, it consists of six elements with a total score of 60 per factor. The total score per factor is plotted in figure 7.8 below along the y axis and the number of factors (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge

the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart to endure) are plotted along the x axis. The reader is reminded that each factor is made up of six elements and each element has a total score of 10.

According to figure 7.7, below, deputy directors have scored themselves highest on factor 4 (enable others to act) which was given a total score of 50 out of 60 which translates to 83%, and indeed this was also pointed out when the elements were being analysed that deputy directors perceive their leadership behaviour strength as being their *ability to enable their subordinates to act*. In other words, deputy directors perceive themselves as having leadership behaviour strength in terms of providing an environment where their subordinates are empowered to do their job effectively. The second highest factor that was scored by deputy directors is factor 1 (model the way) with a total score of 48 out of 60 (80%) which deals with issues of *leading from the front*, that is, the leader must provide *exemplary leadership* so that subordinates can then follow.

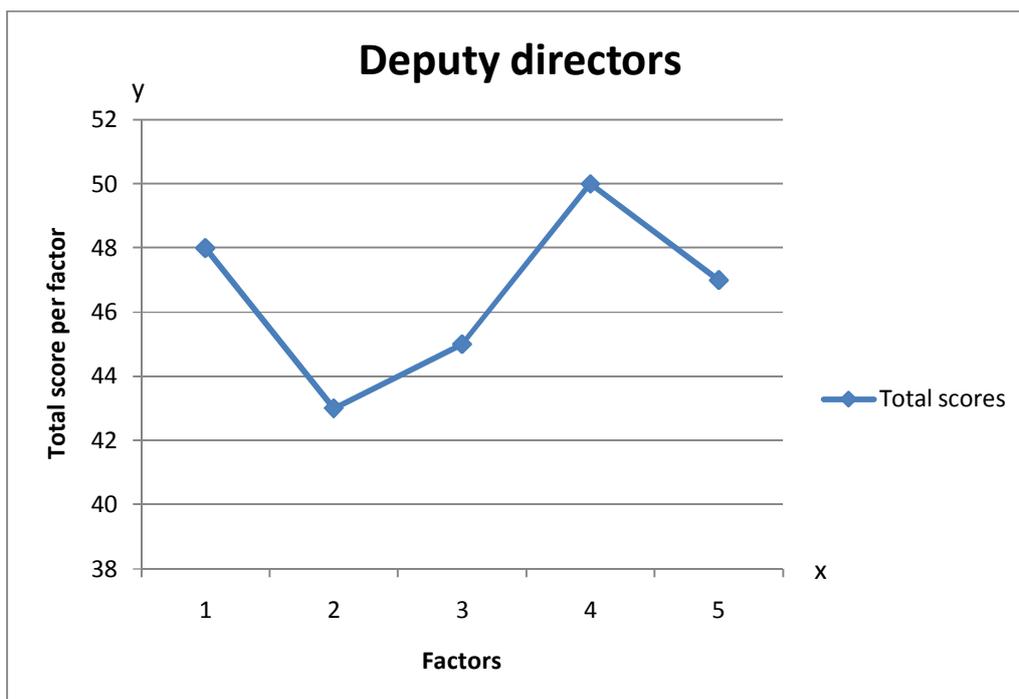


Figure 7.8: Total scores - Deputy directors (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:92)

The third highest ranked factor is factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) with a total score of 47 out of 60 (78%) which essentially is about providing an environment where subordinates are encouraged to hold on during those times when it seems achieving the objective would be impossible. The fourth rated factor (second lowest) according to deputy directors is factor 3 (challenge the process)

with a total score of 45 out of 60 (75%) and this factor looks at those issues that are concerned with changing the *status quo* so that the Department can be better positioned to implement its new vision should the current one be altered.

The lowest rated factor by deputy directors is factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) with a total score of 43 out of 60 (72%) and this factor deals with issues of *preaching* the vision to subordinates with *passion* so that it can be understood and supported by all employees of the Department.

It is apparent that deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture perceive themselves as having leadership behaviour strength even when the data is converted into percentages as indicated by table 7.7 above where all five factors were rated from 70% and above. In terms of aggregate factor scores, deputy directors have provided aggregate factor score of $(48+43+45+50+47) = 233$ which when converted to percentages is approximately $(233 \times 100 / 300) = 78\%$ which confirms the fact that deputy directors perceive themselves as doing a good job on all five factors.

7.10.2 Directors

According to the data provided by directors, their perceptions on their deputy directors are reflected in figure 7.9 below in the following manner:

Directors are also of the view that the leadership behaviour strength of their deputy directors lies in factor 4 (enable others to act) which was given a total score of 43 out of 60 (72%) which is their highest among all the factors. This is again, a confirmation of the arguments that were advanced under section 7.8.1.2 where it was mentioned that in terms of scores awarded, this factor is the one that was rated highest by all categories of participants.

Directors saw factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) as another strength for deputy directors as they gave them a total score of 41 out of 60 (68%). Factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) was rated as the second leadership behaviour weakness for deputy directors as it was given a total score of 38 out of 60 (63%). Factor 1 (model the way) and factor 3 (challenge the process) were rated as the main leadership behaviour weakness for deputy directors in this factor and they were respectively given a score of 37 out of 60 (62%).

In short, according to directors' ratings, deputy directors are good in providing an enabling environment for their subordinates to perform their duties but directors

are of the view that their deputy directors are not doing such a good job in terms of providing exemplary leadership, inspiring a shared vision as well as in acting as change agents for the purpose of assisting the Department of Agriculture to do things differently. The percentages of factors 1, 2 and 3 are less than 65% and that means that directors are not convinced that enough being done by their deputy directors in so far as those three factors are concerned and as such they perceived those factors as being leadership behaviour weakness.

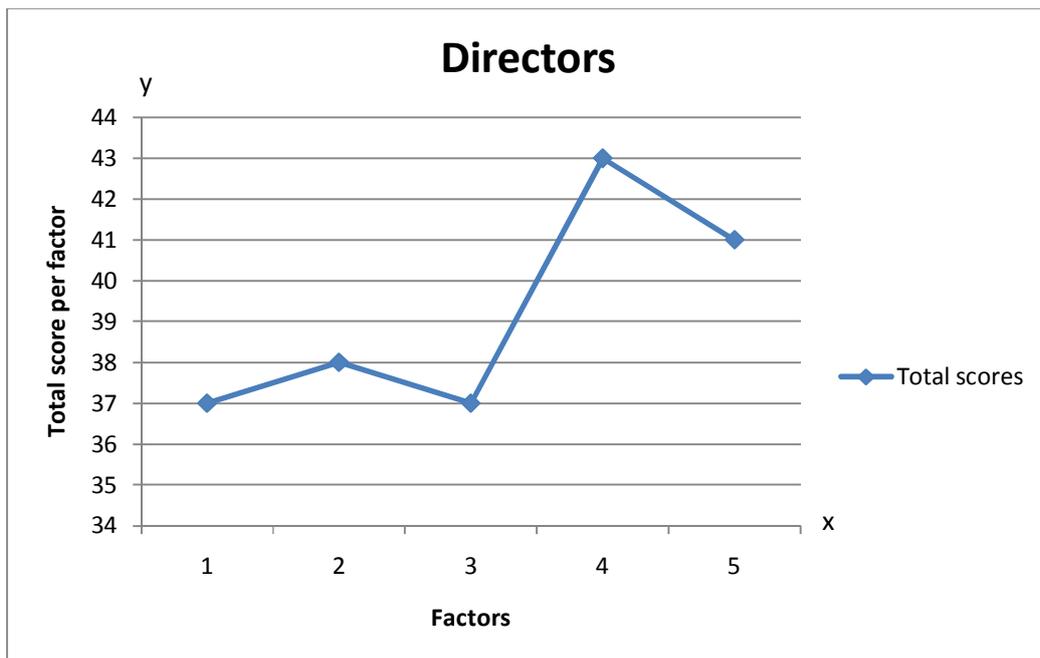


Figure 7.9: Total scores - Directors (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:92)

The aggregate factor score provided by directors is $(37+38+37+43+41) = 196$ which means that $(196 \times 100 / 300) = 65\%$. And since 65% is classified as leadership behaviour strength, it means that in the main, directors perceive their deputies to be having leadership behaviour strength notwithstanding the fact that in three of the factors they have rated them low but if one considers all factors, deputy directors seem to have passed the test as rated by their directors.

7.10.3 Subordinates

The highest total score given by subordinates is also for factor 4 (enable others to act) which was given a score of 44 out of 60 (73%). This represents the strength of deputy directors as perceived by their subordinates. It is clear that deputy directors are doing a very good job in providing an enabling environment for their subordinates as all three categories of participants seem to agree in this regard.

The second highest total score went to factor 1 (model the way) with a total score of 40 out of 60 (67%) which means that the perception of subordinates is that their deputy directors to a certain extent, do act as exemplary leaders. The leadership behaviour weakness of deputy directors according to their subordinates went to two factors: factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) and factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) which were respectively given a total score of 38 out of 60 (63%). This indicates a perception by subordinates that says that their deputy directors are not promoting the vision strong enough and also, they are of the view that their deputy directors do not encourage them to stay the course when they face challenges. The lowest rated factor by subordinates is factor 3 (challenge the process) which was given a score of 37 out of 60 (62%). According to subordinates, this represents the main leadership behaviour weakness of deputy directors and it means that their deputy directors are not doing a good job when they act as change agents. In short, deputy directors are seen as lame ducks or toothless bulldogs that have no guts to change the status quo when they are expected to do so.

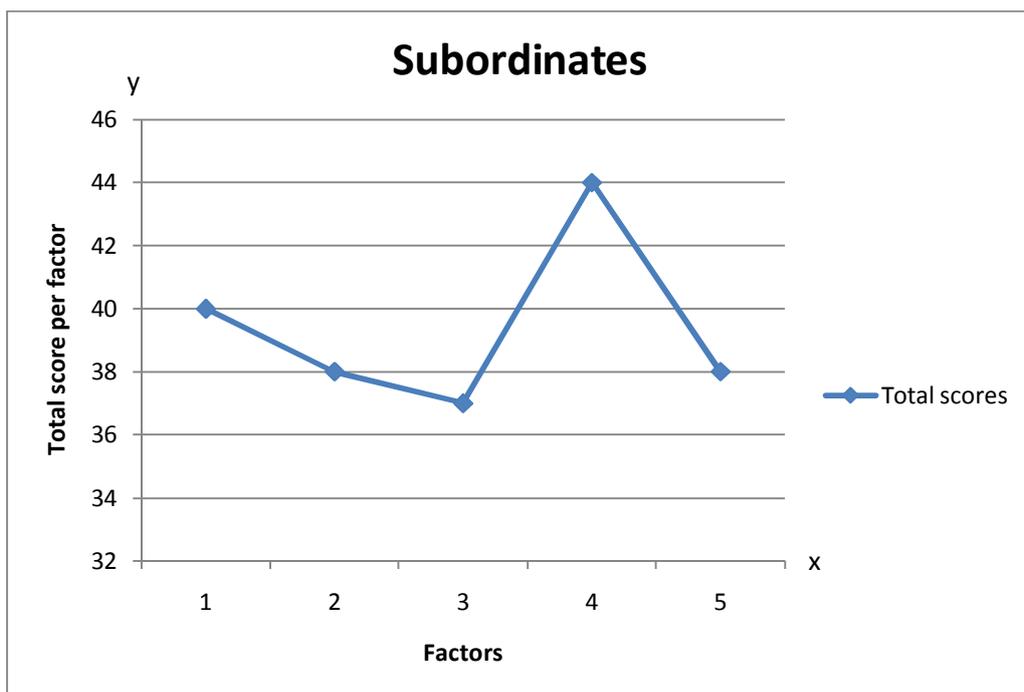


Figure 7.10: Total scores - Subordinates (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:92)

It can be inferred from figure 7.10 that deputy directors face some challenges as leaders. Their failure to promote a shared vision among their subordinates is exacerbated by their inability to challenge internal processes (act as change agents) and also, the data seems to indicate that they do not do a good job in terms of providing exemplary leadership as indicated by factor 1 (model the way). On the

other side of the coin, deputy directors exhibit a strong sense of people empowerment as projected by factor 4 (enable others to act) where they seem to be doing an excellent job in enabling their subordinates to perform their duties. This means that deputy directors do care about the welfare of their subordinates to a very large extent and in fact all three categories of participants have confirmed this assertion. Their second strength is found in factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) which points to an assertion that says that deputy directors do encourage their subordinates to try harder although not in a big way as indicated by the range between factor 4 and factor 5.

The reader may still be left wondering as to the reason/s behind the shape of figure 7.10 in respect of the factors. In other words, why does the data behave in this way? The possible reason for the shape of the data could be found in figure 2.5 in chapter 2 where the classical view of power in public institutions was discussed. It was explained that power flows from the top to the bottom as such lower ranking officials are deemed to obey orders issued by all levels above them. This arrangement has the potential of discouraging the spirit of 'enterprise' to lower levels hence the inability of deputy directors to act as 'change agents' because changing things within an institution implies that the 'change agent' has power and authority to do so which is lacking among deputy directors as they are not the accounting officers of their directorates. Obviously where leaders do not have the authority to change the way things are done, they will invariably be unable to act as true ambassadors of the institution by selling its vision to their subordinates. Selling a vision is essentially linked to changing the *status quo* and if one has limitation in influencing proceedings within one's functional unit, one would be discouraged to talk about things that one has no control over. In that regard, one would be left with one option and that is to foster good relationship with subordinates by trying to please them (ethical bribe) so that one is not seen as a failure but a victim of circumstances. It is therefore, not surprising that deputy directors have scored highest on issues of *people empowerment* as opposed to issues of *institutional development*. Indirectly, deputy directors are saying that they are not responsible for whatever challenges found in their directorates, since they are not the ones to account and to a large extent, they are not given the opportunity to implement things according to their own constructs. The reader should also bear in mind that this study was conducted in a public institution where rules and regulations are the order of the day and deviation from those rules and regulations is severely dealt with in some cases.

