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MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP: BUCCANEERING OR SCIENCE?

Word count: 5245 words

Abstract:

Purpose: This paper aims to determine (i) the views of a select group of manager-students on

general management and leadership; and (ii) whether or not their views correspond to

classical management theory.

Methodology/approach: An exploratory-descriptive approach was employed. Specifically, a

survey was conducted among final-year MBA students of a specific university. These

students are all employed in management positions in their respective organisations.

Findings: The students view general management and leadership as being the same and their

views correspond to the theory underpinning classical management.

Research limitations: Statistically the findings cannot be generalised beyond the scope of

this study, due to its exploratory nature. However, the concepts referred to in this study can

inform and be tested in further research.

Practical implications: It would seem that there is indeed a body of knowledge underpinning

classical management. Mastery of this knowledge could enable managers to ensure the

preferred competitive positions of their organisations.

Originality/value of paper: This paper focuses attention anew on classical management and

its scientific nature as well as its contribution to the sustained competitive success of

organisations.

Key words: Classical Management; General Management; Leadership; Manager-students;

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Type of manuscript: Research Paper

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MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP: BUCCANEERING OR SCIENCE?

Introduction

By now it is generally accepted that management and leadership play a vital role in the

competitiveness of firms. As such, these terms were used interchangeably for most of the

twentieth century (Kent et al. 2001), when the discipline of classical management was first

documented. Pioneers in classical management treat leadership as part of management, as the

leadership tasks/activities (generally referred to as command and co-ordination) are deemed

an integral part of management (see inter alia Fayol, 1949). However, many contemporary

authors distinguish between these two concepts in a way that seems to focus on leadership

and render management irrelevant (see, for example, Zaleznik, 1977; Kent, 2001; Armandi et

al., 2003). However, there appear to be other contemporary authors who share the same

sentiments as the seminal classical management authors in this regard (see for example

Ulrich, Zenger & Smallwood, 1999).

The documented body of knowledge underpinning classical management, including

leadership, is a relatively young discipline (Wren, 2005). Furthermore, most people in

management positions have been specifically trained in some technical area rather than

management. Hence, it stands to reason that these managers/leaders do not necessarily

practice management/leadership as prescribed by management theory. The reason for this was

earlier given as "the lack of a published body of knowledge" (Follett, 1925, in Metcalf &

Urwick, 1940). Later on the reason was described as "the younger group do not know these

(original) works; more hear them misinterpreted" (Lillian Gilbreth, 1953). Because of the

lack of clarity regarding classical management theory and the consequent gap between theory

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and practice, management became equated with "buccaneering" at some point (see Follett,

1925 in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940).

The question that arises is "Do academics and practitioners alike embrace classical

management science or do they treat management as buccaneering?" Bearing in mind that

management may be the most significant task/activity of organisations ensuring success, it is

not the only task/activity of organisations.

With the above as background, the authors set-out to determine whether there was a gap

between classical management, as manifested in "general management" and leadership

theory, and contemporary practice. A literature review is followed by a survey of a select

group of manager-students. Thereafter follow the survey results, which are compared with the

literature to determine whether there is a gap between theory and practice. This article closes

with conclusions and recommendations.

Literature review

Traditionally, that is before the twentieth century, "business" was seen to be synonymous

with "trading", which was associated with unscrupulous practices that did not require special

intelligence or training (Follett, 1925 in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940). If a person considered his

child unfit to study for a profession, he put him into business. Traditional management viewed

staff as docile, having no will of their own (McGregor, 1942 in Bennis et al. 1966). Hence,

they had to be "driven" (Gilbreth, 1914 in Spriegel & Myers, 1953) and treated as children

rather than mature adults (Follett, 1925 in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940). The consequence was

that traditional management accepted that they had to adopt a paternalistic stance and tell staff

when to do what. In essence traditional management dominated staff and bent their wills to

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that of the "masters", using fear for the masters' gain (Follett, 1925 in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940; Gilbreth, 1914 in Spiegel & Myers, 1953; McGregor, in Bennis et al. 1966).