All factors considered, subordinates have given their deputy directors an aggregate factor score of $(40+38+37+44+38) = 197$. Converting this aggregated factor score

into percentages yields approximately $(197 \times 100 / 300) = 66\%$ which according to the percentage criteria, means that as far as subordinates are concerned, their deputy directors in the main, have leadership behaviour strength notwithstanding the fact that they have rated them low on three factors.

7.10.4 Combined total scores of all groups of participants (D2/D1/D3)

The purpose of this section is to combine all the scores of the three categories of participants so as to present a single view of all participants. Providing a single view is the ultimate objective of this study as it is pegged up to institutional analysis which means that the views of all participants must be combined so that the ultimate purpose of providing a global view is achieved. This section has therefore combined the totals of all participants as reflected by table 7.8 below where factor 1 (model the way) was scored 125 out of 180 (60x3), factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) was scored 119 out of 180, factor 3 (challenge the process) was also scored 119 out of 180, factor 4 (enable others to act) was scored 137 out of 180, and factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) was scored 126.

Factor	D2	D1	D3	Total	Total percent
Model the way	48	37	40	125	69%
Inspire a shared vision	43	38	38	119	66%
Challenge the process	45	37	37	119	66%
Enable others to act	50	43	44	137	76%
Encourage the heart to endure	47	41	38	126	70%
Total	233	196	197	626	
Total percent	78%	65%	66%		

Table 7.8: Total score of participants per factor (Source: Own)

The total scores are plotted on figure 7.11 below on the vertical axis (y) and the factors are plotted on the horizontal axis (x).

According to figure 7.11 above, the scores of all participants indicate more or less the same conditions that were discussed above where factor 4 (enable others to act) was given the highest score (137) and this represents the strength of deputy directors (76%). Factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) is the second leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors (score of 126) which translates to 70%. The third highest rated factor by all participants is factor 1 (model the way) which was given a total combined score of 125 and when this is expressed in terms of percentages, it translates to 69%. On the other hand, although still regarded as leadership behaviour strengths, deputy directors' leadership behaviour is not as

high for two factors: factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) and factor 3 (challenge the process) which were respectively given a total combined score of 119 and that translates into 66%.

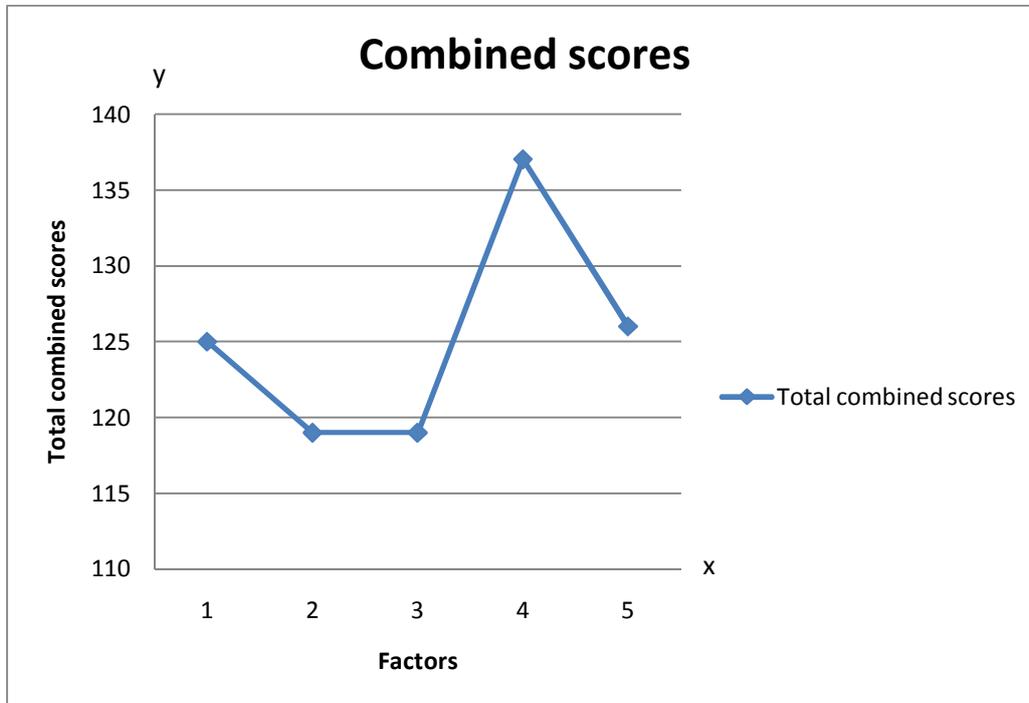


Figure 7.11: Total scores - Deputy directors, directors and subordinates (Model adapted from Kouzes and Posner, 2003:92)

In terms of whether deputy directors have leadership behaviour strength as perceived by all participants or not, the situation can be expressed as $(125+119+119+137+126) = 626$ and the percentage standing of these ratings is $(626 \times 100 / 900) = 70\%$ and this means that as rated by all participants based on the Likert scale classification criteria, deputy directors *have leadership behaviour strength* (well done!) although they do have individual factor challenges as established above when ratings were analysed per factor per group of participants.

7.11 ANALYSING THE DATA: PERCENTILE RANKING AGAINST THE LPI NORM

In chapter 4 (see section 4.2.3), one of the arguments given for the use of the LPI questionnaire as a data collection instrument was that the Kouzes/Posner leadership behaviour model is one of those models that have been extensively used. According to the authors (2003:16), the model has been tested extensively across many institutional settings and it also enjoys high regard in the academic

world. They also claim that the LPI model is "one of the widely used 360-degree leadership assessment instrument available." The model has been administered to over two hundred and fifty thousand leaders and almost one million observers have taken part as well. In the academic world, more than two hundred masters dissertations and doctors theses have been produced using the model as a foundation (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:16).

With this kind of extensive background, it is apparent why the researcher adopted the LPI model as a foundation for the study of leadership behaviour in the Department of Agriculture. The model provides the *baseline study* so that the leadership behaviour of the chosen population (deputy directors) can be compared so that differences can be analysed and interpreted.

So far, the data analysis that have been performed in the previous sections above, has compared data among the three categories of participants (deputy directors, directors, subordinates) against the Likert scale classification criteria that was presented under section 7.4 above and this analysis can be likened to a domestic soccer league where the strengths of each team are pitted against the strengths of the other teams who are participating in the league. It is possible for some teams to rise above other teams in terms of their performance in that regard, and they will win some domestic tournaments. Viewed from that angle, one would be convinced that those teams who win tournaments are true champions of the domestic league. The problem with that is that the true strengths of local teams may not be known until they begin to engage teams outside their own borders. It is only at that point that the true strengths of local teams can be tested when they win tournaments that are organised outside their own borders. By playing and winning tournaments against local teams sets *local standard or norm* and by playing against international teams, sets *international standard or norm* and it is this international norm that establish the quality of local teams and if they win international tournaments, one may agree that the domestic league rates above international norm but if they lose, one may accept that the domestic league is below international norm which means that more hard work is needed to improve the strengths of domestic tournaments so that local teams can begin to compete effectively at international level.

The preceding example is equally applicable in this study. The data analysis that was done above will be compared against the norm that has been created by the authors of the LPI where 250 thousand leaders and over 1 million observers have been exposed to the same data and from which, a norm has been established and this norm, according to our soccer example above, sets the domestic (internal)

evaluation against the international norm for the purpose of assessing whether the scores given by all categories of participants do meet the international norm (established standard). In other words, the quality of the leadership of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture *is at this point going to be pitched against all the international leaders and their observers that have taken part in the survey* and this should indicate whether deputy directors do meet the international norm or not.

The reader is referred at this point to the discussions that were presented in chapter 6 (see section 6.3.5.3) where it was mentioned that the purpose of the percentile ranking is not to compare percentages as calculated by means of the Likert scale classification criteria but to compare the ratings of each group of participants to the same group of participants that have participated in the LPI survey. It was also mentioned that the percentile ranking should not be confused with the factor score percentages that were determined by means of the Likert scale classification criteria. In other words, percentile ranking looks at the scores of previous participants that have participated in the LPI survey and then compares that number with the present score provided by the participants being analysed and then converts these numbers into percentiles where the level of the current scores are then determined in terms of the percentage of previous participants who provided similar scores. This point is further clarified by Elifson *et al.* (1982:87) where they point out that a percentile rank must always be expressed in relation to some reference group. Thus if a friend claims that he obtained a percentile rank of 93 in a test of mathematics aptitude, you might not be terribly impressed if the reference group were made up of individuals who completed only the eighth grade. On the other hand, if the reference group consisted of individuals holding doctorate degrees in mathematics, your reaction would unquestionably be quite different. This simply means that a class must be compared to its own class (oranges to oranges and tomatoes to tomatoes). The purpose of the comparison is to answer the following question: how do the scores of the current class compare to the scores of the previous ones? Or, how do the current group compare with the previous groups in terms of the scores provided?

Figure 7.12 below provides the ratings of all three categories of participants in terms of the five factors. The scores of each factor are then compared with the scores of others who have taken the survey. This is done by converting them into percentiles where the percentile rankings are essentially benchmarking (norms) numbers. These percentile rankings indicate a relatively normal bell-shaped distribution of scores where a high score is one at 70th percentile or above and a moderate score is the one that falls between 31-69%. A score from 1-30% is

regarded as being "low" (Kouzes and Posner, 2003:114). The reader is reminded that the "normal distribution" was established by the authors of the LPI questionnaire from previous surveys as it was mentioned above. The meaning of this graph is that scores falling between 31% and 69% would be regarded as being falling within the moderate or majority of scores taken before that are in the database of the LPI authors and a score that falls from 70% and up would be regarded as falling in the high bracket or being 70% (70% to 100%) higher than all the scores of the previous participants who took part in the survey. On the other hand, a score that is 30% or below will be regarded as being 70% lower than all the scores of the previous participants who have participated in the LPI survey (refer to chapter 6 section 6.3.5.3).

In figure 7.12, the percentile rankings of deputy directors, directors and subordinates are plotted along the left margin and are increasing by an interval of 10% (percentile distribution is from 0% to 100%). There are horizontal lines at 30% and 70%. These lines divide the graph into three segments that represent high, moderate and low zones of the graph. The five factors (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart) are placed from left to right in columnar form so that each can be rated according to the percentile arrangement on the left hand side of the graph. The scores of all categories of participant (deputy directors, directors, subordinates) are then distributed along the graph according to the five factors from left to right and these are represented by lines that indicate the scores of each category of participants per factor. The reader should bear in mind that the percentile rankings are done within the same group, that is, deputy directors as leaders will be compared with all the leaders that have taken the LPI survey and the same goes for directors and subordinates (oranges to oranges).

According to the data provided by all participants as reflected on figure 7.12, the percentile ratings against the norm for this study are:

7.11.1 Deputy directors

The data on figure 7.12 below indicates that deputy directors have rated themselves within the "moderate" range which basically means that they fall within the normal or majority range on the normal distribution graph. On factor 1 (model the way), the percentile ranking of deputy directors' scores is 53% and this means that on this factor, deputy directors have provided a score that is equal to or more than 53% of the same category of participants (leaders) in the LPI database. On factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) their percentile distribution is 45% which means that on

this factor, deputy directors have provided a score that is equal to or more than 45% of the same category of participants (leaders) in the LPI database. The percentile ranking of factor 3 (challenge the process) is at 47% which means that on this factor, deputy directors have provided a score that is equal to or more than 47% of the same category of participants (leaders) in the LPI database. On factor 4 (enable others to act) the percentile score for deputy directors is at 53% which means that on this factor, deputy directors have provided a score that is equal to or more than 53% of the same category of participants (leaders) in the LPI database. For factor 5 (encourage the heart) the percentile distribution for deputy directors is at 48% which means that on this factor, deputy directors have provided a score that is equal to or more than 48% of the same category of participants (leaders) in the LPI database.

The reader is reminded that these percentiles are compared with the established norm on the LPI data base and they mean that when compared with those norms, deputy directors have scored themselves above 50% of all the previous participants on factor 1, 45% for factor 2, 47% for factor 3, 53% for factor 4 and 48% for factor 5. What is of particular importance here is that all the factors lie within the "moderate" or "majority" range (between 31% and 69%) which means that according to the LPI data base, most of the leaders that have taken the LPI survey have rated themselves around the centre (mean) which points to a normally distributed situation as explained in chapter 6 (see section 6.3.5.3).

7.11.2 Directors

According to figure 7.12 below, directors' percentile distribution across the five factors is in the following manner: factor 1 (model the way) was given a percentile ranking of 10% which means that on this factor, directors have provided a score that is less than 90% of the same category of participants (observers - managers) in the LPI database. In other words, only 10% of the observers in the category of managers have scored the leaders in this way. For factor 2 (inspire a shared vision), deputy directors have provided a percentile ranking of 25% which means that directors as observers have provided ratings that are 75% below all observers in the LPI database in this category or it could also be said that the percentile ranking of directors puts them at 25% of all the people who participated in the LPI previously who belong to this group. Factor 3 (challenge the process), the distribution in terms of percentiles is 15% and this means that only 15% or less people who participated in the LPI survey before who are in the same group have rated the leaders with this score on this factor. On factor 4 (enable others to act) the percentile distribution is 18% which means that only 18% or less of the people who are on the LPI database

have rated the leaders this much or it can also be said that 82% of the participants in this group have rated their leaders more than the ratings of directors. For factor 5 (encourage the heart), the percentile ranking of directors' scores is 23% which means that only 23% or less people who are on the LPI database in this group have rated the leaders with those scores on this factor. What is startling in this analysis is that the percentile distribution of all five factors were given scores less than 31% which means that all five factors fall below the 'moderate' or 'majority' zone (31%-69%).

7.11.3 Subordinates

The percentile distribution from subordinates' scores begin with factor 1 (model the way) which stands at 15% and this means that only 15% or less subordinates in the LPI database have provided such low scores to their leaders. It could also be said that 85% of subordinates in the LPI database have scored their leaders more than the subordinates of deputy directors. On factor 2 (inspire a shared vision), the percentile distribution is at 25% which coincides with directors' percentiles and this means that only 25% or less of the subordinates who participated in the LPI survey and were captured on the LPI database have provided similar scores and put differently, it means that 75% of all subordinates who are in the LPI database provided scores that are more than the scores provided by subordinates of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture.

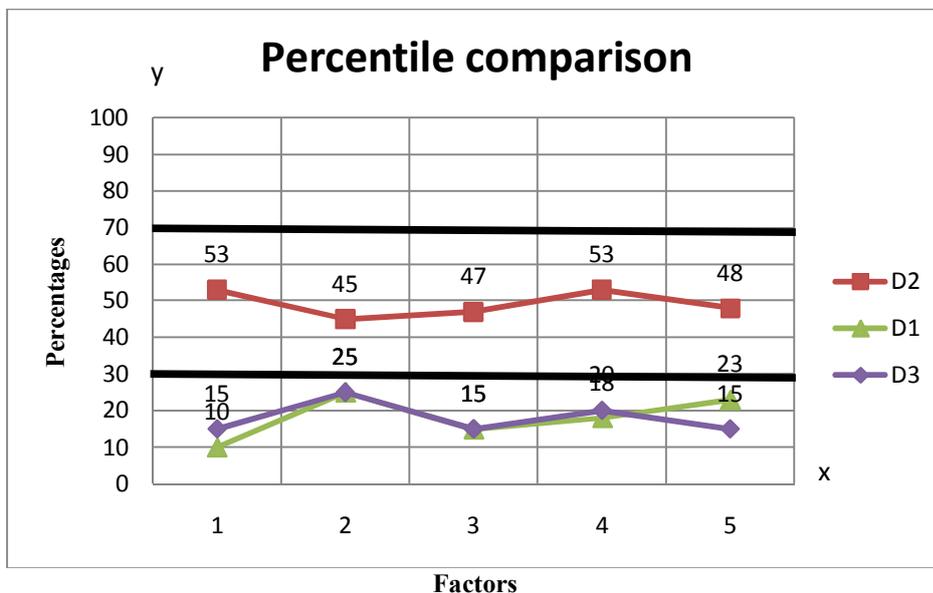


Figure 7.12: Percentile ranking against the LPI database (Model: Kouzes and Posner, 2003:112)

Directors and subordinates share a single line which lands on factor 3 (challenge the process), at about 15% and this means that, as was the case with directors, subordinates' percentile distribution of 15% means that only 15% or less of the subordinates on the LPI database evaluated their leaders the same way (85% provided more scores). From factor 3, the line splits into two where the line for subordinates lands on factor 4 (enable others to act), at 20% percentile distribution which means that only 20% of the subordinates in the LPI database rated their leaders in the same manner, and from factor 4, the line travels downward to factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) where it lands at 15% percentile distribution which also means that only 15% of subordinates in the LPI database have evaluated their leaders in the same way and this also means that 85% of subordinates have rated their leaders more than the subordinates of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture. As it was noticed with directors' percentile distribution, subordinates' percentile distribution also lies below the 'moderate' zone (31%-69%) for all the five factors.

7.11.4 Possible implications of percentile rankings

If it is accepted that figure 7.12 represents a normal distribution where the majority of scores are between 31% and 69%, the ratings by directors and subordinates fall below this 'moderate' zone and all factor ratings lie within the 'low' range which then means that according to directors and subordinates, *deputy directors have failed the international test* and the implication of this is that *deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not engage as frequently as they should in all five factors when compared to the LPI database* and it is apparent that for any group of participants to have percentile distribution that lies within the normal zone (31%-69%), the scores need to be at least a 7 or above as demonstrated by the deputy directors' scores (see table 7.8). This implies that had the scores of directors and subordinates been one more than what they are as reflected in table 7.8, the percentile distribution of directors and subordinates would have been large enough to fall within the normal zone (31%-69%).

The preceding section has demonstrated a worrying situation regarding the leadership behaviour of deputy directors in the sense that they have failed to live up to the international norm as set by the LPI database. But what does that mean in real terms, does it mean that deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture are bad leaders? The search for the answer leads back to the soccer analogy that was presented in section 7.10.3 above where it was mentioned that playing local tournaments only, may not reveal the true strengths of local teams and in order to gauge their strengths, local teams must engage international ones. But that does not

mean that individual players do not know how to play the game. They are equally capable of scoring magnificent goals just like their international counterparts. Their failure to win international tournaments may lie outside their ability to play the game and as such, if those contingent restrictors can be removed, local teams may begin to compete equally with their international counterparts.

The same story can be said regarding this study. Deputy directors are leading people as it is part of their job to do so and the fact that they have failed the international LPI database norm does not mean that they are hopelessly incompetent in doing the leadership job. What it means is that a considerable amount of improvement including the removal of *contingent barriers* that may impede their ability to lead, has to take place so that at the end, deputy directors can only be judged according to the content of their characters which means that all external factors should be removed and that would mean that deputy directors as leaders would be evaluated based only on their leadership behaviour which are not influenced by external/contingent forces.

7.12 TESTING THE HYPOTHESIS

The purpose of this section is to evaluate the data as stratified in the bar graphs and tables in this chapter and more in particular, tables 7.2, 7.8, and figure 7.11 where the data was uploaded to institutional level by combining all groups of participants to see if the data presented does confirm or reject the hypothesis that was posited in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) where it was proposed that **The leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates.** The hypothesis was then broken down into five sections which coincided with the five factors of the LPI model of Kouzes and Posner and these sub-hypotheses were deliberately posited in the negative as follows: deputy directors do not act as models for their subordinates, deputy directors do not share their vision with their subordinates, deputy directors do not challenge the institutional processes in order to effect change, deputy directors do not delegate power to their subordinates, deputy directors do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles, and as a result of these, leadership behaviour of deputy directors have led to low morale of their subordinates. These sub-hypotheses are going to be discussed individually below as follows:

this will be taken as a confirmation that subordinates of deputy directors have positive morale and the reverse shall be inferred where it is proved that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors is viewed as a weakness.

According to figure 7.11 (table 7.8), the first factor (model the way) was rated by all participants at 69% (a score of 125 out of 180) and according to the Likert scale classification criteria that were used, any factor that had a factor score percentage from 65% would be regarded as an indicator of leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors. The analysis done by using figure 7.8 and figure 7.11, points to a situation where it can be inferred that as far as this factor (model the way) is concerned, *deputy directors do have leadership strength* and as such, the sub-hypothesis that *deputy directors do not act as models for their subordinates* is rejected. In other words, deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do act as models for their subordinates.

7.12.3 Second sub-hypothesis: Deputy directors do not share their vision with their subordinates

Factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) was given a combined score of 119 which according to the Likert scale classification criteria translates to a total factor score percentage of 66% and since this is more than 65%, the factor is regarded as a leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors and this means that the sub-hypothesis that *deputy directors do not share their vision with their subordinates* is also rejected. Leadership behaviour strength in this factor infers that deputy directors do share their vision with their subordinates.

7.12.4 Third sub-hypothesis: Deputy directors do not challenge the institutional processes

Factor 3 (challenge the process) was also given a combined factor score of 119 and this translates to 66% and since this is above 65%, it can be inferred that deputy directors have a leadership behaviour strength and the sub-hypothesis that *deputy directors do not challenge the institutional processes* is not true and it is rejected.

7.12.5 Fourth sub-hypothesis: Deputy directors do not enable their subordinates to act

According to the combined ratings of all participants, factor 4 (enable others to act) was rated highest by all participants with a combined score of 137 and as a result, when it is expressed in percentages (76%), it represents the highest leadership

behaviour strength for deputy directors. The sub-hypothesis that claims that *deputy directors do not enable their subordinates to act* is not true. If the data on table 7.8 regarding this factor were plotted on the leadership continuum graph (figure 7.12), it would probably gravitate towards the right and would be close to the extreme (green zone on the Likert scale). This means that deputy directors do enable their subordinates to act by providing them with an environment that is conducive to service delivery.

7.12.6 Fifth sub-hypothesis: Deputy directors do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles

According to figure 7.11, the second highest leadership behaviour strength of deputy directors (70%) is represented by factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure) and as such, it means that *deputy directors do encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles*. If plotted on the leadership continuum graph (figure 7.12) the data for this factor would probably gravitate towards the extreme right albeit not as extreme as factor 4 and this is also supported by the distance between factor 4 (enable others to act) which represents the strongest point of deputy directors and this factor (encourage the heart to endure). In the main, the sub-hypothesis that *deputy directors do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles* is also not true and it is rejected as it can be inferred that deputy directors do encourage their subordinates to endure challenges.

7.12.7 Implications of the percentile ranking on the sub-hypotheses

The question whether the leadership behaviour of deputy directors can be regarded as strength or weakness cannot be ascertained based only on the Likert scale classification criteria alone. It also has to be considered in conjunction with the percentile ranking or distribution that was discussed under section 7.11 above where it was discussed that the main aim of providing a percentile ranking is to investigate whether the data provided by the different groups of participants in this study falls within the normal distribution or not in terms of the rating patterns of the participants who have taken part in the LPI survey in the past. Figure 7.12, then provided a comparison between the ratings of all groups of participants for this study (deputy directors, directors and subordinates) against the ratings of thousands of participants that have used the LPI questionnaire over the years.

It became clear from the percentile distribution of deputy directors that deputy directors do not regard themselves as having leadership behaviour weaknesses

because their ratings lie within the LPI norm. This confirms the siSwati idiom that states that “... *licaca alitiva kunuka*” (the skunk is not affected by its stink). This implies that the leaders who are under evaluation will most probably rate themselves higher than those who are providing data as observers. But figure 7.12 clearly depicts a situation where directors and subordinates do not agree with the ratings of their deputy directors and all their ratings lie below the norm and one would be probably correct in stating that since the data provided by both directors and subordinates lie below the norm, subordinates are not happy with the manner in which their deputy directors conduct themselves as leaders and this can be inferred to mean that, although when the Likert scale classification criteria is used, deputy directors are described as having leadership behaviour strength in all factors, when the same data is plotted on the LPI percentile distribution, the situation changes drastically from indicating leadership strength to indicating leadership behaviour weakness.

The implication of the LPI percentile distribution is that although having established that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors is strong on the Likert scale classification criteria, deputy directors need to take cognisance of the LPI norm where it was discovered that they have been rated very low by their observers (directors and subordinates) as compared to the ratings of the participants in the LPI database who took part in the LPI survey.

7.12.8 Main hypothesis: The leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates.

Again, this section can be better answered by making reference to both the Likert scale classification criteria and the LPI percentile ranking methods. It is obvious that according to the Likert scale classification criteria used for this study, deputy directors, as rated by all category of participants (deputy directors, directors and subordinates) have excelled in all factors by scoring a factor percentage not less than 65% and this meant that the main hypothesis that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates is not true and the impact of the leadership behaviour in this case is inferred to have a positive impact on the morale of subordinates. In other words, if the leadership behaviour of deputy directors on all factors points to strength, then the ultimate effect should be positive employee morale (cause-and-effect principle).

On the other hand, when the same data was plotted on the LPI percentile ranking or distribution graph, the picture changed dramatically and the graph (figure 7.12) indicated that the factor scores of directors and subordinates were generally way below the ratings of the participants (on all factors) who have taken the LPI survey and whose scores were captured on the LPI database. It is clear, from figure 7.12 that the percentile ranking of directors and subordinates points to a situation where it can be inferred that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors have had a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates which confirms the main hypothesis that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors has affected the morale of their subordinates (employees) in a negative way.

7.13 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to present, analyse and discuss the empirical data that was collected from participants using the LPI questionnaire. The chapter began by discussing the challenges that were encountered during data collection stage. These included three impediments as follows: composition of employees in the Department of Agriculture, issues encountered during the distribution and returns of questionnaires, and the human element associated with answering of questionnaires such as the fear participants had in providing information that may be viewed as having negative profile about their deputy directors.

The chapter proceeded by discussing the nature of the collected data so that the reader would be assisted in understanding how the data was packaged and this was presented in a tabular form where factors/practices and their elements/behaviour were packaged accordingly. Each factor had six elements and each element was scored between 1 and 10 (1 being the lowest score and 10 being the highest score). From the table that depicted the nature of the data, the data was then analysed by means of bar graphs and line graphs and tables based on the individual elements. The data was analysed per factor and its elements according to the three types of participants (deputy directors, directors, subordinates). The main aim of this analysis was to identify how the data was scored by participants in terms of the elements using the scale of 1 to 10 (Likert scale). The highest and the lowest scores were identified and discussed and reasons for their existence were provided.

After the analysis of the elements was done, the chapter went on to present and analyse the data according to total scores per factor as indicated in the table depicted under nature of collected data. Instead of looking at the elements, the analysis moved to factor level where the data provided was presented in terms of total scores per factor. Each factor had a possible total score of 60 (10x6) and the

total score of each type of participants was then evaluated out of 60. The ratings of all types of participants were packaged in terms of the factors with each factor discussed separately and thereafter, the data from all participants was combined for the purpose of examining the global view of the data. The data in this section was packaged in terms of series graphs. The highest and lowest rated factor/s were identified and discussed and possible reasons for the differences were also provided.

The next item to be discussed was the percentile ranking of the factors against the established LPI international norm. The LPI norm provided a control mechanism for the survey so that the collected data could be rated against the known norm or standard. The data was packaged on a graph that was divided into three segments indicating "high" zone, "moderate" or "normal" zone and "low" zone. The percentile ranking provided a stratification of the data per category of participants according to all five factors and the behaviour of the data was also discussed where the possible reason/s for such behaviour was provided.