This flawed view of management's role was highlighted from the first publications on classical management (see inter alia Owen, 1813 and Babbage, 1832 in Merrill, 1960; Taylor, 1911; Barnard 1938; Follett, 1925 in Metcalf and Urwick, 1940; Fayol, 1949; Gilbreths in Spriegel & Myers 1953; Simon, 1962; McGregor, in Bennis et al. 1966; Drucker, 1955, 1989 and 2003; Koontz & Weinrich, 1988; Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood, 1999; McHahon & Carr, 1999; Fells, 2000; Humphreys & Einstein, 2000; O'Connor, 2000; Collins, 2001; Rodriques, 2001; Wren, 2001; Wren, Bedeian, & Breeze, 2002; Bruch & Ghoshal, 2004; and Wren, 2005). These focused on the importance of management's creating an environment in which employees could achieve their full potential while at the same time efficiently achieving the goals of the organisation (see *inter alia* Owen, 1813 in Merill, 1960; Babbage, 1832 in Merill, 1960; Follett, 1925 in Metcalf and Urwick, 1940; Taylor, 1911; Barnard, 1938; Fayol, 1949; Simon, 1962; Ulrich, Zenger & Smallwood, 1999). Typical themes addressed include:

- Systems theory. The organisation consists of different parts that impact on the functioning
 of one another; and the organisation is influenced by the broader environment in which it
 conducts business.
- The organisation is a social setting consisting of people with talents which contribute to the organisation's success.
- The well-being of people, whether on the job or not, is more important than that of machines used in production.
- Productivity is important in wealth creation. Hence the person most suitable for the job should be employed in the particular position. Furthermore, the abilities of the workers

should be honed to ensure they all achieve their full potential and, consequently, engage in

the work most interesting to them. Processes and structures also influence productivity. As

such, they have to be aligned with the goals of the organisation to ensure efficacy.

This view of management required a shift in the mindsets of both management and employees

to ensure success in the long run.

In summary, the classical management literature highlights the mutually beneficial relations

between management and employees in producing goods and services, at a surplus, to

customers.

It is important to note that the classical management authors use the terms "management" and

"leadership" interchangeably at all hierarchical levels (be it at the level of foreman,

superintendent, manager, director, or CEO) of the organisation (Follett, 1925 in Metcalf &

Urwick, 1940; Fayol, 1949; Gilbreths, in Spriegel & Myers 1953; McGregor, in Bennis et al.

1966; Ulrich, Zenger & Smallwood, 1999). It appears that "management" is generally used in

connection with tasks/activities such as planning, organising and control, while leadership is

often used in connection with tasks/activities such as command and co-ordination. According

to Fayol (1949), the art of command rests on certain personal qualities and a knowledge of

general principles of management, while co-ordination relates to according things and actions

their rightful proportions and adapting means to ends, bearing in mind the obligations and

consequences involved. All of these tasks/activities fall within the scope of the primary

management tasks. The idea is that management, including leadership, can energise the group,

encourage initiative and innovation and draw from all staff members what they have to offer,

while the staff take full responsibility for their contributions, ensuring that the organisation is

successful in the long run (Owen, 1813 and Babbage, 1832 in Merrill, 1960; Taylor, 1911;

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Barnard, 1938; Follett, 1925 in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940; Fayol, 1949; Gilbreths, in Spriegel & Myers 1953; Simon, 1962; McGregor, in Bennis et al. 1966; Drucker, 1955, 1989 and 2003; Koontz & Weinrich, 1988; Moss-Kanter, 1997; Ulrich, Zenger & Smallwood, 1999; Fells, 2000; Humphreys & Einstein, 2000; O'Connor, 2000; Collins, 2001; Witzel, 2002; Wren, Bedeian, & Breeze, 2002; Bruch & Ghoshal, 2004; Wren, 2005).

Since the mid-1970s some authors have distinguished between classical management and leadership as two distinct concepts (Zaleznik, 1977; Burns, 1978; Kotter, 1996; 2001; Tichy, 1997; Bennis & Nannus, 1999; Kent, Crotts & Azziz, 2001; Armandi, Oppedisano & Sherman, 2003; Pearce, Sims, Cox, Ball, Schnell, Smith & Trevino, 2003). Generally, the tasks/activities they associated with leadership are deemed to be secondary management tasks (i.e. communication and motivation). Nevertheless, it would seem that the leadership proponents suggest that leadership is an exalted concept, with nobler intentions that classical management (Zaleznik, 1977; Burns, 1978; Kotter, 1996; 2001; Tichy, 1997; Bennis & Nannus, 1999; Kent, Crotts & Azziz, 2001; Armandi, Oppedisano & Sherman, 2003; Pearce, Sims, Cox, Ball, Schnell, Smith and Trevino, 2003). To some extent these ideas seem to render classical management irrelevant.