Finally, the data was evaluated against the sub-hypotheses that were proposed in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) for the purpose of establishing whether the data do support these hypotheses or not. The data was evaluated against five sub-hypotheses in the following manner: deputy directors do not act as models for their subordinates, deputy directors do not share their vision with their subordinates, deputy directors do not challenge the institutional processes in order to effect change, deputy directors do not delegate powers to their subordinates, and deputy directors do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles. Finally, the main hypothesis was also discussed using both the information from the Likert scale classification criteria and the LPI percentile ranking method and these two methods led to different or conflicting inferences regarding the implication of the data on the main hypothesis where it was discovered that according to the Likert scale classification criteria used for this study, the leadership behaviour of deputy directors was inferred to be positive (strength) but on the other hand, when the same data was plotted on the LPI percentile ranking graph, the end results was that when compared to other participants who took part in the LPI survey and were captured on the LPI database, the inference was that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors could be viewed as a weakness.

The following chapter will provide conclusions based on the sub-hypotheses that were discussed in this chapter. It will also provide implications of the empirical research in terms of the following: implications for the leadership theory,

implications for public policy and practice, and implications for public sector managers and it will also point to further research that may be necessary to investigate further, some of the issues that were revealed by this study. Chapter 8 will also provide recommendations or proposals that will emanate from the survey as presented in this chapter and it will then close by providing salient points of the discussions that will be presented therein.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“It always seems impossible until it’s done.” Nelson Mandela.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher is likened to a judge who has been listening to a case where different arguments as evidence were presented. After listening to all relevant arguments about the case, the judge must pass a judgement that will either lead to the acquittal or jailing of the accused. What is of particular importance here is that before judgement is passed, the judge must *deliberate* (apply his or her mind) about the meaning of the information presented by both the prosecutor who is acting on behalf of the state or victim and the defence lawyer who is representing the accused (defendant). Likewise, the researcher must reach a stage where he or she begins to evaluate (deliberate) on the information provided as *results* of the study for the purpose of excavating the true meaning of the information so that *judgement* can be pronounced. In other words, the researcher went on a journey to climb a mountain by reaching the highest point and saw how wonderful the horizon was and it is now the time to come down from the mountain and tell those who have not yet undertaken the journey how wonderful the universe is when viewed from the mountaintop. This is the place and time where *empirical* information is pitched against *normative* or *theoretical* information to see if there is *agreement* or *consistency* between theory and practice (Dunn, 2010:8), and this is usually done on the final chapter of the research report (Cherulnik, 2001:10).

The study began by articulating the problem and also providing tentative answers by means of a proposal or a hypothesis and these were discussed in chapter 1. From chapter 2 to chapter 4, an attempt was made at presenting arguments about what is already known about the problem through a system of consulting authoritative sources (review of related literature). Chapter 5 discussed the conditions or profiles of the Department of Agriculture in its capacity or role as *locus* for the study. Chapter 6 provided the methodology that was followed in the designing and collection of the required data and once the data was collected, it was presented, analysed and discussed in chapter 7. The purpose of this chapter is to provide *conclusions* in respect of the empirical data analysis that was done in chapter 7 and this shall be done in conjunction with the theoretical *insight* (how things ought to be) that was discovered from chapter 2 to chapter 5.

The chapter will also provide a discussion on the *value or utility* of the study to various constituents as was promised in chapter 1 (see section 1.4) and this will be discussed under *implications of the study*. Implications shall be presented within the following sections: implications in respect of the leadership theory itself, implications in terms of public policy and practice, and implications in terms of public sector managers who are given the responsibility of providing leadership to their employees. In order to deal with the issues that were identified during the survey, *recommendations* (foresights) will be provided in this chapter as tentative solutions to those challenges. The chapter will also provide *suggestions regarding further research* that needs to be undertaken in order to answer some of the burning questions that were not adequately covered in this study. Finally, the chapter will close by providing *concluding remarks* of salient points that would have been presented in this chapter.

8.2 CONCLUSIONS ABOUT EACH SUB-HYPOTHESIS AND THE MAIN HYPOTHESIS

The purpose of this section is to discuss the findings that were revealed during the data analysis process so that their true meaning can be brought to the surface. What has been revealed by the survey? Or what was discovered by the investigation? Are there some of the questions that the reader may need clarification about? As it was mentioned in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) the hypothesis was broken down into a number of sub-hypotheses for the purpose of providing the results in small but inter-related sections. The reader is reminded that the study was about *leadership behaviour* and as such, it sought to investigate as to how frequently do deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture engage in those behaviours as were reflected in the LPI questionnaire for the purpose of discovering the nature of the collective leadership behaviour of deputy directors. But frequent engagement on behaviours is not the end in itself; rather it is a means to an end and the end being to see *highly motivated employees* who are producing *superior performance* that eventually should lead to *high productivity*. The basic assumption underlying this study was that there is a positive correlation between *morale* and *productivity*. The implication is that if morale is observed to be high, the expectation is that productivity should also be high and on the other hand, if morale is observed to be low, it was expected that productivity will also be low. It is with this basic assumption that the findings of chapter 7 would be constructed and this concurs with the leadership behaviour theory that was presented in chapter 2 (see section 2.5.2) where the central thesis of this theory was identified as *the art of influencing employees towards high productivity by appealing to all their human needs that may affect their performance* (Bovaird and Löffler, 2003:179; Forster, 2005:162).

A number of theories to support this view were presented under section 2.5.2 such as the University of Iowa leadership styles model - Lewin (Hooper, 2006:482), the University of Michigan leadership model - Likert (Tyson, 2006:35-6), the University of Ohio leadership model - Stogdill (Clark, 2006:36), and the University of Texas leadership grid model - Blake and Mouton (Thomas, 2006:45).

The relationship among these concepts *leadership*, *employee morale* and *productivity* was further elucidated in chapter 3 by figure 3.1 where it was argued that good leadership would result in high employee morale and high employee morale would lead to high performance (high productivity) and high performance would eventually lead to *effective and efficient realisation of goals*. It is against this background that the results of chapter 7 as contained in the sub-hypotheses would be evaluated.

The results of the survey were presented in terms of leadership behaviour *strength* and *weakness* of deputy directors in applying the behaviours reflected as elements in chapter 7 (see table 7.2) where high scores on a scale of 1 to 10 were regarded as strengths (frequent engagement = high employee morale = high productivity) and low scores on the same scale (1 to 10) represented weaknesses (infrequent engagement = low employee morale = low productivity). There were five sub-hypotheses that were posited as tentative answers for the resolution of the problem and they are going to be discussed individually below as follows:

8.2.1 Deputy directors do not act as models for their subordinates

According to figure 7.11 (table 7.8), the first factor (model the way) was rated by all participants at 69% (a score of 125 out of 180) and according to the Likert scale classification criteria that were used, any factor that had a factor score percentage from 65% would be regarded as an indicator of leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors. The analysis done by using figure 7.8 and figure 7.11, points to a situation where it can be inferred that as far as this factor (model the way) is concerned, *deputy directors do have leadership strength* and as such, the sub-hypothesis that *deputy directors do not act as models for their subordinates* is rejected. In other words, deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do act as models for their subordinates.

If the first sub-hypothesis was proved to be incorrect, what are its ramifications? To be able to answer this question, reference will be made to the leadership behaviour theories as discussed from chapter 2 to chapter 4 with specific reference to the Kouzes and Posner leadership behaviour theory that was presented in

chapter 4 where it was mentioned that this theory formed the basic foundation for the development of the LPI questionnaire that was used as means of data collection for this study.

8.2.1.1 Issues emanating from the results of this sub-hypothesis

The main purpose for expecting leaders to *model the way* is to fulfil a fundamental law of leadership that states that *credibility is the foundation of leadership* which means that leaders must act *exemplary* by personally demonstrating to their followers what they expect to be done by being the first to do it (see chapter 4, section 4.3). Frequent engagement in this factor could point to a number of benefits for the Department of Agriculture in the sense that deputy directors would be able to do the following:

- It means that deputy directors would be clear about their leadership guiding principles

Leadership guiding principles provide values from which the entire *leadership behaviour* of deputy directors should be based (Hannum, Martineau and Reinelt, 2007:438) and if those leadership values are frequently practiced, it would point to a situation where deputy directors find it easier to clarify their leadership values so that their subordinates can be placed in a position where they will understand why things have to be done as proposed by their deputy directors. In other words, subordinates will be willing to follow their deputy directors if they (subordinates) are quite clear what their deputy directors are prepared to die for. In other words, what are the things that deputy directors are prepared to sacrifice their lives for? This refers to those things that deputy directors *place high premium* on in terms of leadership principles so that they are willing to stand in the line first, in defence of those things (Hess and Cameron, 2006:143). Value clarification also assists deputy directors to *harness the energy of their subordinates towards the realisation of the stated goals* by acting in an exemplary manner by going first (do things first before they can order their subordinates to perform).

Ability to engage frequently in this factor (model the way) as it was discovered in chapter 7 (see figure 7.11) means that deputy directors are able to express their *leadership philosophy* (find their own voices) adequately because they are capable of clearly articulating their leadership principles. Self expression is a product of clear articulation of the leadership philosophy by leaders and it comes about as a means to tell others what is being viewed as being *ethically good* and worthy of pursuit. Leaders without leadership philosophy have no ethical base on which they

can model their leadership behaviour and as such, they end up *mimicking* those leaders they admire and in the process, they lose their original voice, hence, the inability to express themselves clearly in terms of their leadership philosophy. Since deputy directors were found to be competent in this factor, it means that they are in a position to speak with original voice and have avoided the pathetic culture of mimicking others.

- It means that there is consistency between what deputy directors say and what they actually do as leaders

Leadership credibility as it was pointed out in chapter 4 (see section 4.3) suggests that all leaders must discover their leadership philosophy first and be in a position to articulate clearly what their leadership philosophical style is. The next step is to *market* or promote the leadership philosophy to the subordinates who must be convinced or motivated that the leadership philosophy of their deputy directors has an all-embracing culture where everyone is a winner. Chapter 7 (see figure 7.11) indicated a leadership behaviour strength where deputy directors did engage frequently in this factor and in chapter 4 (see section 4.3.2) where it was mentioned that the promotion of shared values provides a *bond between the leader and his or her followers* so that the leadership philosophy is not seen as an *individualistic effort* but to be seen as a product of a *consensus* where the leader was able to *sell* the leadership philosophy to his or her subordinates in such a way that subordinates also began the process of internalising those leadership values to such an extent that they did not view them as being *imposed* on them by the leader but as good values that needed to be supported by all. The survey has found that deputy directors do promote a clearly defined leadership philosophy to their subordinates (see chapter 7, figure 7.11).

A clearly defined leadership philosophy also means that deputy directors as leaders would have been able to align *actions with values*. This was demonstrated in chapter 4 (see section 4.3.2) where it was argued that leaders should *back-up* their talk with their *deeds*. In other words, leaders ought to ensure that what they say is confirmed by what they do (the video must be in synch with the sound). Preaching one thing and then go on to act in a different manner is the first *criminal offence* of good leadership and this will further alienate the followers from the leader because followers would be reluctant to follow a leader who preach one thing but goes on to act in a contradictory manner. *Practice what one preaches* is fundamental to earning the trust and respect of subordinates and since deputy directors do engage frequently in this factor, the findings point to a situation where

deputy directors are found to be competent in their quest to practice what they preach.

8.2.2 Deputy directors do not inspire a shared vision to their subordinates

Factor 2 (inspire a shared vision) was given a combined score of 119 which, according to the Likert scale classification criteria translated to a total factor score percentage of 66% and since this was more than 65%, the factor was regarded as a leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors and this meant that the sub-hypothesis that *deputy directors do not share their vision with their subordinates* was rejected. Leadership behaviour strength in this factor infers that deputy directors do share their vision with their subordinates.

Frequent engagement in this factor has the following benefits in terms of leadership behaviour of deputy directors:

- It means that deputy directors do envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities

In chapter 4 (see section 4.4) a vision was described as *tomorrow's solutions to today's problems* (Yukl, 2006:295) which basically means that leaders cannot solve today's challenges using current solutions because those solutions may not be appropriate for an effective resolution of those challenges. To move away from current challenges, leaders need to seek for answers well into the future by being *forward-looking*. Where leaders are not forward-looking, it means that they may not be able to identify opportunities and the result would be to do the same things over and over yet expecting different results. A clear vision provides direction and establishes a sense of *purpose* for the group. It acts like bonding glue so that all members of the group would be bonded together around it (Ward et al, 2007:28-29). The leadership vision must go beyond the written rhetoric on the vision statement, it must permeate the entire workplace and it should manifest itself in the *actions, beliefs, values* and *objectives* of the group or institution (Leary-Joyce, 2007:238).

In case of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture, leadership behaviour strength in providing a clearly defined vision has the following added benefits:

- It means that deputy directors have succeeded in providing a sense of purpose for members of their groups.

- It means that deputy directors have succeeded in clearly articulating actions, beliefs, values and objectives as it was also identified in the first factor (model the way).
- It means that deputy directors are judging their subordinates on stated outcomes and not on how well they adhere to rules and regulations.
- It means that deputy directors are able to identify future opportunities that would pull the Department towards the realisation of its stated objectives.
- It means that deputy directors do enlist their subordinates in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations

Most probably, the most difficult part of any leader is to sell the vision to the people who have to implement it. As the Gary Yukl model (chapter 4, section 4.4.1.3) has pointed out, if *key stakeholders* are not buying into the new vision, the consequent situation is that it might not be implemented as they will offer strong *resistance* against it. Since participants have rated this factor as leadership behaviour strength, for deputy directors, it means that the following actions are being done:

- It means that deputy directors do involve key stakeholders for the purpose of selling the new vision since they always inspire a shared vision among their subordinates.
- It means that deputy directors do engage in the process of identifying strategic objectives with wide appeal.
- It means that deputy directors do engage in the process of identifying relevant elements in the old ideology or vision that can be used as building blocks for the creation of a new vision.
- It means that deputy directors do link the new vision to core competencies since they frequently engage in the process of envisioning.
- It means that deputy directors do engage in a process of assessing and refining continually the current vision for the purpose of identifying hidden opportunities.