In this regard, the work of Zaleznik (1977) seems to represent the watershed between classical management and the focus on leadership. A few observations regarding the scientific rigour of this specific work are warranted. Firstly, only two CEOs were interviewed in connection with aspects of running a business. No information is divulged as to why and how these two CEOs were selected. The two CEOs responded very differently to the questions posed, hence Zaleznik's view of management and leadership – management being regarded as mundane, repetitive and problem-solving in nature, while leadership engages in transformational

activities, requiring imaginative capabilities to direct affairs. Finally, a very important point that needs to be highlighted is that generalisations cannot be made beyond this study, on two accounts. Firstly, researchers cannot be sure that the contexts, assumptions and other critical aspects of scientific research, including a causal relationship between the CEO response and success of the business, are compatible and hence allow for generalisations in the particular case(s). Secondly, from a statistical point of view, two items can hardly be considered representative of the population as a whole.

In addition, if the contemporary leadership literature is compared with the classical management literature, there seems to be no real difference, except that leadership represents a partial view of classical management and the tasks/activities are mainly associated with secondary rather than primary management tasks (Zaleznik, 1977; Burns, 1978; Kotter, 1996; 2001; Tichy, 1997; Bennis & Nannus, 1999; Kent, Crotts & Azziz, 2001; Armandi, Oppedisano and Sherman, 2003; Pearce, Sims, Cox, Ball, Schnell, Smith & Trevino, 2003 versus Owen, 1813 and Babbage, 1832 in Merill, 1960; Taylor, 1911; Barnard, 1938; Follett, 1925 in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940; Fayol, 1949; Gilbreth in Spriegel & Myers 1953; Drucker, 1955; 1989; 2003; Simon, 1962; McGregor, in Bennis et al. 1966; Koontz & Weinrich, 1988; Moss-Kanter, 1997; Ulrich, Zenger & Smallwood, 1999; Fells, 2000; Humphreys & Einstein, 2000; Collins, 2001; Witzel, 2002; Bruch & Ghoshal, 2004; Wren, 2005). The two concepts are, rather, inextricably intertwined. If one considers the meaning of classical management presented so far, it seems that progress was achieved over the years in establishing and advancing the body of knowledge underpinning classical management, which naturally includes leadership.

Classical management can therefore be described as the process of creating and maintaining an environment in which employees, individually and collectively, can perform to achieve the purpose of the organisation, namely efficiently satisfying customers (Nienaber, forthcoming EBR) in the long run. This description of classical management is congruent with definitions proposed by Taylor (1911); Barnard (1938); Follett (1925, in Metcalf & Urwick, 1940); Fayol (1949); Gilbreth's (in Spriegel & Myers, 1953); Drucker (1955; 1989; 2003); Koontz & Weinrich, (1988); Moss-Kanter (1997); Ulrich, Zenger & Smallwood (1999); Collins (2001); Witzel, (2002); Magretta (2003); Bruch & Ghoshal (2004); and Wren (2005). In studying the definitions of the said authors certain themes emerge, which are deemed to be the constituent parts of classical management. It should be noted that not all authors use the same labels to identify these themes, nor do they all explicitly refer to these themes, nor do they all refer to all of these themes. For purposes of this paper we have grouped the approaches to management and leadership into categories according to dominant themes addressed. This classification is provided in Table I, with an indication of the key features, key limitations and authors deemed to be part of each category.

Table I: Classification of management and leadership approaches

Approach	Key features	Key limitations	Authors focusing predominantly on these approaches
Relations approaches	These approaches focus on relations, whether interpersonal, within the group or organisation. Generally behaviours and management tasks such as command or directing, communication, motivation, behaviours and traits of persons are associated with these approaches. These approaches also represent the perspectives of the top hierarchical positions of the organisations. The majority of the management tasks accounted for in these approaches are considered to be secondary management tasks (see for example Oosthuizen et al., 2004). These approaches generally have their roots in psychology.	Management comprises far more than mere relations between and among people. Planning, execution and control are critical management tasks, over and above relations, which are not accounted for in these approaches. Above all, the relations approaches do not provide for the impact of the environment on the organisation (such as the reason for its existence and variables impacting on its survival and growth), nor the context of the organisation. These contexts are equally important in the success (or failure) of the organisation.	Zaleznik, 1977 Burns, 1978 Bennis and Nanus, 1985 Kotter, 2001
Micro approaches based on certain management tasks/activities • Talent management, including diversity, empowering employees and innovation • (Business) process optimisation, value chain	These approaches focus on a combination of the following management tasks/activities: • decision making • survival and growth of the business • direction setting • determining priorities • determining organisational	The management tasks/activities addressed by the different authors are important in the success of the business. These tasks/activities are generally associated with the primary management tasks, i.e., planning, organising, command, co-ordination and control. Again, more is at stake than a fragmented approach to some of these	Owen, 1813 in Merrill 1960 Babbage, 1832, in Merrill, 1960 Captain Henry Metcalf, 1885, in Merrill, 1960 Henry Towne, 1886, in Merrill, 1960 Russel Rob, 1910, in Merrill, 1960