8.2.3 Deputy directors do not challenge the institutional processes in order to effect change

The creation of a new vision was discussed in chapter 4 (see section 4.4.2.2) as simply an act of searching for solutions that would enable an institution to solve today's challenges or problems. The ramifications of this statement are far more profound than it seems. Creating a new vision involves a process of "*doing things*

differently.” By their very nature, new visions cannot be implemented by doing the same things that were done under the old vision, otherwise, if that happens, it simply means that there is no new vision at all, maybe it’s a case of “*old wines packaged in new bottles*”. To move from the current status quo to the new vision, some form of *transformation* must take place. Transformation is essentially, the process that the leader uses in trying to redirect the group’s or followers’ performance or effort towards the new vision. Kouzes and Posner (2002:176-177) put it in an interesting manner when they suggest that “thus the study of leadership is the study of how men and women guide us through adversity, uncertainty, hardship, disruption, transformation, transition, recovery, new beginnings, and other significant challenges.” In other words, true leaders are those leaders who have the ability to excel during hard and trying times. These are the leaders who have the ability to thrive on chaos. When many leaders would be running away through the door, transformational leaders would be rushing in, ready to deal with the challenges of chaotic forces within institutions (Munro, 2008:112-113).

The survey as analysed in chapter 7 (see figure 7.11) has revealed that participants have rated this factor as one of the leadership behaviour strengths for deputy directors because the total score awarded by participants was 119 (66%) and since 66% is more than 65%, it means that deputy directors do engage frequently on this factor as well and as a result, the sub-ó hypothesis that deputy directors do not challenge the institutional processes in order to effect change is rejected. The findings that can be extracted as a result of frequent engagement in this factor include the following:

- It means that deputy directors do search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve

Innovation is the first cousin of change, the world is continuously changing, and people’s demands are forever increasing which means that public institutions must find new ways of doing things if they wish to remain relevant. Since deputy directors are deemed to be capable of seeking innovative strategies for change, the following impacts in terms of this factor are expected:

- Deputy directors are able to take a lead as change agents.
- Deputy directors are able to look outward for fresh ideas.
- Deputy directors are able to challenge the institutional processes with purpose and direction.
- Deputy directors are able to encourage their subordinates to take initiatives.

- Deputy directors are able to act as transformational leaders in their directorates.
- It means that deputy directors do experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes

Change by its very nature, is a risky business where the probability of failure is often high. In chapter 4 (see section 4.5.1), it was argued that a new vision, by definition, creates an opportunity where the effort of groups within the institution can be re-directed so that new outcomes as envisaged in the vision can be realised. This is essentially an attempt at building a new entity that would have the capability of implementing the new vision. This is like dismantling an old house so that a new one can be erected. The process of dismantling an old house usually produces two types of building material: useable and non-useable building material. By the same token, trying to change the status quo of an institution can also bring two types of dimensions: the first dimension could be that groups within the institution can find new inspiration and this can bring fresh positive energy to the institution. But on the other side of the coin, the second dimension could be that changing the status quo can result in serious disintegration of systems and processes within the institution in such a way that some institutional members may find the entire exercise disruptive and highly stressful (Hughes *et al.* 2006:399).

Since this factor was also rated as one of the leadership behaviour strengths for deputy directors, this means that deputy directors have been able to provide their respective directorates with the following:

- Deputy directors have been able to initiate incremental steps and small wins (starting with the low hanging fruits) so that their teams can gain confidence in dealing with changing environments.
- Deputy directors have been able to learn from mistakes so as not to repeat the same blunders again going forward.
- Deputy directors have been able to promote psychological hardiness among their subordinates so that the spirit of self-belief is inculcated.
- Deputy directors have been able to deal with stress as a by-product of a changing environment both for themselves and for their subordinates.

8.2.4 Deputy directors do not enable their subordinates to act

In chapter 4 (see section 4.6), it was argued that the process of influencing others is an act of *enabling others* to perform whatever tasks are assigned to them so that the goal being pursued can be achieved. This was stated as the *foundation of the behavioural leadership approach*. The implication contained in this approach was stated as a situation where the successes and failures of the group were regarded as the sole responsibility of the leader (Kraines, 2001:29; Isaksen and Tidd, 2006:174-75). This pointed largely to the ability and nature of the environment created by the leader in terms of how followers are *enabled* in respect of the *tasks* that must be *performed* for the purpose of achieving the goal being pursued. This was also stated as the stage where team building strategies are unleashed by the leader and the strengths of those team building strategies are tested for their effectiveness.

According to figure 7.11 and table 7.8, this factor (enable others to act) was rated as being the highest strength for deputy directors which led to the rejection of the sub - hypothesis (total score of 137 out of 190 which, when translated into percentage, stands at 76%) and the implications of this finding are the following:

- It means that deputy directors do foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust among their subordinates

It was argued in chapter 4 (see section 4.6.1) that in order to enable members to work together, leaders within institutions must create an environment where the culture of working together as teams is fostered. As this factor has been rated by participants as being the strongest point for deputy directors, it means that deputy directors are able to do the following:

- Deputy directors are able to create a climate of trust among their subordinates so that strategic objectives of the Department of Agriculture can be turned into reality.
- Deputy directors are able to facilitate positive interdependent teams by developing cooperative goals, supporting norms of reciprocity and rewarding joint endeavours.
- Deputy directors are able to support face-to-face interactions with their subordinates by creating an environment where sustained ongoing group interactions are facilitated which eventually leads to the linking of subordinates to the human networks within the Department.

- It also means that deputy directors are able to connect their subordinates to the sources of power by sharing information and resources and also, they are able to empower their subordinates by encouraging the development of social awareness and social skills.
- It means that deputy directors do strengthen their subordinates by sharing power and discretion

In chapter 2 (see section 2.3.3.2), the positive view of power was described as the active engagement of subordinates from the designing of tasks to be performed right down to the implementation of those tasks (Ferraro, 2008:213-14). This was also viewed as the *democratic approach* to power utilisation and this meant that subordinates would be encouraged to function as teams, would be supported in their quest to realise institutional objectives and would be rewarded for their positive efforts and these measures would be expected to lead to morale boosting conditions for subordinates (Stoner, 1982:308; Plunkett *et al.* 2005:261-62). Since deputy directors were rated highest on this factor, the findings are:

- Deputy directors are able to foster a spirit of self-leadership among their subordinates by transferring some of their powers to their subordinates.
- Deputy directors are able to provide their subordinates with necessary resources so that subordinates can assume responsibility for the results that are expected from them.
- Deputy directors are able to develop competence and confidence among their subordinates by sharing appropriate information, and also, by allowing their subordinates to take centre stage in problem solving.
- Deputy directors are able to build confidence of their subordinates by acting as coaches.
- Deputy directors are able to foster the culture of accountability among their subordinates where subordinates become accountable for their own conducts.

8.2.5 Deputy directors do not encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles

In chapter 4 (see section 4.7) it was mentioned that there is an English saying that goes “*when the going gets tough, the tough get going*”. This was explained as a condition that refers to a situation where the group may feel that the target to be reached is quite impossible to achieve and this may lead to the demoralisation of some members to the point where they may opt out of the project (Zhou and

Shalley, 2008:223-224). It was further mentioned that enduring through all trials and tribulations until the goal was reached requires courage and strong will to succeed and this was recognised as a place where successful leaders become useful in the sense that they would be able to radiate fresh energy by encouraging the group to endure the suffering until the goal has been accomplished (Lee, 2003:14-15; Perry, 2010:32-33). Since the ratings of all participants identified this factor as being the second highest strength for deputy directors (combined score of 126 which translates to 70%) which led to the rejection of the sub - hypothesis and these findings have the following implications:

- It means that deputy directors do recognise contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence

In chapter 4 (see section 4.7.1) it was argued that in the finality of it, getting results is the ultimate objective of any institution but by focusing on results without acknowledging those people who made it possible for the group to produce those results may be a self-defeating exercise for the leader because there may come a time when the superior performing individuals may decide either to cut back on their performance or look for other opportunities outside the institution (Hare *et al.* 1994:101; Jones, 2007:29). Since this factor was rated by participants as the second highest leadership behaviour strength for deputy directors as reflected by figure 7.11, it means that deputy directors are able to do the following:

- Deputy directors are able to provide clearly defined standards that guide the performance of their subordinates.
 - Deputy directors are able to engage with their subordinates by providing feedback on the work achievements made by their subordinates.
 - Deputy directors are able to set their subordinates stretching goals for the purpose of encouraging high performance.
 - Deputy directors are able to motivate their subordinates to do more by paying attention to the work of their subordinates and also, by being sensitive to the feelings of their subordinates.
 - Deputy directors are able to actively listen to their subordinates as well as having the ability to act as coaches and friends of their subordinates.
- It means that deputy directors do celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community

In chapter 4 (see section 4.7.2) it was argued that celebrations are important in instilling the spirit of unity among members of a group (Hulse-Killacky *et al.*

2001:11-12; Perry, 2010:32-33). They are also used as motivators so that even those members who are under-performing can begin to appreciate how it would feel like to be winners and that would trigger the desire to work even harder (Hare et al, 1994:266-267; Plunkert *et al.* 2005:312). For deputy directors, having leadership behaviour strength in this factor as reflected on figure 7.11, means that they are able to do the following:

- Deputy directors are able to reinforce shared values and outcomes by matching celebrations to the objectives of the Department of Agriculture.
- Deputy directors are able to provide social support to their subordinates by providing an environment, through staging celebrations that build team spirit (*esprit de corps*) that enables their subordinates to know and care about one another.
- Deputy directors are able to demonstrate their celebratory spirit by telling moving stories that act as reinforcements of what the Department seeks to accomplish.

8.2.6 The leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture has a negative impact on the morale of their subordinates

In chapter 1 (see section 1.8) there was a discussion regarding the nature of the relationship between *leadership behaviour* and *group morale*. The argument went on to state that according to Lipsey, science was based on studying how variables are related to each other (Lipsey, 1989:28). It was further explained that the hypothesis for this study has two variables: the *independent* variable which was plotted along the x axis (horizontal) that is made up of all the patterns of leadership behaviour as identified in the Kouzes/Posner[©] Leadership Practices Inventory[©] Model (LPI). This is the variable that was studied and manipulated with the aim of establishing how it would exert impacts on the second variable that was plotted along the y axis (vertical). This variable was called the *dependant* variable. In other words, it was expected to react to changes in the independent variable. The dependant variable for this study was identified as being *employee morale* and its changes was observed as being the work of the independent variable, that is, it was expected to be affected by changes in the independent variable (leadership behaviour).

The relationship between the independent and dependent variables can either be positive or negative (Lipsey, 1989:29; Seale, 1998:173-176). The relationship

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between the two variables is said to be positively related when an increase in x causes a corresponding increase in y and the variables are understood to be negatively related where a decrease in x results in the increase of y or where an increase in x results in a decrease of y. For this study, the variables were expected to be negatively related. This was informed by the premise that said that if there were good leadership behaviour, one would expect employee morale to be high (Lussier and Achua, 2004:4; Perry, 2010:14-15) and the main hypothesis was rejected based on the Likert scale classification criteria that was used for this study where it was discovered that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors has a positive impact on the morale of their subordinates. Morale was understood to be the function of leadership behaviour and it could be stated mathematically as, $EM=f(LB)$. This equation states that employee morale (EM) is a function of leadership behaviour (LB) (Lipsey, 1989:29; Clark-Carter, 2004:36-37). This assumption was regarded as being central to this study because it justified the carrying out of the investigation and without it, there would be no justification in undertaking the study. Another critical assumption that was made was that the dependant variable could be influenced by a number of other variables such as institutional culture, sudden changes in the objectives of the institution, inadequate funding to carry out the mandate of the unit, remuneration issues, and type of work performed. This implied that leadership may not be the only cause of high or low morale as stated by the hypothesis (Weisenberg and Bowen, 1977:9; Cargan, 2007:40). But it was important to note that in order to study a particular phenomenon, the other phenomena that might affect the outcome equally if not more, must be assumed to be constant or *ceteris paribus* (remaining unchanged), otherwise the study would have to cater for all possible causes and that may render the study cumbersome with no particular direction (Gomm, 2004:3).

In its basic form, the main purpose of the study was to investigate the *impact* of the *leadership behaviour* of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture on the *morale* of their subordinates or employees. The empirical data that was analysed in chapter 7 (see figure 7.11) discovered that the *leadership behaviour* of deputy directors has led to high *employee morale* in the Department of Agriculture and that finding was based on the fact that when the data was aggregated, all factors were given factor scores that were more than 65% and when all the factor scores of all participants were combined, they yielded a factor score percentage of about 70% which when pitched against the Likert scale classification criteria that were set by the researcher, meant that deputy directors were perceived to have leadership behaviour strength. Since deputy directors were awarded an aggregate factor percentage of 70%, this meant that this had a positive influence on employee morale as indicated by the *products of morale model* that was presented in chapter

3 (see section 3.6) by Bruce (2003:12). In this model, Bruce has identified a number of factors which she calls *products of group morale* and it is these factors that act as *indicators* of the level of morale of a group.

According to the empirical data as tabled on figure 7.11, leadership behaviour of deputy directors have led to high morale among their subordinates and as a result, the following morale indicators are also expected to be high:

- Esprit de corps among subordinates

Esprit de corps was defined in chapter 4 (see section 3.4.1) as *team spirit*. The term *õspiritõ* denotes a philosophical position that prevails deep in the minds of the members of a group. It is the inner feelings of loyalty that members of a group have towards one another (all -for-one and one- for-all) and if group morale is high, it means that subordinates are able to give support to one another for the purpose of fostering positive team spirit.

- Positive attitude of subordinates

Positive attitude is brought about by congruency between group expectations and institutional goals as was discussed under the Schwartz model in chapter 3 (see section 3.2.3). High group morale will result in a positive feeling among group members not only towards the work they are doing but also towards the institution itself and it would mean that the positive attitude of subordinates will also be high.