			-
management and productivity Information and knowledge management, including communities of practice Management roles Performance and consequence management	 performance understanding the environment in which the firm operates; maintaining wealth-creating capacity of the business establishing information needs, gathering and using information creating an environment in which employees can perform selecting a competitive arena in which to compete ensuring competitive advantage ensuring adherence to principles of productivity. 	tasks/activities. Once more, the impact of the environment on the organisation (such as the reason for its existence and especially value to customers) and the context of the organisation do not receive adequate attention, while they are vital to success (or failure) of the organisation.	Taylor, 1911 Mintzberg, 1973 Moss-Kanter, 1987 Emerson, 1912 in Merrill, 1960 and Wren 2005 Gantt, 1916 in Merrill, 1960 and Wren, 2005 Tichy*, 1997 Collins, 2001
	Some of these approaches may include		
	relations to a degree.		
Systems or Integrated	These approaches deal	Relationships and interrelationships	Barnard, 1938
approaches	comprehensively with management	within the firm and its environment can	Parker-Follett, 1925 in
These approaches are holistic	tasks/activities covered by the	be complex.	Urwick & Metcalf, 1940
in nature and consider both	previous two approaches, at all		Fayol, 1916 as translated in
primary (planning, including	hierarchical levels of the organisation,		1949
foresight to anticipate the	and take into account the effect of the		Gilbreths in Spriegel &
future, organising, command,	environment on the success of the		Meyer, 1953
co-ordination, control) and	firm. These approaches also account		Simon, 1962
secondary (decision-making,	for interrelationships within the		McGregor*, 1966
communication and	organisation. Above all the managers/leaders at all hierarchical		Drucker, 1955, 1989, 2003
motivation) management tasks, with due attention to	levels of the organisation accept		Ulrich*, Zenger, Smallwood, 1999
environmental influences, at	responsibility for results. As such they		Bruch and Ghosal, 2004
all hierarchical levels of the	ensure that staff experience their		Diach and Ghosai, 2007
organisation. It is important to	contribution to success as meaningful.		
note that the "planning"			

tasks/activities are used in a		
strategic context as it requires		
"foresight" to anticipate the		
future.		

^{*} These authors are usually associated with leadership and/or motivation. However, if one scrutinises their work, they address more than relationships, motivation and leadership and hence we classify them differently.

Table 1 justifies a number of observations, of which the following three are possibly the most significant:

- 1. The above classification differs from the general approaches in the literature, usually classified into the scientific management era, social person era and modern era, though it reflects similar ideas based on the management tasks, be they primary or secondary, and the comprehensiveness with which they are addressed.
- 2. The date of the first publication relating to classical management is significant. The Industrial Revolution started in the late eighteenth century (±1750) and lasted until the early nineteenth century (Marx & Churr, 1981). This means that the first publication on classical management appeared during the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution represented an awakening, resulting in large-scale social, economic and technological changes, stripping aristocrats of their monopoly of social, economic and political status. During this period it was realised that technical skills alone were insufficient to sustain successful business performance in the long run; management training was required to ensure the latter (see for example the history of the Berlin porcelain manufacturers 1751-1780, Hetjens-Museum, Düsseldorf, Germany). Another observation regarding the dates of the different publications is that by the time the leadership publications appeared, classical management, which included leadership, was well established.
- 3. The social, economic and political landscapes of societies have changed since the Industrial Revolution. Technological advances have improved production techniques and ergonomics; agriculture has diminished as a contributor to GDP, while manufacturing rose and declined and currently services and knowledge management dominate most economies. It stands to reason that different skills are needed to prosper in different economies.

Empirical study

The problem studied was whether the views of a select group of manager-students on

management and leadership differed from classical management theory. As such, the nature

of the problem studied necessitated an exploratory-descriptive approach. Specifically, the

final year MBA students of the Graduate School of Management (GSM) of the University of

Pretoria were approached to participate in a survey. The aim of the research was to describe

what tasks/activities these particular respondents deem to constitute classical management,

which can be divided into general management and leadership, and whether these views were

different from the classical management theory.

The survey was conducted among the final-year MBA students at the GSM, University or

Pretoria, who consisted of two groups. The one group represented part time students and the

other group modular students. All of these students are employed in management positions in

their respective organisations. A structured questionnaire was used in the survey. Respondents

were required to indicate which option was most applicable, in their view. The first part of the

questionnaire covered demographics, while the second part covered definitions of general

management and leadership. The final part covered the tasks/activities of general management

and leadership as represented in the approaches as set out in Table 1.

After the questionnaire had been constructed, the Department of Statistics of the University of

Pretoria was approach to assist with possible analysis techniques. Given the qualitative nature

of the information required, it was suggested that a descriptive technique be used. Hence two

way frequency tables were used to analyse the results.

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The survey was completed between 10 and 15 May 2006 by a total of 61 respondents. Of the 61 completed questionnaires, 60 (98%) were usable. The results of the survey are presented below.

Results of survey

The demographics of the respondents can be summarised as follows:

- The majority (41 or 69%) were from the private sector (and the companies they represented were deemed to be part of successful global enterprises);
- The majority (15 or 25%) were from the finance, real estate, business services and insurance sectors; followed by 7 (12%) from community and social services; 6 (10%) each from the wholesale, retail and motor trade, transport & communication and general government services; and the remaining 20 (33%) from other industries;
- 42 (71%) of respondents were employed by large businesses, that is businesses employing in excess of 100 employees and/or with turnover in excess of R5 million;
- 23 (38%) indicated that they were English speaking, 21 (35%) were Afrikaans speaking and the remainder spoke other indigenous languages;
- 25 (42%) were middle managers, followed by 11 (18%) senior executives, 9 (15%) senior management; 8 (13%) were specialists and the remainder junior management;
- 44 (73%) were males and the remainder females; their ages varied between 25 and 52 years and they had been in management positions between 1 and 20 years;
- All indicated that they had attended management/leadership training programmes to a greater or lesser degree, with the majority (40 or 67%) at least a team leader programme, followed by 29 (48%) middle management programme, 22 (37%) a supervision programme, 18 (30%) a leadership programme, 11 (18%) a senior management programme and 9 (15%) an executive management programme.

The second section of the questionnaire required respondents to indicate which one of the listed definitions corresponded most closely to his or her view of general management and leadership respectively. Only 42 (70%) respondents complied with the request, which is summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Response to definitions of general management and leadership

Definition	General Management	Leadership
1 is the management of a total enterprise or	16 (38%)	2 (5%)
autonomous sub-unit		
2 is responsible for the performance of the	12 (29%)	9 (21%)
business, especially its survival and growth		
3 is charged with the responsibility to devise a	7 (17%)	12 (29%)
plan that steers the business as a whole into a		
profitable future		
4 Is an ability vested in individuals, influencing	5 (12%)	18 (43%)
performance positively, primarily by showing regard		
for people		
5 a hierarchical position	2 (5%)	1 (2%)
6 other (specify)	0	0

The majority of respondents indicated that general management was the management of a total enterprise or autonomous sub-unit, followed by being 'responsible for the performance of the business, especially survival and growth' and 'an ability vested in people influencing performance positively, primarily by showing regard for people'. In the case of leadership the pattern was the opposite.

Only 6 (14%) respondents indicated that they deemed general management and leadership to

be exactly the same. However, if one looks carefully at the first three definitions presented in

the questionnaire, there are not clear differences - all are concerned with the successful

performance of the total organisation. Hence, another 20 (48%) viewed general management

and leadership to be similar, as they have indicated any of the first three definitions to belong

under both general management and leadership. Only 16 (38%) deemed general management

and leadership to be quite different, as they indicated any of the first three definitions to be

general management and the fourth definition to be leadership, or vice versa. As a