- Cheerfulness of subordinates

A cheerful group is a happy group and a happy group is a productive group. This was demonstrated in the Hawthorn Experiments that were conducted by Mayo and his associates from Harvard University where the productivity of the group increased even where extrinsic motivators such as salaries and working conditions did not change but what changed were the intrinsic motivators that led to happy working environment of those workers (Stoner, 1982:45; Cherulnik, 2001:228-229). If group morale be high, it means that subordinates would be cheerful most of the time and that would lead to a positive view of their working environment in general.

- Confidence of subordinates

Confidence is also a product of group morale. The confidence of the group to tackle even harder tasks will be enhanced where the leader and indeed the entire institution show trust and appreciation for the contributions made by the group. This point was made strongly by Kouzes and Posner in chapter 4 (see section 4.6) where they argued that the leader's job is to empower the group so that group members can perform at their optimal level. Where group morale becomes high, it means that most of the time, subordinates would display the necessary confidence when carrying out their tasks which also means that the supervisor would be able to spend less time supervising.

- Generosity of subordinates

Generosity in this instance refers to the *willingness and ability* of the group to provide support to other groups without *moaning and groaning* and this means that the group with high positive morale will regard themselves as ambassadors for the entire institutions who are willing to provide support to other groups so that they too can realise their own goals. Where group morale is high, it is also expected that subordinates would radiate high enthusiasm to support other units within the Department which eventually will lead to cooperative existence of units that would be able to pull towards the same direction.

- Hope of subordinates

When challenges begin to bedevil institutions, it is only those groups with high hopes that will be able to make sense out of chaos. This condition is in fact a normal feature of the public sector where political leadership come and go all the time. Where high group morale is prevalent, it means that subordinates would not be intimidated by innovation or change and would always show keen interest to adopt new approaches that would move their units (directorates) towards a new direction (embracing change).

- High self-esteem of subordinates

High self-esteem is closely related to high confidence. A group with high confidence will also display high esteem where members of the group will display self-direction and the ability to take initiatives and not wait for the leader to command them on what to do. In a situation where group morale is high, it is expected that subordinates will have the ability to be self-directed and would be

eager to take initiatives and would not always wait for their supervisors to give them instructions.

- Determination of subordinates

Determination refers to the amount of strength the group has to ensure that challenges are overcome. This is where the group becomes fired up to battle until the summit is reached and if group morale is high, it means that subordinates would have the will to soldier on when they face insurmountable obstacles.

- Meaningful purpose of subordinates

Millions of men and women spend most of their working time locked into the confines of their institution and this can have the adverse effect of bringing boredom and lack of sense of purpose where the group under which one serves is characterised by low morale. This is the condition that Marx and Engels were trying to highlight (Stoner, 1982:254; Forster, 2005:169-173) that millions of men and women are trapped under monolithic work design that results in alienating them from the wider institutional activities. Like hope, meaningful purpose provides a sense of existence for the group.

- Mutual support among subordinates

Mutual support is closely related to esprit de corps. Members of a group that has high positive morale tend to support one another because they are aware that the success of individual members leads to general success of the group (we are in this together). This phenomenon is more prevalent in police or army groups where members are prepared to defend their colleagues to the death. High group morale would point to a situation where members of a group provide intergroup support for one another and the result of which is general enhancement of group coherency.

- Loyalty of subordinates

Loyalty to the institution means that group members are prepared to sacrifice additional income that they might receive if they elect to leave and get employed by another institution. Loyalty also means that members of the group will be able to defend the interests of their institution at all times. The opposite of loyalty is *staff turnover* where people decide to resign in large numbers because of low morale they experience in their institutions and another dark side of disloyalty is

sabotage where some members of a group get engaged in acts that are designed to destroy property and systems of their own institution as well as the instigation of a *high theft rate* of assets of their institution. High morale means that group members would project a propensity to defend their institution against some harmful practices.

8.3 CONCLUSIONS ACCORDING TO THE LPI PERCENTILE RANKING

In chapter 7 (see figure 7.12) it was argued that if it were accepted that figure 7.12 represented a normal distribution where the majority of scores are between 31% and 69%, the ratings by directors and subordinates fell below this "moderate" zone and all factor ratings lay within the "low" range which then meant that according to directors and subordinates, *deputy directors have failed the international test* and the implication of this is that *deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not engage as frequently as they should in all five factors when compared to those participants who have participated in the LPI survey and were captured in the LPI database.*

It is obvious that the introduction of the LPI percentile ranking has brought certain dichotomous dilemmas in terms of interpretation of the data. This meant that the data had to be evaluated by means of two approaches: the Likert scale classification criteria and the LPI percentile ranking and these approaches have yielded different (opposite) results.

According to the Likert scale classification criteria, deputy directors were perceived to be strong on all five factors whereas when the same data was analysed using the LPI percentile ranking, a different scenario was produced where it was discovered that directors and subordinates perceived their deputy directors as having leadership behaviour weakness in all the factors and the question that arises from this dichotomous situation is: which approach should be adopted when drawing conclusions for this study?

The writer recommends that both approaches be applied and this recommendation is based on the fact that the Likert scale classification criteria seems to "hide" some of the critical leadership behaviour weaknesses of deputy directors. For example, when the factors are analysed individually, it became apparent that deputy directors were not so strong in at least three of the factors (factor 1, factor 2 and factor 3) and this information was camouflaged as the factors were combined giving the impression that deputy directors are doing well as leaders.

The introduction of the LPI percentile ranking provided critical analysis that unmasked the camouflaging of individual factors by the Likert scale classification criteria and it became clear that deputy directors were not doing so well when the scores were compared with scores of international participants who have participated in the LPI survey. The implication of the results of the LPI percentile ranking is that deputy directors need to do more on those elements where they were rated low by observers (directors and subordinates) more in particular factor 1, factor 2 and factor 3 and this is mitigated by the fact that leadership is a global phenomenon and deputy directors cannot afford to be rated lower than the LPI norm (31%-69%) as this would point to a situation where deputy directors may be viewed as underperformers. Deputy directors are leading people as it is part of their job to do so and the fact that they have failed the international LPI database norm does not mean that they are hopelessly incompetent in doing the leadership job. What it means is that a considerable amount of improvement including the removal of *contingent barriers* that may impede their ability to lead, has to take place so that at the end, deputy directors can only be judged according to the content of their characters which means that all external factors should be removed and that would mean that deputy directors as leaders would be evaluated based only on their leadership behaviour which are not influenced by external/contingent forces. Some of the recommendations that will be made under section 8.6 below will provide specific solutions to these issues.

8.4 CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

In chapter 1 (see section 1.6) it was argued that the primary objective of this study was to investigate the nature of the leadership behaviour of middle managers (deputy directors) of the Department of Agriculture and to discover how those leadership behaviour affect employee morale. Since the problem was mentioned as being central to any research endeavour (Leedy, 1989:45; Coolican, 2006:5), it was imperative that the findings emanating from the survey be evaluated against the stated problem for the purpose of ascertaining whether the problem was adequately resolved or not. The research problem was posited as:

What is the nature of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture, and, how do these leadership behaviour affect employee morale?

The entire study was undertaken for the purpose of resolving this problem and it is clear that the problem was packaged in a question form and it contained two related sub-questions. The first question (what is the nature of the leadership

behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture) was answered by figure 7.11 (chapter 7), and the second one (how do these leadership behaviour affect employee morale?) was answered by figure 7.12 (chapter 7). On the first question, the empirical data revealed that the nature of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors had *strength* in all five factors and it was discovered that deputy directors have highest leadership behaviour strength on two of the five factors and these were identified as factor 4 (enable others to act - with a total score of 137 which when converted to percentage, it stands at 76%) and factor 5 (encourage the heart to endure - with a total score of 126 which when converted to percentage, it stands at 70%). It was also discovered that, although rated lower than the two highly rated factors, deputy directors have leadership behaviour strength on the three remaining factors because of the Likert scale classification criteria where it was decided that all factor scores that fall from 65% and above, would be regarded as a leadership behaviour strength: factor 1 (model the way- with a total score of 125 which when converted to percentage, it stands at 69%), factor 2 (inspire a shared vision - with a total score of 119, which when converted to percentage, it stands at 66%), and factor 3 (challenge the process ó with a total score of 119 which when converted to percentage, it stands at 66%).

The question whether the leadership behaviour of deputy directors have affected the morale of their employees was answered by figure 7.12 where the data was plotted on a graph that compared the ratings of all participants against the established international norm. The graph revealed that deputy directors rated themselves within the international norm whereas directors and subordinates scores were below the international norm which meant that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors did affect the morale of their subordinates in a negative way. That is, high ratings would have been an indicator of high employee morale, and since the ratings were low, it meant that subordinates were not happy about certain things that are done or not done by their deputy directors.

8.5 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

At this point, the reader may still have one critical question: what is the value of the study in the accumulation of knowledge? This question was partly answered in chapter 1 (see section 1.4) where the value of the study was categorised into four dimensions that were discussed in the following manner: There are four constituencies that stand to benefit from the study. Firstly, the Department of Agriculture as *locus* for the study will benefit in the sense that the recommendations that will be made will contribute towards effective leadership development within the Department. *Effective leadership is a critical driver of*

employee morale. Therefore, the derived utility of the study is that it could contribute to *high employee productivity* as a result of effective leadership and in addition, it is hoped that the process will lead to the adoption of the Leadership Practices Inventory[©] as a standard tool for the development of managers within the Department regardless of their rank so that all managers can speak with one voice when it comes to issues of leadership.

Secondly, the study will add value to scientific knowledge in the sense that whatever grain of truth is discovered, will be made known so that any public institution that is facing similar challenges, can learn how to deal with those challenges. In this regard, empirical investigations that are critical in the adoption of theory into practice will contribute in this study to test the theory of leadership as postulated by Kouzes and Posner through the development of the LPI instrument.

Thirdly, the researcher stands to benefit from the experience that will be accumulated throughout the process, and this experience may become useful in doing consulting work which in turn can contribute to effective leadership development in various institutions.

Fourthly, as indicated earlier, leadership is mentioned in chapter ten of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. Section 195(1h) states clearly what managers need to do for their people and that is, to foster the spirit of good management of human capital and also, they must nurture the careers of their employees. The significance of the Constitution in the management of public institutions cannot be overemphasised. Any manager of a public institution who is not *au fait* (conversant) with the contents of the Constitution is guilty of gross negligence. The Constitution is the supreme law of the Republic of South Africa and whatever it says must be done, otherwise, the rights of the people will be flagrantly violated. South Africa is a young democracy. Institutions cannot be run as if they were “*spaza shops*” (informal grocery shops operating in townships and at informal settlements). The significance of the study in this regard is that it will raise awareness on issues of leadership which in turn, those issues will assist managers to act in accordance with the dictates of the Constitution.

The full picture of the research's findings within the body of knowledge will be provided in this section, that is, the theoretical implications of the research will be presented herein so that the reader can be in a better understanding of the value of

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the research as it was mentioned in chapter 1 (see section 1.4). The time has come where the findings that were discussed under section 8.2 above must be interpreted in terms of their contribution to the body of existing knowledge.

For the purpose of this study, implications of the study will be packaged into three sub-sections: implications of the study in terms of the leadership theory, implications of the study in terms of public policy and practice, and implications of the study in terms of public sector managers.

8.5.1 Implications of the study in terms of the leadership theory

The purpose of this section is to answer the question of how this research would contribute to the body of knowledge as it was promised in chapter 1 (see section 1.4). There are two ways in which any doctoral study is expected to contribute to the body of knowledge in the chosen field and these are: original contribution to knowledge and original application of existing knowledge (www.ece.nus.edu.sg/stfpage/elearnk/phd/phdth1.html). *Original contribution to knowledge* happens when a researcher develops a new theory and *original application of existing knowledge* refers to the use of existing theory to a new situation. This study has contributed to the body of existing knowledge in the field of leadership behaviour by employing the second method (original application of existing knowledge) where the LPI survey instrument was used in a new situation to discover the nature of leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture and also to discover how those leadership behaviour of deputy directors affected the morale of their employees.

The study has contributed to the body of existing knowledge by applying the LPI to a new situation (Department of Agriculture) where such theory has not been applied before for the purpose of discovering how the leadership behaviour of deputy directors have affected the morale of their employees. The findings that were presented under section 8.2 above have shed some light in terms of revealing firstly, the nature of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture and secondly, by establishing how the leadership behaviour of deputy directors have directly affected the morale of their employees/subordinates.

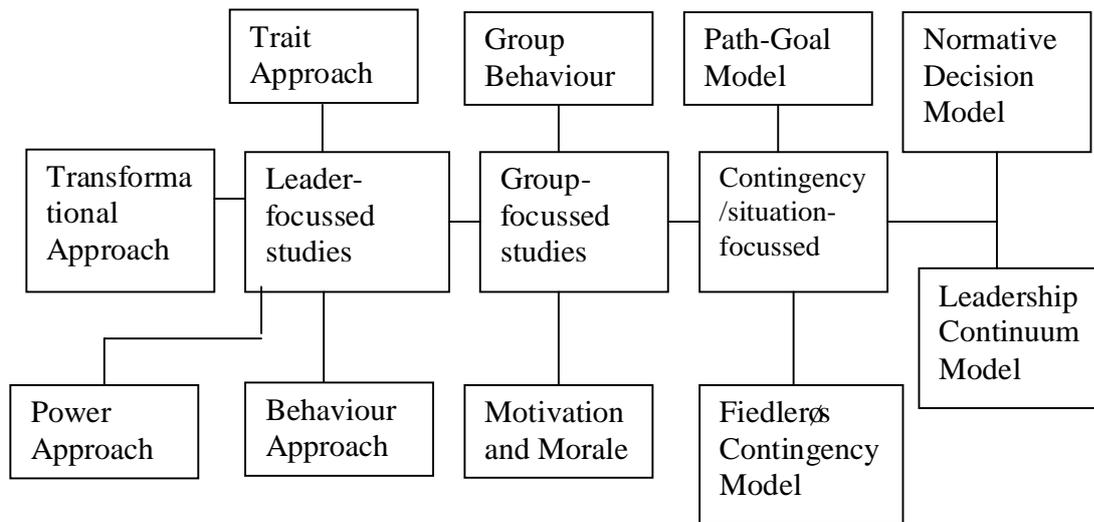


Figure 8.1: Leadership theory analysis framework (Source: Own)

The study has also contributed to the existing leadership theory by proving that the leadership behaviour theory (LPI) can be applied to all layers of management (top, middle, lower) and this has quelled the fallacious myth that seeks to claim that the function of leadership is an exclusive domain of top management.