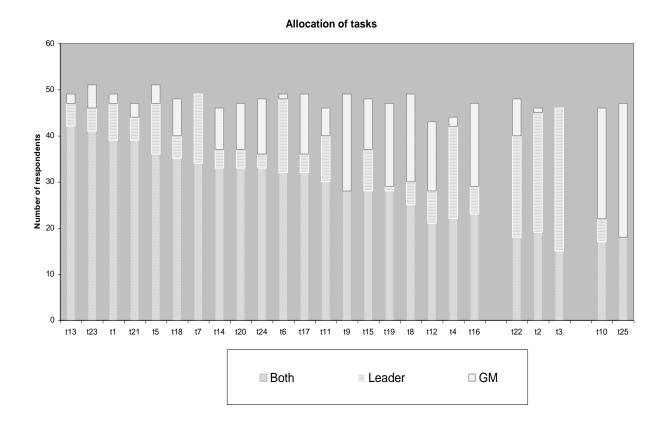
consequence we have concluded that 62% of the respondents deem general management and

leadership to be similar, while only 38% deem it to be different.

The views of all (60) respondents with regard to the tasks/activities constituting general

management and/or leadership are reflected in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Responses to tasks/activities forming part of general management/leadership



As shown in Figure 1, not all of the 60 respondents responded to all tasks/activities, hence the gap. A few of the tasks/activities were associated with general management by the majority of the respondents, namely tasks 10 (determine what goods and services customers desire) and 25 (productivity). A few of the tasks/activities were associated with leadership by the majority of the respondents, namely tasks 2 (anticipate the future), 3 (set a vision) and 22 (select a competitive arena). Most of the tasks/activities were associated with general management and leadership by the majority of the respondents – the rest of the tasks. The allocation of the tasks/activities is demonstrated in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Views of respondents regarding tasks/activities constituting general management/leadership



All of the tasks/activities illustrated in Figure 2 are associated with classical management, which includes leadership. According to the responses illustrated in figures 1 and 2, the few tasks/activities associated with leadership by the majority of respondents do not entirely correspond to these typical tasks/activities. Classical management authors associate leadership with the primary tasks of command and co-ordination, while leadership proponents of the mid-1970s associate leadership with the primary task of command, and secondary tasks such as communication and motivation. The respondents associated leadership with the primary task of planning, which is strategic in nature.

Finally, in comparing the respondents' definitions of general management/leadership with the tasks/activities allocated to each there seems to be a conflict. Unknowingly, the majority of

respondents deemed general management and leadership to be the same and their allocation of

tasks/activities confirms their definitions of the concepts. These views are congruent with

classical management theory. However, 16 (38%) respondents deemed general management

and leadership to be different. However, in terms of the allocation of the tasks/activities to

general management and leadership, they have failed to indicate a difference.

Conclusions

The information presented in this article demonstrates that there is a body of knowledge

underpinning classical management which is still relevant today. This body of knowledge is

all-encompassing, holistic in nature, and, includes leadership. The original works pertaining

to classical management are not readily available today, and their. unavailability may hamper

the acquisition of knowledge in this field. However, training based on an accurate reflection

of these works could rectify this situation.

The importance of command and co-ordination as management tasks, and hence, leadership

cannot be disputed. However, there seems to be a discernible pattern in leadership

publications based on the assumption that leadership is a separate and predominant concept,

and these presentations seem to be enthusiastically embraced despite their lack of scientific

rigour. This situation gives rise to questions whether factors such as (i) the unavailability of

the original classical management works; (ii) classical management being a young discipline;

(iii) the nature of the social sciences; and (iv) lack of scientific rigour applied by researchers

contribute to this state of affairs.

Be that as it may, the importance of scientific rigour to research, especially in the social

sciences, can not be overestimated. Scientific rigour includes the objective and methodical

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way in which observations are made and evidence collected, as well as the extent to which all

other explanations are invalidated or refuted.

Finally, from the findings of the empirical study, one could conclude that the respondents

surveyed view general management and leadership as being similar. Furthermore, their views

on general management/leadership seem to be congruent with the views of the seminal

authors on classical management. The exception was the three tasks deemed by some to be

the primary responsibility of leadership, i.e. anticipating the future, setting an organisational

vision and selecting a competitive arena. As these three tasks are considered in classical

management theory to form part of the planning task of general management, that is, strategic

in nature, there is not really a contradiction here between classical management theory and

practice. (According to the respondents' views leadership activities form part of the primary

tasks, but the planning task and not command and co-ordination tasks as proposed by the

classical theory. Thus in terms of "kind of task" it corresponds, though in terms of the precise

task, it differs).

With the information at our disposal it seems appropriate to recommend that further research

be done in this area to contribute to clarity on this question. This could perhaps assist

Management teachers in spreading an accurate message of management and leadership both

being vital components of organisational success.

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