Another contribution of this study to the existing leadership theory has been the creation of a leadership theory analysis framework (LTAF) which was presented in chapter 2 (see figure 2.6) as a tool to assist readers to make sense out of the different approaches to the leadership theory and where it was argued that the leadership theory is approached from three different angles: leader-focused studies, group focused studies and situation/contingency focused studies and since this study was about leadership behaviour, it is clear that it is a leader-focused approach where the emphasis is on the activities of the leader in terms of his or her interaction with his or her subordinates. The leadership theory analysis framework is tabled above as figure 8.1 for ease of reference.

8.5.2 Implications of the study in terms of public policy and practice

This study was conducted within a public institution which meant that it would have significant impact on public policy and practice. In chapter 1 (see section 1.2) it was argued that in South Africa, the leadership function is regarded as the most important function in the public sector (Constitution of South Africa 1996, section 195). The *principles of good human resource management* are postulated by chapter ten of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. Section 195 (1h), for example, states that *Managers of public institutions must foster good*

human resource management and career development behaviours so as to maximize human potential.” The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service also emphasises this fact. Part of the mission of the White Paper, for example, is to “Promote human resource development and capacity building as a necessary precondition for effective change and institution building” (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995:2.2). The White Paper goes on to point out that there are a number of challenges that need to be addressed in this regard. The following past and current challenges are the ones that are relevant to this study:

- Centralized control and top-down management

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1d) argues that prior to 1994, the public service was highly authoritarian, heavily centralized and rule-bound. The reason for centralization was that it was strongly oriented towards the control of the majority and as such, it was characterized by the development of a vertical top-down management structure that invariably discouraged democratic practices and creativity within public institutions.

- Lack of accountability and transparency

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1e) goes on to state that employees were largely held accountable for adherence to rules and procedures rather than for productivity and efficiency.

- Low productivity

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1g) indicates that the total number of public servants to the population they were serving at the time was one to every 30 inhabitants. When compared to other countries with similar developmental economies, this was viewed as being relatively low in terms of productivity. One of the causes of low productivity was identified as being lack of education and training opportunities for the majority of public servants.

- Professional ethos and work ethics

The White Paper (1995:3.1.1j) also states that in many parts of the public service, there were inefficiency, mismanagement and corruption that had hindered the development of a professional ethos and work ethics that would have contributed to high employee performance.

- Lack of skills and capacity

The White Paper (1995:3.1.2i) further contends that the discriminatory effects of the apartheid education system, coupled to the relative lack of opportunities for in-service education and training for the disadvantaged groups within the public service, has led to a serious problem of capacity and as a result, the public service was battling to provide effective service.

The study has indeed added value by highlighting the role of the leadership theory in assisting public sector managers to operate within the confines of public policy more in particular the Constitution. The study has acted as a link between theory and practice in so far as leadership behaviour of managers is concerned in a public institutional setup. In other words, it has provided a foundation for public leadership that seeks to adhere to the requirements of the Constitution. Another important revelation that was highlighted by this study is that the findings that were presented under section 8.2 above revealed that there are still gaps between theory and practice in the field of public leadership development and more in particular in the public sector. This assertion was confirmed by the findings that confirmed that there was low morale among subordinates caused by the leadership behaviour of deputy directors (LPI percentage ranking) and as such, the implication was that deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture do not observe the dictates of the Constitution which states that *managers of public institutions must foster good human resource management and career development behaviours so as to maximize human potential*. In short, the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture have been exposed as having not fostered a good human resource management and career development for their subordinates which by implication, pointed to *ineffective utilisation of human capital* which had the potential of affecting *service delivery* in a negative way.

8.5.3 Implications of the study in terms of public sector managers

Public sector managers are the practitioners who must ensure that theories are tested in practice and as such, they are in constant need of good theories that will empower them to improve their performance. The value of the study to public sector managers can be found in its ability to empower managers by highlighting the role of leadership behaviour in human resource management. This is a ground breaking philosophy in the field of public administration where the sector is characterised by heavy reliance on rules and regulations where excellence is measured by how well employees adhere to rules and regulations and not on stated objectives of the institution. By focusing on behaviour, the study has brought home

the fact that human-beings cannot be treated like machines and be expected to perform optimally. This study has demonstrated that public sector managers can derive superior performance from their subordinates by following scientific behaviour patterns and it is these behaviour patterns that have been highlighted by this study. In other words, the study has added value by *highlighting the link between leadership behaviour of public sector managers and employee morale* which has hitherto being ignored and employee morale is the central ingredient for employee productivity (productive people are happy people).

The study has also added value to public sector managers by highlighting the need for a uniform leadership development standards for all layers of management within an institution so that the institutional culture can reflect the same leadership aspirations from top managers, middle managers and low managers. Leadership uniformity has another value for public sector managers and that is, *it has the potential of eradicating the myth that the function of leadership is an exclusive domain of top management* where middle and lower managers are expected to act as carriers of instructions rather than as creators of instructions in their own right.

The study has also added value to public sector managers by demonstrating that the leadership function can be learned which means that anybody who aspire to be a leader can learn and acquire those leadership skills that will transform him or her into a good leader. Learning to lead is a fundamental concept towards the creation of good leaders in the public sector in the sense that by opening the floodgate of leadership development, those leaders who are not effective will soon find themselves being replaced by a new breed of leaders who are determined to do the right thing and treat their subordinates according to scientific leadership methods. As more competent leaders are brought into the system, it is hoped that there would then be corresponding increase in quality public service delivery which is the ultimate objective of all public sector institutions.

8.6 RECOMMENDATIONS EMANATING FROM THE STUDY

Recommendations, as it was mentioned under section 4.4 (chapter 4), can be compared to the envisioning process where it was mentioned that a vision provides tomorrow's solutions to today's problems. This implies that the value of any research project is contained in the recommendations or proposals that are advocated by the researcher and those recommendations must be packaged in such a way that they show clearly how the new information has been able to add value to the advancement of knowledge in that particular research field in line with what was promised in chapter 1 (see section 1.4). The recommendations that will be

proposed will be directed at the Department of Agriculture as solutions to the challenges that have been identified during the study bearing in mind that the study was conducted within the Department. As a result of the data analysis exercise that was done in chapter 7 as well as the discussion of the findings that was presented in section 8.2 above, the study has reached a point where proposals to correct the identified challenges can be provided. These proposals are presented below as follows:

8.6.1 Conduct a genuine strategic restructuring process (professionalization of the Department of Agriculture)

Figure 7.1 of chapter 7 has revealed a serious challenge in terms of the composition of employees of the Department of Agriculture. It was argued that the challenge was that the Department of Agriculture is a national institution whose main role is to provide *leadership, policies, norms and standards* for the agricultural sector and as such, it has to have an army of *professional employees* who are able to communicate with stakeholders at a high level and to do that, the minimum level should have been at least level 9 (assistant director level). But looking at the distribution of employees within the Department, one was confronted with a serious situation where the majority of the employees fell below level 9. For example, the Department is expected to provide guidance to all provincial departments of agriculture and this involves the holding of meetings and the facilitation of workshops and the drawing-up of policies, strategies and programmes and how can an employee at level 8 be able to facilitate a meeting that is attended by provincial employees at level 12? The issue of levels in the public sector plays an important role in terms of estimating the *positional power* that an employee can exert towards others. Employees at lower levels will always find it tough to address employees at higher levels and more in particular when it involves issues of policies and strategies. This is tantamount to employing primary school teachers to work as university lecturers and one doubts if such teachers can effectively deal with the situation. A war is fought and won using professionally trained soldiers who have the ability to handle any war situation.

Figure 7.1 reveals a serious leadership dilemma for the Department of Agriculture where only 17% of the employees (levels 9-10) can be deemed to be professionals who are capable of interacting effectively with provincial departments and the rest (83%) may not be properly placed in terms of providing effective professional services to provinces. What is even more worrying is the fact that a large number of employees are at level 2 (25%) which means that the Department is full of

messengers, cleaners and tradesmen and these employees do not contribute directly to the mission of the Department.

It is recommended that the Department of Agriculture should undergo a restructuring process that will lead to the professionalisation of the Department so that it can provide effective service by employing the right personnel. The restructuring process must focus on the quality of the personnel that is needed to provide effective service and not on the functions only as it has been the case up to this point.

8.6.2 Draw-up a leadership development agenda (institutionalisation of leadership)

Throughout the entire study, leadership has been viewed as a primary driver of effective service delivery for any institution. The hiring and promotion of people to positions of leadership without providing them with proper training has been the major cause for leadership derailment in the Department of Agriculture. If *leadership is at the centre of effective service delivery*, the Department of Agriculture is advised to draw-up a *leadership development strategy* that will ensure that any person that is authorised to lead others is properly trained to carry out that function. Leadership development should be made *mandatory* so that no one should be allowed to *lead others* without being adequately trained in the field of leadership and leadership development should be distinct from general managerial development. This will have an added advantage of providing leadership uniformity where all members of management, irrespective of level, will apply the same leadership principles when dealing with their employees. Another added advantage of internally groomed leaders is that they will develop in-depth understanding of the internal environment (agricultural approach) as opposed to externally recruited leaders (factory approach) who must still be socialised in the internal dynamics of the Department. The leadership development strategy should be *promoted* by the Director-General so that it should gain acceptance by all layers of management.

8.6.3 Inculcate a culture where the vision of the Department can be shared by all (speak with one voice)

In chapter 5 (see section 5.2) it was argued that the Department of Agriculture has had serious challenges in terms of rapid changes in its vision in such a way that employees are overwhelmed by the changes that they have to deal with in their key result areas (KRAs). It is recommended that the Department of Agriculture should

inculcate the culture of ensuring that every manager is equipped to preach the vision to his and her employees until all employees of the Department are able to identify and support the vision of the Department with verve and alacrity it deserves.

8.6.4 Allow more decentralisation of decision-making (innovation)

Innovation is driven by risk-taking and where leaders are not allowed to decide on risk-taking strategies, there is no way that they can seize the opportunity to act as change agents. Directorates are critical delivery systems for the Department of Agriculture and yet the power to decide is placed solely on the shoulders of directors who may use such power in a manner that may stifle innovation for middle and lower managers. To unleash the innovative spirit of deputy directors and assistant directors of the Department of Agriculture, it is recommended that more decision making power be distributed among these management levels. Another advantage of decentralisation would be to transfer leadership experience to middle and lower managers so that when they are promoted to higher positions, they will be in a position to provide effective leadership (train-the-trainer).

8.6.5 Provide a channel where people's concerns about leadership issues can be effectively addressed (feedback mechanism - listen to the voice of the voiceless)

It is recommended that the Department of Agriculture should conduct leadership behaviour surveys once a year using the LPI survey as a tool so that the results of the surveys can indicate the nature and effect of leadership behaviour within the Department and this will act as an early warning system regarding challenges of leadership before they become toxic. It is further recommended that the annual leadership surveys should be conducted with the authority of the Director-General so that all levels of managers can participate fully. This recommendation could serve as a feeder to section 8.5.2 above where the leadership agenda can be constantly revised and improved. These recommendations are packaged in a graphical form as indicated by figure 8.2 below.

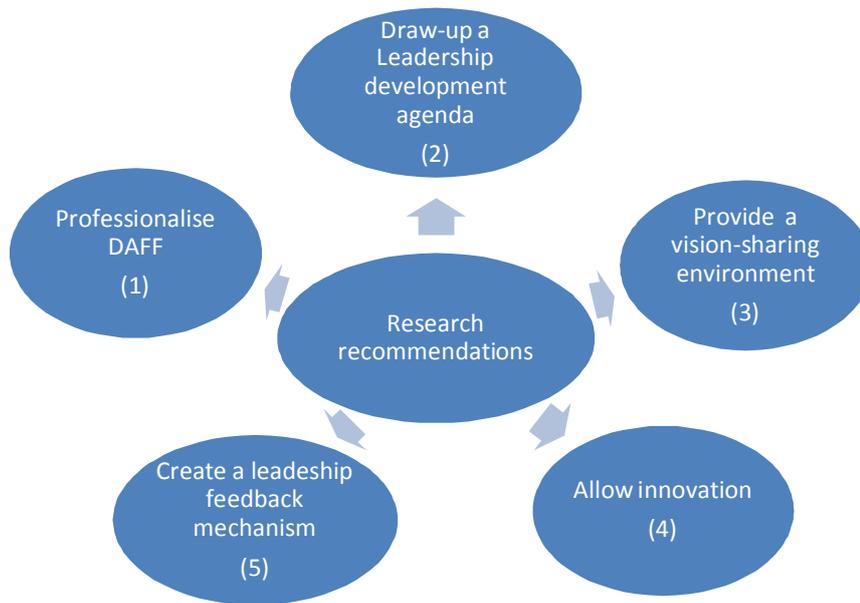


Figure 8.2: Research recommendations (Source: Own)

8.7 FURTHER RESEARCH

The study focused specifically only on deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture and it is recommended that further research be conducted across the whole spectrum of managers, that is, from top management to lower management. This recommendation is in line with the argument that claims that the leadership behaviour theory is applicable across the entire management spectrum. A complete picture can emerge only after all layers of management within the same institution have participated in this type of survey. The second recommendation in terms of further research is that the study needs to be extended to other public institutions both at national and provincial level where conditions will obviously differ according to the mandates of those institutions. For example, will the same results be attained if the study was conducted in the Department of Correctional Services, the South African Police Service and the Department of Basic Education? One should bear in mind that although all these institutions are operating within the public sector, their mandates may require a different mix of leadership behaviour as it was discussed in chapter 2 about the impact of the contingency/situational theories on leadership in general.

8.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss three things: conclusions or findings that were inferred from the empirical data that was presented and analysed in chapter 7, implications or values of the study to different constituents, and to provide recommendations that would act as solutions to the challenges that were discovered during the treatment of the empirical data that was presented in chapter 7.

Conclusions were provided based on the sub-hypotheses that were presented in chapter 1 (see section 1.8) and these were organised under five sub-hypotheses and it emerged from the study that, in terms of the Likert scale classification criteria that were used for this study, firstly, deputy directors of the Department of agriculture did act as models for their subordinates and that meant that they were clear about their leadership guiding principles. It was also discovered that deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture had no difficulty in reconciling what they were saying to their subordinates and what they were actually doing as leaders. Secondly, the study revealed that deputy directors did inspire a shared vision to their subordinates and that meant that they did provide a vision with exciting and ennobling possibilities and as a result, they were able to rally their subordinates around a common vision that was based on shared aspirations. Thirdly, the study revealed that deputy directors of the department of Agriculture did challenge the institutional processes and procedures for the purpose of effecting positive changes so that the Department could position itself better to deal with its mission effectively. The ability to challenge institutional processes and procedures meant that deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture were able to search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to improve how things should be done. It was also discovered that deputy directors did encourage the culture of risk-taking where small gains could be generated and where mistakes could serve as learning experiences never to be repeated.

Fourthly, the study also revealed that deputy directors were good at enabling their subordinates to do their jobs and as a result, deputy directors were found to be able to foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust among their subordinates. Another important finding under this sub-hypothesis was that deputy directors were able to strengthen their subordinates by delegating some power and discretion. Fifthly, the study revealed that deputy directors did encourage their subordinates to endure in the face of insurmountable obstacles and as a result of that particular leadership behaviour strength, the inference was that deputy directors were able to recognise individual contributions by showing

appreciation and that they also encouraged a culture of celebrating values and victories where a spirit of community was created.

Sixthly, the study revealed that the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture had in the main, led to high morale of their subordinates and as a result, subordinates experienced high esprit de corps, positive attitude towards the Department, general happiness of subordinates, confidence among subordinates was found to be high, willingness to cooperate from subordinates was also found to be high, self-esteem of subordinates was also found to be high, it was also inferred from the results of this study that the determination of subordinates was high, mutual support among subordinates was also inferred to be on the high and that meant that the loyalty of subordinates was positive.

The same data was also evaluated using the LPI percentile ranking and it was discovered that deputy directors performed poorly in all factors because the scores provided by both groups of observers (directors and subordinates) in comparison to the scores of other participants in the same categories who took part in the LPI survey in the past were way too low and that revealed the leadership behaviour weaknesses of deputy directors that were concealed by the Likert scale classification criteria and based on the LPI percentile ranking approach, it was inferred that employee morale of subordinates was low.

The chapter also provided a brief discussion regarding conclusions that were drawn about the research problem itself. It was revealed that the study was able to show how the research problem of the study was resolved by means of the information provided by figure 7.11 and figure 7.12 of chapter 7.

The value of the study was clearly defined in this chapter and this was packaged under three implications. The first implication discussed was in line with the value of the study in terms of its contribution to the leadership theory where it was revealed that the study has contributed to the leadership theory by *making an original application of existing knowledge to a new environment*. Another value that was provided by this study was identified as the creation of a leadership theory analysis framework (LTAF) which has made it easy to interpret the different approaches to the leadership theory. The second implication of the study was in terms of its contribution to public policy and practice bearing in mind that the study was conducted within a public institution. It was argued that the study made a contribution in this regard by highlighting the role of the leadership theory in assisting public sector managers to operate within the confines of the Constitution and other personnel directed policies such as the White Paper on the

Transformation of the Public Service. The third implications were in terms of adding value to public sector managers so that they too can utilise human capital optimally so that quality service can be delivered to clients and stakeholders.

The study proceeded by providing recommendations which were described as necessary proposals that would act as answers or solutions to the challenges that were revealed by the study. The first recommendation was directed at assisting the Department to consider the calibre of the people who are supposed to perform the critical functions that are expected by clients and it was recommended that the Department should re-visit the issue of restructuring so that genuine restructuring that would lead to effective service delivery could be done. The second recommendation was made to highlight the fact that leadership development should be taken seriously so that all managers are properly skilled in leading people and the central point advocated here was that leadership development must be made mandatory for all layers of management so that uniformity could be achieved. The drawing-up of a leadership development strategy was then proposed.

The third recommendation was proposed as an attempt at inculcating the culture of ensuring that every manager is in a position to preach or sell the vision of the Department so that all employees of the Department would be in a position to identify with and support the vision with verve and alacrity.

The fourth recommendation was made as an answer to the problem of lack of innovation by deputy directors that have led to a situation where necessary changes to processes and procedures within the Department are not done proactively. It was then recommended that in order to effect necessary changes of processes and procedures, decision-making would have to be decentralised down to the lowest ranking manager. The fifth recommendation that came about as a solution to the challenges as revealed by the study was based on the fact that there was no feedback where people could voice their concerns regarding issues around leadership so that leaders can be in a position to understand how their leadership behaviour impact on those they are supposed to lead. The recommendation made was that an annual leadership survey must be conducted using an established scientific leadership survey instrument such as the LPI.

Last but not least, recommendations were also made regarding further research that needs to be conducted so that more information can be acquired regarding public sector leadership challenges. It was then recommended that research be further conducted within the Department of Agriculture to the other layers of management (top management and lower management) so that a complete picture about the

nature of leadership behaviour and how it affects employee morale can be painted right across the Department. It was further recommended that the study needs to be conducted at other public institutions, both national and provincial, so that leadership behaviour of public managers could be provided in a scientific manner even though contingent factors as it was argued under section 8.7 would have to be taken into consideration.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

Letter of authority to conduct study within the Department of Agriculture



agriculture

Department:
Agriculture
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

MEMORANDUM

TO: Directors and Deputy Directors	FROM: CHIEF DIRECTOR: CORPORATE SERVICES
	Telephone: (012) 319 – 7333/4
	Enquiries: N.I. Miti
Your ref:	Ref:
Dated:	Date: 09 January 2009

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Mr. Amon Myeni of the Directorate: Agricultural Development Finance is conducting a study on Leadership Behaviours of deputy directors. The Study is conducted for full requirement for the Doctor of Public Administration Degree (DPA) with UNISA.

The Study revolves around leadership issues focussing specifically on the leadership role of deputy directors in the Department. His Thesis is entitled, *Leadership Behaviour and Employee Morale within the Department of Agriculture.* He has requested and has been granted permission to collect data by means of a questionnaire from three categories of participants: directors, deputy directors and their direct reports (subordinates). The purpose of this exercise is to achieve a 360° profile of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors.

Mr. Myeni will communicate with you directly in due course and your cooperation in this regard will be greatly appreciated.

A questionnaire is being designed and will be distributed shortly. The information will be used for academic purposes only and confidentiality will be respected. This means that no names of individuals or directorates will be divulged in the Thesis.

Kind regards,

N.I. MITI

CHIEF DIRECTOR: CORPORATE SERVICES

APPENDIX B:

Letter of authority from authors to use the Leadership Practices Inventory tool

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL
15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030 USA
FAX: (408) 354-9170

January 24, 2005

Mr. Amon Myeni
8 Blackkattle Avenue
Heuweloord, Gauteng 0149
South Africa
Email: myeni@absamail.co.za

Dear Amon:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your letter, at no charge, with the following understandings:

- (1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
- (2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2003 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
- (3) That one (1) **bound** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of **all** papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
- (4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

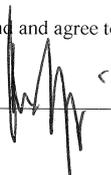
If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed



Date:

28/01/2005

APPENDIX C:

Letter to participants explaining the purpose and objective of the study

Dear Sir/Madam,

In South Africa, the leadership function is regarded as one of the most important functions of management in the public sector. The *principles of good human resource management* are postulated by chapter ten of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. Section 195 (1h), for example, states that *“managers of public institutions must foster good human resource management and career development behaviours so as to maximize human potential.”* The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service also emphasises this fact. Part of the mission of the White Paper, for example, is to *“promote human resource development and capacity building as a necessary precondition for effective change and institution building”* (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995).

AIM OF QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The aim of this questionnaire is to collect empirical data in respect of the leadership behaviour of deputy directors of the Department of Agriculture and then do an impact analysis for the purpose of establishing how those leadership behaviour of deputy directors affect the morale of their direct reports/subordinate.
2. The Department of Agriculture as locus for the study will benefit from the information in the sense that the recommendations that will be made will contribute towards effective leadership within the Department. Effective leadership is a critical driver of employee morale. Therefore, the derived utility of the study is that it could contribute to high employee productivity as a result of effective leadership.
3. It is also envisaged that the empirical data collected using the questionnaire will form a baseline study for leadership development in the Department so that all levels of management (from lower, middle, top) can be trained using a scientifically constructed tool to enable all managers to *“speak with one voice”* when it comes to issues of leadership.

I thank you for your participation and the time you have given me while filling in the questionnaire and I would like to assure you that the information you have provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Your name and the name of your Directorate will not be mentioned in the Report.

Best regards,

Amon Myeni
Deputy Director: ADF

09 February 2009

APPENDIX D:

Empirical study questionnaire

- Questionnaire ó Deputy directors

**RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE:
DEPUTY DIRECTOR**



“Leadership is people development”

RESEARCHER: AMON MYENI

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please write your identity code in the space provided at the top of page 4. Below your identity code, you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviour. Please read each statement carefully and use the RATING SCALE on the next page (page 3) to respond to each statement. Ask yourself:

“how frequently do I as deputy director engage in the behaviour described?”

- Be realistic about the extent to which you actually engage in the behaviour.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- Do not answer in terms of how you would like to behave or in terms of how you think you should behave.
- Do answer in terms of how you typically behave on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving yourself 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your behaviour. Similarly, giving yourself all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either.
- For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box on the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the research questionnaire one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. Every statement must have a rating.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10.

Choose the number that best applies to each statement starting from page 4.

1. **Almost never**
2. **Rarely**
3. **Seldom**
4. **Once in a while**
5. **Occasionally**
6. **Sometimes**
7. **Fairly often**
8. **Usually**
9. **Very frequently**
10. **Almost always**

CODES:

DIRECTOR - D1
DEPUTY DIRECTOR - D2
DIRECT REPORT - D3

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Your identity code: _____

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviour? Please use the RATING SCALE indicated on page 3. Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box on the right of the statement.

- | | |
|---|----------------------|
| 1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others. | <input type="text"/> |
| 2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done. | <input type="text"/> |
| 3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities. | <input type="text"/> |
| 4. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with. | <input type="text"/> |
| 5. I praise people for a job well done. | <input type="text"/> |
| 6. I spend time and energy ensuring that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on. | <input type="text"/> |
| 7. I describe a compelling image of what the future could be like. | <input type="text"/> |
| 8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work. | <input type="text"/> |
| 9. I actively listen to diverse points of view. | <input type="text"/> |
| 10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities. | <input type="text"/> |
| 11. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make. | <input type="text"/> |
| 12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future. | <input type="text"/> |

13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
-
14. I treat others with dignity and respect.
-
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
-
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.
-
17. I show others how their long-term interest can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
-
18. I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.
-
19. I support decisions that people make on their own.
-
20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
-
21. I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
-
22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.
-
23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans and establish measurable milestones for the projects and the programmes that we work on.
-
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choices in deciding how to do their work.
-
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
-

26. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.
-
27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
-
28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.
-
29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
-
30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.
-

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

DIRECTORATE'S CODE:

- Questionnaire ó Directors and subordinates

**RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE:
DIRECTOR AND SUBORDINATE**

**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND EMPLOYEE
MORALE WITHIN
THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE**

“Leadership is people development”

RESEARCHER: AMON MYENI

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please write your identity code in the space provided at the top of page 4. Below your identity code, you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviour. Please read each statement carefully and use the RATING SCALE on the next page (page 3) to respond to each statement. Ask yourself:

“how frequently does my deputy director engage in the behaviour described?”

- Be realistic about the extent to which your deputy director actually engages in the behaviour.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- Do not answer in terms of how you would like to see your deputy director behave or in terms of how you think he or she should behave.
- Do answer in terms of how your deputy director typically behaves on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your deputy director's behaviour. Similarly, giving all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either.
- For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box on the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the research questionnaire one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. Every statement must have a rating.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10.

Choose the number that best applies to each statement starting from page 4.

1. **Almost never**
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5. **Occasionally**
6. **Sometimes**
7. **Fairly often**
8. **Usually**
9. **Very frequently**
10. **Almost always**

CODES:

DIRECTOR - D1
DEPUTY DIRECTOR - D2
DIRECT REPORT - D3

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Your identity code: _____

I (the observer) am this deputy director's Director

To what extent does your deputy director typically engage in the following behaviour? Please use the RATING SCALE indicated on page 3. Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box on the right of the statement.

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others. | <input type="text"/> |
| 2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done. | <input type="text"/> |
| 3. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities. | <input type="text"/> |
| 4. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with. | <input type="text"/> |
| 5. Praises people for a job well done. | <input type="text"/> |
| 6. Spends time and energy ensuring that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on. | <input type="text"/> |
| 7. Describes a compelling image of what the future could be like. | <input type="text"/> |
| 8. Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work. | <input type="text"/> |
| 9. Actively listens to diverse points of view. | <input type="text"/> |
| 10. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities. | <input type="text"/> |
| 11. Follows through on the promises and commitments that he/she makes. | <input type="text"/> |
| 12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future. | <input type="text"/> |

13. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
-
14. Treats others with dignity and respect.
-
15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
-
16. Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance.
-
17. Shows others how their long-term interest can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
-
18. Asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.
-
19. Supports decisions that people make on their own.
-
20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
-
21. Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
-
22. Paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.
-
23. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans and establish measurable milestones for the projects and the programmes that we work on.
-
24. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choices in deciding how to do their work.
-
25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.
-
26. Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership.
-

27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

28. Experiments and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.

29. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

DIRECTORATE'S CODE:

