CHAPTER 5

LEADERSHIP IN TRANSFORMATION

The need for leadership has never been so great. The stage for Armageddon and the consequent seeking for people of character has never been better set. Indeed the axiom behind successful human endeavour, be it a family, business, political, sporting, spiritual or national level, can be summed up in one word –
Leadership

Guy Charlton

5.1   INTRODUCTION

In Chapters 1 and 2 the aim of this study was discussed as an analysis of certain work-related values and its influence on leadership behaviour in a transformational organisation paradigm. Work-related values and the importance of culture in shaping organisational behaviour were discussed in Chapter 3, while Chapter 4 was dedicated to a theoretical overview of the construct locus of control.

Leadership has recently become a popular subject for research, debate and discussion with the result of numerous studies being found in business-related literature. This chapter will only serve as a brief overview of both classical and recent thoughts on leadership with particular reference to contemporary demands on today's leaders. The discussion will include the most important arguments for and against the development of a unique African leadership model (as opposed to the application of Western leadership theories and principles).

The SAAF will also be introduced as an organisation finding itself within the process of structural and cultural transformation. This will include a summary of changes in leadership approaches that have been implemented over the past eight years.

5.1.1   BACKGROUND

The powerful impact of quality leadership on any community or enterprise cannot be denied. For thousands of years leadership has been the subject of numerous debates and over the last 60 years many theories of leadership have been developed. The quality of leadership in organisations is regarded as one of the basic factors influencing the survival of the human race (Bennis,

1988). The quality of life on earth has become dependent on the quality of leaders. Similarly, leadership determines the difference between average and successful organisations. Many examples can be found in the business world where the success or downfall of a company could be attributed to the actions of a specific leader (Smit et al, 1999). Theories have come and gone and, according to Blunt & Jones (1997), this is not the result of establishing new scientific substance to a theory; much rather have theories lost favour because they fell victim to changes in fashion in the broad field of management thinking. Most theories have only been assessed in terms of intuitive appeal of their explanations.

In the context of human functioning and behaviour strong leadership can probably be viewed as one of the most critical elements for ensuring organisational effectiveness and success. As an example Meyer (2004, 28) notes that the lack of effective leadership is considered to be the most common reason for an organisation losing valuable talent. Brough (1999: 6) indicates that the term leadership has been discussed and explained for many years but still needs to be explained in fuller detail. With the virtual business environment becoming a new paradigm it has become even more important to analyse and define the concept. With the demands of the business environment changing continuously, what we think or know about leadership is going to be severely tested in the new millennium.

Walters (1999: 10) highlights two reasons for the above-mentioned importance of strong leadership. Firstly, in a world becoming more and more complex someone has to stand up and decide what to do. Secondly, the majority of people prefer others to make the difficult decisions and would rather be led than to lead themselves.

5.1.2   LEADERSHIP DEFINED

Many definitions of leadership exist. Charlton (1992) refers to the difference between management and leadership and concludes that leadership is any activity that involves facilitating productive behaviour of followers. Where managers rely on systems, leaders rely on people. Managers respond to meaning while leaders create meaning themselves. The many facets of leadership become clear in the description of Bass (1990): "Leadership has been conceived of as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure and as many combinations of these definitions."

Some people regard good leadership as synonymous with popularity (Kruger: 1995), while others (i.e. Baron & Greenberg, 1990) more specifically describe

it as those actions and behaviours of leaders which positively influence the performance of others. In defining leadership Smit et al (1999) refer to all the people-related activities of managers. In the process of directing the behaviour of others they pay attention to elements such as motivating people as individuals and groups, managing conflict and communicating with followers. In essence leadership is seen as the managerial task of directing the activities of others so that organisational objectives can be attained.

Leadership could be seen as a set of causal leader behaviour variables impacting on followers' job satisfaction and role ambiguity (see Figure 5.1). These mediators, according to Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate & Bautista (1997) represent the most immediate results of a leader's behaviour. The model also shows organisational commitment and job performance as outcome variables. Both job performance and organisational commitment are affected by job satisfaction and ambiguity. Job performance and ambiguity are also directly affected by leader behaviours. Furthermore job performance is directly influenced by organisational commitment. Dorfman et al (1997) note that the link between satisfaction and performance has not been investigated systematically in non-Western countries. The causal as well as moderating role of culture in leader behaviour was found to be consistent with other cross-cultural leadership models (Bass, 1990; Smith, Peterson, Bond & Misumi, 1992).

Figure 5.1: Leadership model of causes, mediators and results.
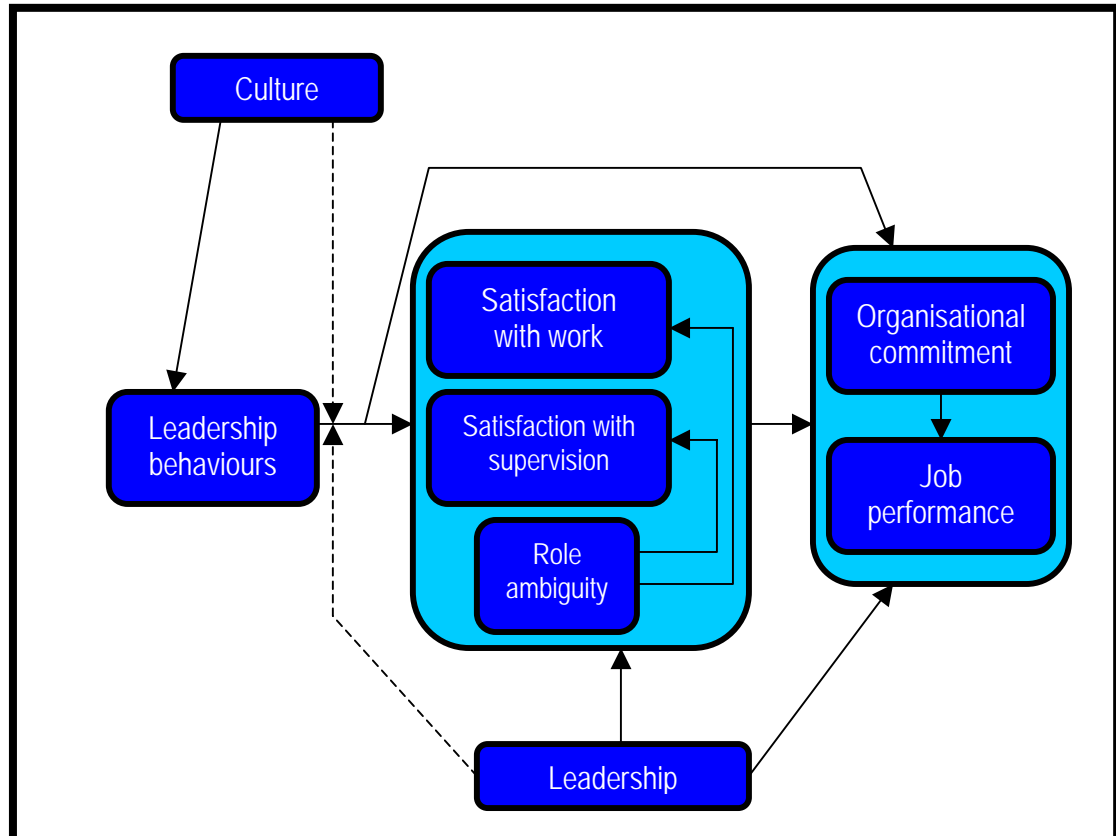
(Source: Dorfman et al, 1997: 181)

The leader's futuristic role within the reality of change and transformation is emphasised in Veldsman's (2004: 31) description: "… the act of creating possible futures and realising a shared, chosen desirable future with, through and for people. Leadership is about action to bring a new future into being. It is about making the future present tense." A leader in this sense acts as the custodian of people's future and impacts on followers' ideals, fears and aspirations.

Despite all the different attempts to define leadership, a common theme running through the definitions is that leadership is primarily a process involving influence – the exercise of influence for a specific purpose through altering the goal-related attitudes and actions of others. Effective leadership therefore, implies positive feelings between leaders and followers and is not only the result of influence vested in formal positions of authority. The importance of this fact will be discussed further in the section on transformational leadership (see Section 5.7).

5.2   LEADERSHIP VS MANAGEMENT

The new demands on organisations created by the external environment have forced managers to start shifting their focus and attention towards effectively influencing the behaviour of those people actually doing the work. Robinson (1989) sees this as a movement away from a pure management process towards leadership. A significant part of the rationale for this approach lies in the changing nature of organisations, both structurally and psychologically (refer Section 5.5.3.1 for a discussion of the changes in basic assumptions). Due to the delayering of organisational structures the management span of control is continuously increasing and managers find that more and more people are reporting to them. In addition to this, teamwork has become important with a strong emphasis on collaboration and commitment. The clear difference between management and leadership is reflected in Table 5.1.

Although leadership and management are seen as related concepts, the differences are distinct (Smit et al, 1999), and should be clearly distinguished. Managers are concerned with non-behavioural aspects such as strategy development, organisational design and the control of activities to achieve organisational goals. Leaders, in contrast focus on behavioural aspects. They energise people towards positive change and motivate them to commit and dedicate themselves to new directions. A suitable way of differentiating (Kotter, 1990) could therefore be to describe management as promoting stability and enabling the organisation to run smoothly, while leadership could be seen as the promotion of useful change. This distinction between management and leadership is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: <u>Differences between management and leadership</u>.

Management	Leadership
Planning and Budgetting	**Establishing Direction**
Establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen	Developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision
Organising and Staffing	**Aligning People**
Establishing some structure for establishing plan requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation	Communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose co-operation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies, and accept their validity
Controlling and Problem Solving	**Motivating and Inspiring**
Monitoring results vs. plan in some detail, identifying deviations, and then planning and organising to solve these problems	Energising people to overcome major political, bureaucratic and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but unfulfilled, human needs
Order	**Change**
Produces a degree of predictability and order, and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g. for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget)	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive)

(Source: Kotter, 1990: 6)

The establishment of strong leadership should not replace the management process, it should rather supplement it. After a study conducted in twenty-two different US industries on the relationship between corporate culture and long-term economic performance, Kotter & Heskett (1992) report that strong leadership supporting the management process formed an essential part of all major cultural changes observed. While management alone might be applicable in and suitable for an environment of stability and predictability (Robinson, 1989), leadership has as its primary function "the production of change" (Kotter, 1990). Purposeful change of any magnitude will be almost impossible without strong visionary leadership (Kotter et al: 1992).

The inseparable nature of management and leadership is illustrated by Smit et al (1999). In their discussion of the importance of people in the contemporary organisation they describe leadership as the human dimension of management. Well-designed tasks and work procedures and systematised production lines can no longer be considered to be the only factors that increase an organisation's productivity. On the contrary, people form the only part of the resources available to the manager that could be used to deploy the other resources towards organisational survival, effectiveness and higher productivity. Owing to their creativity, it is only people who can ensure that the organisational system is designed in such a way that it can adequately adjust and adapt to environmental changes. It is for this reason that factors concerning the individual (i.e. psychological, sociological and anthropological) are even more important than physical factors in attaining organisational goals and objectives. Successful management of an organisation is therefore dependent on the way *people* in the organisation are managed (Smit et al, 1999). This management of people is nothing else than leadership and includes factors such as interpersonal relationships, communication, motivation and teamwork.

5.3   THE NEED FOR AN AFRICAN APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP

The importance of leadership and specifically for organisations in a transforming South Africa has been emphasised in Chapter 1. Bass and Avolio (1997: 20) support this view by stating that "… numerous South African institutions have to change their whole base of operations and philosophy following the dismantling of apartheid. … there are perhaps few other places in the world where transformational leadership is so much required, and the benefits are so enormous and visible."

The African business environment poses special management and leadership challenges. The uniqueness of South African conditions in terms of multi-cultural diversity and complexity necessitates the search for leadership solutions beyond the normal quick fix approaches. Most well known theories of improving organisational effectiveness and performance are based on

Western management philosophy and, as the management of organisations in the true African business milieu has been largely neglected in most literature, no conclusive evidence exists that these theories can simply be applied in the current South African environment.

Many advocates of the African management movement view Western values as opposing and even alternative to African values. Mtembu (1996) argues that colonialism has eroded African values systems, while Boon (1996) stresses the importance of culture (in building a management model) as the embracing force around which everything else revolves: "… woe to the world if we all pursue a singular, grey and boring sameness. Our differences and traditions make us interesting and proud. Every good leader knows of the importance of culture… culture is not an independent thing, it is what we are as people." Mtembu (1996) regards the perceived failure of South African business to adopt a unique African style as a serious handicap.

As the object of leadership, namely people, is so immensely diverse, leadership has become a craft, an art of observing others and their behaviours and adapting one's own behaviour to positively influence those of others. For leaders to be able to develop their people into a motivated, inspired and productive workforce they will have to accept the challenge of understanding the diverse and unique composition of African value systems. Different individual values and attitudes form important indicators of leaders' abilities to motivate and inspire followers (see Section 5.7). These differences strongly affect leadership approaches and styles adopted by leaders. For example, to expect people to take responsibility and to be decisive in a culture where followers prefer their leaders to be the decision makers, will be of low motivational value and will eventually prove to be an ineffective approach. It is thus clear that a sound knowledge and understanding of the values and attitudes of followers is critical in ensuring required follower behaviour.

Although it has become fashionable for many researchers to argue that leadership processes and practices could only be effective when they reflect the characteristics of the culture in which they are found, some researchers began providing evidence that universal tendencies in effective leadership processes also exist (Dorfman & Ronen, 1991). The culture-universal (versus culture-specific) perspective of leadership constructs being comparable across cultures is also supported by Bass & Avolio (1993). Findings show commonalities in effective leadership behaviours across many different cultures. Similarly, Smith & Peterson (1988) reported that leader behaviours in terms of task- and relationship orientations were found to be effective not only in Western cultures, but also in more collectivist cultures. Charlton's (1992) research findings also suggest that there are certain competencies which effective leaders display (ie. establishing meaning, trust and the management of self) and that these are universally found, regardless of context. After comparing effective leadership behaviours in different countries representing

considerable cultural variation on numerous dimensions such as individualism/ collectivism, power distance and degree of industrialisation, Dorfman et al (1997) reported results which support the validity of both the universal and culture-specific perspectives in the cross-cultural study of leadership. In their study, three behaviours (leaders supportiveness, contingent reward and charismatic) proved to have universally positive impacts in all the countries studied. A leader demonstrating support and concern for followers was clearly found to be impactful in all the cultures.

It should also be noted that not all authors and researchers support the approach of building a unique African leadership model purely on African values. Thomas & Schonken (1998) mention that the argument for African management tends to be anecdotal and not empirical and that some of the arguments are simply inferior. Further concerns are that "… it is not clear whether the change in values proposed by African management writers is really possible, or in fact that the values proposed are truly African. Furthermore, the practicability of traditional African values in the modern workplace is at question." Referring to the culture-specific versus culture-universal leadership debate, Dorfman et al (1997) propose that the similarities and differences between cultures should be meaningfully integrated within contemporary theoretical frameworks so that it can simultaneously make sense for the culture under study.

Despite the positive characteristics of the African culture it is not perfect and does show (like all other cultures) shortcomings. According to Van der Walt (1997), there are a number of obstacles towards the development of an effective African approach to business success:

▪ Everyone's responsibility is nobody's responsibility. This comes as a result of the strong community focus.

▪ Nobody may progress further in the organisation than what his position by virtue of birth allows him, i.e. a carpenter earning more than his tribal chief must be brought back to the status that suits him.

▪ A fatalistic approach, which ascribes everything that happens to man to evil spirits or alarmed ancestors.

▪ Tolerance of what is bad – all natural as well as man-made evil i.e. oppression,

▪ A wrong time conception and utilisation of time. For the African time is not watch-oriented but man-oriented – man does not *use* time but *makes* time to merely hang around useless and do nothing. The fact that best use should be made of time and that "time waits for nobody" still hasn't had a major influence on the people of Africa.

The search for a suitable leadership model for a transforming South Africa should therefore not run the risk of only focusing on African-specific cultural elements and characteristics. The focus should much rather be on finding and developing leadership approaches that could successfully integrate both Western and African culture elements. One model that could possibly provide (some) solutions for the multi-cultural South African scene is the "Full Range" model of leadership developed by Bass & Avolio (1994), of which the most important element is the transformational leadership style. Their research confirmed the universal notion of leadership effectiveness. When people from various national cultures are asked at the beginning of leadership development workshops what their ideal leader would be like, they describe the characteristics of a transformational leader (Bass, 1994). The model proposes that the transformational leader has the ability (irrespective of cultural setting) to shift followers to higher level needs, to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the group or organisation and to work harder than they initially expected to (Bass, 1994). A detailed discussion of transformational leadership will follow later in this chapter.

This study will focus on identifying those (work-related) values and locus of control orientations having an influence on follower behaviour and the subsequent behaviour required of leaders to guide them in a common direction, especially within an unpredictable, ever changing business, economic and political environment.

5.4   THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN FORMING A CULTURE

The aspect of organisational culture has been philosophised and written about at length and therefore various perceptions with respect to defining it, exist. Schein (1990) seems to echo the most popular trend in defining the term as mutually shared beliefs, attitudes, values and expectations, which develop within an organisation and which strongly influence the behaviour and actions of its members. The organisation's culture acts as a description of its character and could be seen as its unique "personality" (Drennen, 1992). It serves as a guideline for distinguishing one organisation from another (Theron, 1992) and therefore conveys a sense of identity for its members.

Organisational culture consists of many interrelated facets and is therefore not easy to understand. What makes it so difficult to grasp is the fact that it consists of observable aspects (like language and customs), which are in turn determined by subjective aspects of culture like values, norms, convictions and attitudes. In their definition of culture Kroeber and Parsons (1958: 583) refer to patterns of values, ideas and other symbolic meaningful systems that serve as factors in the shaping of employee behaviour and the artifacts produced through this behaviour.

As it is clear that organisational culture refers to behaviour (i.e. the way things are done in a specific organisation) it follows naturally that leadership plays a significant role in establishing and developing such a culture. Strong-minded dominant leaders play such a powerful role in shaping company culture that Schein (1983) regards founders as the ultimate source of an organisation's culture. Leadership in a large part forms the vehicle for influencing and changing the organisation's culture (Bass et al, 1993). Kotter et al (1992) have made similar observations. They report that in all the companies they have studied where significant culture changes took place, an absolute essential ingredient of the change seems to be the leadership of one or two people at the very top of the organisation. In all of the cases they have studied the single most visible factor that distinguished major cultural changes that succeeded from those that failed was competent top leadership. Major change began only after a leader with a good leadership track record was appointed to lead the company. Kotter et al (1992) suggest two basic reasons why a bottom-up approach does not succeed. Firstly, great power (which normally resides only at the top) is needed to overcome the resistance to change. The second reason is related to the interdependence inside organisations. This interdependence makes it difficult to "change anything a great deal without changing everything". It is often found that only those members at the top are in a position to initiate change of that scope (Kotter et al (1992).

The issue of how leaders create and transmit a particular culture is to a large extent a mysterious one. Schein (1992) explains this process (which consists of both conscious and unconscious elements) as being a result of the leader's ability to communicate major assumptions and values in a vivid and clear manner. The process of embedding and transmitting culture is divided into primary embedding mechanisms and secondary articulation and reinforcement mechanisms (see Table 5.2). The six primary embedding mechanisms create the so-called climate of the organisation while the secondary mechanisms build organisational ideologies and formalise what was initially learnt.

Table 5.2:   Culture-embedding mechanisms.

Primary Embedding Mechanisms	Secondary Articulation and Reinforcement Mechanisms

What leaders pay attention to, measure and control on a regular basis.	Organisation design and structure.
How leaders react to critical incidents and organisational crises.	Organisational systems and procedures.
	Organisational rites and rituals.
Observed criteria by which leaders allocate scarce resources.	Design of physical space, facades and buildings.
Deliberate role modelling, teaching, and coaching.	Stories, legends and myths about people and events.
Observed criteria by which leaders allocate rewards and status.	Formal statements of organisational philosophy, values and creed.
Observed criteria by which leaders recruit, select, promote, retire and excommunicate the organisation's members	

(Source: Schein, 1992: 231)

One of the most powerful mechanisms that leaders use in communicating their beliefs is what they systematically pay attention to (including the things they do not pay attention to or react to). Their behaviours in crises bear particular importance because employee learning intensity is created through their heightened emotional involvement (Schein, 1992). Significant learning also takes place through observing what is rewarded and what is punished in the organisation.

According to Schein (1992) strong leadership does not only influence organisational culture, it creates it. Leaders in strong cultures act as role models who encourage employee commitment to the organisation's purpose and vision. Sarros (2001) reports that this is more the case for transformational leaders than for transactional leaders[1]. While transformational leaders change their cultures by realigning company culture with a new vision, transactional leaders work *within* their existing organisational cultures following rules, procedures and norms. After using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) on a sample of 1 918 Australian leaders, Sarros (2001) provided clear evidence that in most cases organisational culture is significantly influenced by strong leaders and that the opposite causal relationship is not applicable (only minimal amounts of leadership were accounted for by organisational culture).

---

[1] See section 5.7 for a comprehensive discussion of the difference between transactional and transformational leadership styles.

5.5   FROM CLASSICAL TO CONTEMPORARY: THE LEADERSHIP THEORIES

5.5.1   INTRODUCTION

Since the turn of the 19th century many studies have been done and theories developed on leadership and leadership effectiveness. All of these theories have focused on what it is that makes leaders effective. As leadership in essence is referred to as the ability of a person to effectively influence the behaviour (performance) of others, the various models researched and developed represent efforts to describe *how and why* some people positively influence the performance of others. A framework for the classification of these theories is provided in Figure 5.2. Irrespective what the approach is, the way a person is leading others, is predominantly influenced by his assumptions about human behaviour (Kruger: 1995) and the reasons why people work (Hall, 1994).
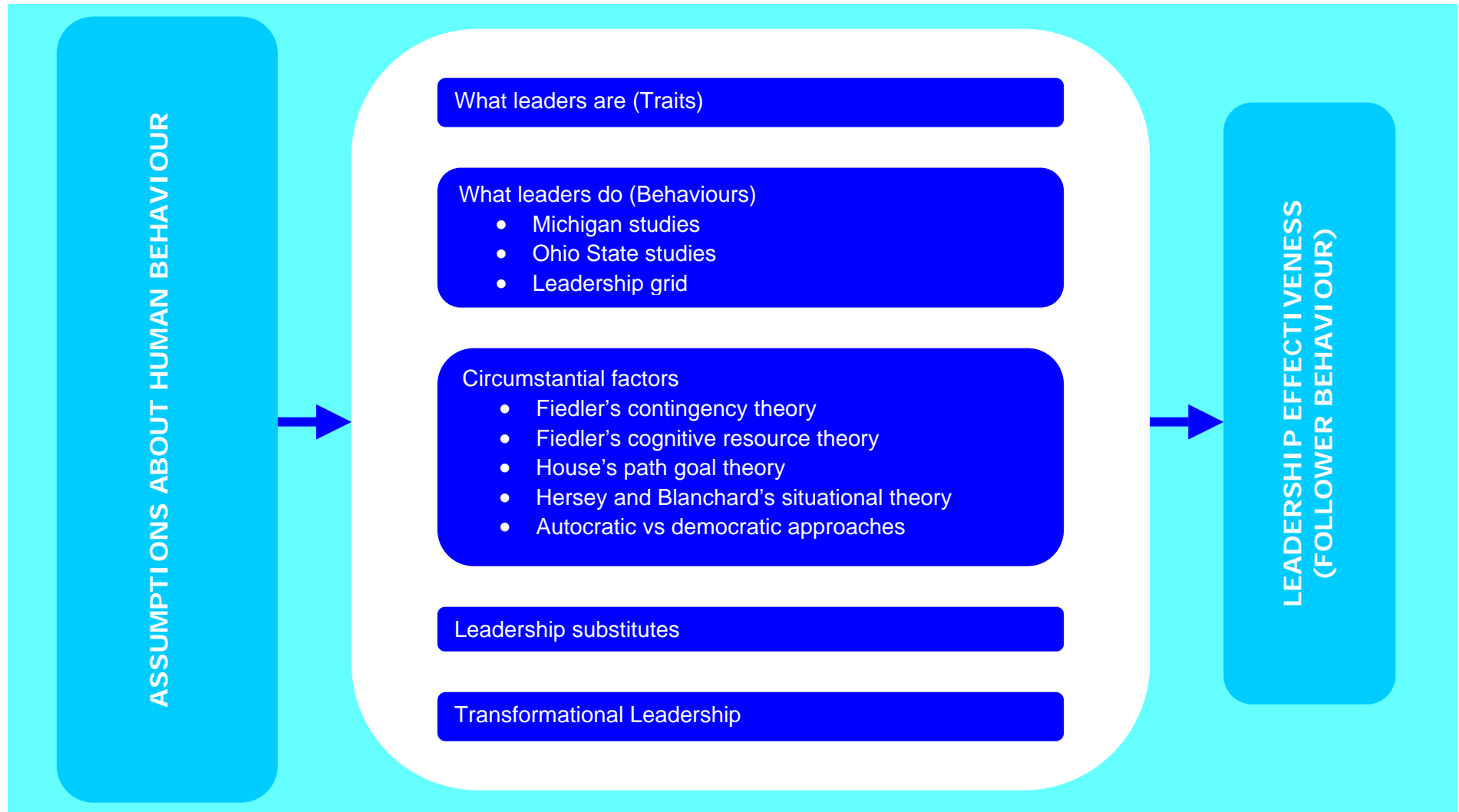
The theories that will be discussed below range from the "great man" or traits approach, through the behavioural descriptions of leadership to those being based on the appropriateness of styles within a given situation or context. The more resent perspectives on leadership resulting from changing organisational environments will be addressed in Section 5.5.4.

5.5.2   CLASSICAL THEORIES

5.5.2.1   The trait approach

The earliest approach used in the study of leadership is referred to as the "great man" theory and was based on the assumption that more effective leaders could be separated from less effective leaders based on the fact that those being effective possess certain traits (i.e. height, intelligence, integrity) that could be related to success. The argument was that once these characteristics have been identified they could be used to select leaders (Schermerhorn <u>et al</u>, 1994).

Figure 5.2:   Framework for the classification of leadership theories.

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

What leaders are (Traits)

What leaders do (Behaviours)
- Michigan studies
- Ohio State studies
- Leadership grid

Circumstantial factors
- Fiedler's contingency theory
- Fiedler's cognitive resource theory
- House's path goal theory
- Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory
- Autocratic vs democratic approaches

Leadership substitutes

Transformational Leadership

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS (FOLLOWER BEHAVIOUR)

Although popular at a time, the trait approach has almost disappeared as a result of its inability to explain much about why relationships between some traits and leadership occurred (Parham: 1983). Individual traits do not predict who will become a leader and who not. Schein (1980) reports that traits correlating with success in one situation failed to do so in the next. Similarly, no consistent pattern could be found by Bennis & Nannus (1985).

5.5.2.2 Behavioural theories

While the traits approach to leadership studies was aimed at what leaders *are*, the behavioural theories focus on what leaders *do* to effectively influence the behaviour of followers. The hypothesis in these theories was that the actions of successful leaders differ from those of less successful leaders (Smit et al, 1999). Unlike traits, the opinion was that behaviours can be learnt or acquired and that individuals could thus be developed into more effective leaders. While the search for key characteristics in all effective leaders failed, it became clear from the studies mentioned below that effective and ineffective leaders differed with respect to their actions or styles of leadership.

5.5.2.2.1 *Michigan studies*

In the University of Michigan studies researchers were looking for leadership behavioural patterns that result in effective performance. Two basic styles of leadership were identified mainly based on the amount of control the leader wants to apply towards "getting the job done" (Stoner & Freeman, 1992). These two styles may be viewed as the two ends of a continuum, with any leader's style being found somewhere between the two ends. The *production-oriented* leader mainly focuses his attention to the activities for which he is responsible through careful supervision and strict control to ensure subordinate performance. These leaders apply pressure on subordinates to perform and pay most of their attention to outputs. Subordinates are merely seen as an extension of the organisational machinery and instruments to get the job done.

The *people-centered* leader is less concerned with the application of control and more with addressing follower needs and development. They place much emphasis on the welfare of subordinates. The approach is that output can only be improved by treating people in accordance with the belief that happy employees are productive employees.

5.5.2.2.2   *Ohio State studies*

Similar studies were conducted at the Ohio State University which resulted in leadership differences being described along two dimensions, namely task-oriented (initiating structure) and employee-oriented or consideration (Baron & Greenberg, 1989). Structure initiating leaders ensure the achievement of results and targets through closely by closely monitoring and controlling the performance of subordinates. Typical activities associated with this approach are setting and clarifying goals, following rules, and organising work. Leaders with an employee orientation prefer to emphasise trust and work relations and are sensitive to followers' feelings and needs. The considerate leader believes in the importance of creating pleasant working conditions where people are happy, satisfied and motivated.

The above study found that a high task orientation leads to lower productivity due to unhappiness, absenteeism and low levels of job satisfaction. Although considerate leadership leads to higher levels of satisfaction, the researchers suggested a dual emphasis where the leader is high on both dimensions (Schermerhorn <u>et al</u>, 1994). This is possible because the two dimensions seem to be largely independent (Weissenberg & Kavanagh, 1972).

5.5.2.2.3   *The managerial grid*

Following the two previous behaviour models, Blake & Mouton (1978) developed the managerial grid, a two-dimensional perspective on leadership. The grid was developed to be used as an instrument for the identification of suitable styles towards which leaders could be trained and directed (Smit <u>et al</u>, 1999). On the grid a leader is positioned in terms of both concern for people and concern for production based on a score of one to nine on each of the dimensions. The nine possible positions on each dimension provide for 81 different leadership styles. The five most important styles are indicated in Figure 5.3. The ideal style is considered to be the top right position, where a production focus is optimised by an approach of participative and democratic management.

Figure 5.3: <u>The leadership grid</u>.
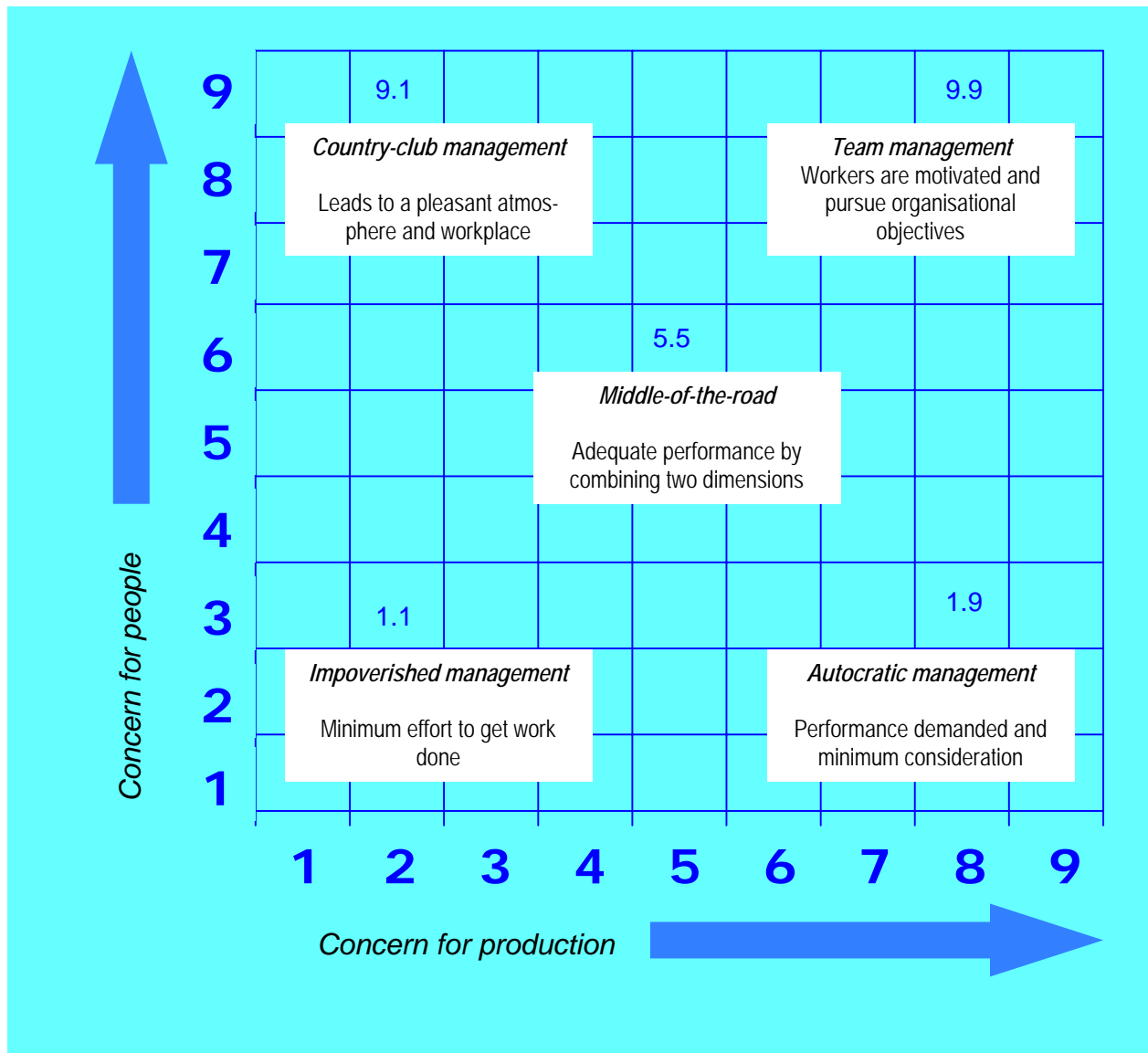
(Source: Smit <u>et al</u>, (1999)

5.5.2.3 Situational or contingency approaches

Critics of the behaviour theories have indicated that no single style is equally effective in all situations. One style is only valid under specific circumstances (Smit <u>et al</u>, 1999). Good leadership is not only the result of certain leadership traits and behaviours but could also be attributed to other factors such as span of control, group norms and values, time and organisational culture and climate. Situational leadership refers to the ability of a leader to adjust his style to the nature and requirements of the particular situation. In order to explain the direction in which leadership-related research developed, a few situational models will be discussed.

5.5.2.3.1   *Fiedler's leadership contingency theory*

Fiedler's contingency approach started the situation-based leadership research in the 1960's (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984). Fiedler's theory applies the same concepts used in the behaviour theories. The basic premise is that followers effectiveness is the result of a match between the style of the leader and three important elements in the situation, namely:

- The leader-subordinate relationship

- Task structuring

- The leader's power position

The amount of control that the situation allows the leader is also considered (Schermerhorn <u>et al</u>, 1999). In this regard the term *situational control* refers to the extent to which a leader can predict follower reactions as well as the outcomes of their actions and decisions.

In Fiedler's theory task or relationship orientation is seen as a trait that will result in either directive or nondirective behaviour, which in turn, will depend on whether the leader has high, moderate or low situational control. Based on this perspective a task-motivated leader will be nondirective in a high control situation and will be directive in a moderate and low control situation. In contrast, a relationship-motivated leader will be directive in a high control situation and nondirective in a moderate and low control situation.

Recently Fiedler's contingency theory has been further developed towards a cognitive resource theory (Fiedler & Garcia (1987). In terms of this theory four specific situational contingencies determine whether a leader should use directive or nondirective bahaviour. These are:

- The abilities/competencies of the leader or subordinates

- Level of stress of the leader

- Leader experience

- Group support for the leader.

The issue of leader and subordinate ability has not been addressed by any of the previous theories, which makes this theory more useful than the others.

5.5.2.3.2   *House's path-goal theory*

House's theory (House & Mitchell, 1977) has its roots in the expectancy model of motivation (Schermerhorn <u>et al</u>, 1994) and is built on employee expectations. "Path-goal" refers to how the leader influences follower perceptions of work-related and personal goals (and the links between the two sets of goals). According to the path-goal theory the role of the leader is to clearly indicate objectives to be achieved and standards to be maintained in the process and then to clear obstacles from the path. The basic idea in the theory is that people expect their leaders to assist them in achieving valued goals through clarifying actual paths to rewards (Baron <u>et al</u>: 1990). It further suggests that leaders can adopt the following four basic styles which, are not mutually exclusive:

▪ <u>Instrumental</u>: The leader provides specific guidance and establish work schedules and rules.

▪ <u>Supportive</u>: The leader is focused on establishing good relations with followers and satisfying their needs.

▪ <u>Participative</u>: The leader consults with followers and permits them to participate in decisions.

▪ <u>Achievement-oriented</u>: In this approach the leader sets challenging goals and seeks improvements in performance.

Schermerhorn <u>et al</u> (1994) report that the path-goal theory has attracted notable research and that it presents some specific implications. Firstly, leadership behaviour could be changed through training to fit the situational contingencies. It is also possible to teach a leader to diagnose the situation and then to change the contingencies.

5.5.2.3.3   *Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership theory*

The well-known situational leadership model (also known as the life cycle theory) of Hersey & Blanchard (1988) complements the view of other contingency approaches that there is no single best way of leading followers. In situational contingencies particular emphasis is placed on the maturity level or readiness state of the follower. The best leadership style in a given situation is determined by subordinate maturity. Maturity or readiness is determined by two dimensions namely task-related ability and motivation (achievement drive and willingness to accept responsibility and accomplish tasks) and develop in four phases. Through the model it is argued that the readiness of

followers to perform tasks prompt leaders to adjust their orientation in terms of task behaviours or relationship behaviours.

Different combinations of task and relationship behaviours result in four leadership styles, each representing a "best choice" of style for each of four different readiness states or levels. Table 5.3 indicates the phases of maturity development and the style appropriate to each follower readiness level. The situational leadership theory suggests that the effective leader is flexible and able to accurately diagnose situational demands and to assess changes in levels of follower readiness towards maturity. He then adapts his style accordingly.

Table 5.3:   Leadership styles according to follower maturity.

Leadership Style	Follower readiness	Behavioural focus
"Telling"	Low follower readiness	A high task focus ensures the definition of roles for followers who are unable and unwilling to take responsibility.
"Selling"	Low to moderate readiness	Both task direction and personal support are high for followers who are unable but willing to take up responsibility.
"Participating"	Moderate to high readiness	Supportive behaviour with a lower task focus is provided to followers being able but unwilling. Through involvement in decision making processes the motivation levels of followers are increased.
"Delegating"	High readiness	Low levels of both task direction and personal support are provided when followers are able and willing to perform the task.

(Source: Hersey & Blanchard, 1988)

Hersey et al (1988) argue that a leadership style having been adapted to follower readiness, will not only lead to increased motivation but will also promote higher levels of maturity which in turn will require less leader control and supervision. More participation and freedom to solve problems independently can then be allowed.

The biggest inherent disadvantage of the situational theory is that the leader decides on the readiness level of subordinates, which is not transformational in nature. It does not allow for the basic assumptions that most employees strive towards a sense of commitment, involvement and ownership and that they have a desire to continuously learn and develop. The theory does not appear to be sensitive for the "Y-belief" (McGregor, 1960) that people want to do good work and feel good about themselves and the work they do and that they need constant feedback in this regard. A typical result would be that a follower finding himself in the "high readiness" area will soon move to the third quadrant (where he is still able but unwilling) if the leader proceeds with a delegating style with low (or no) personal support and encouragement. In contrast with the approach of choosing a style based on follower behaviour as suggested by Hersey et al (1988), Hall (1994) notes that competent managers align their leadership style with the belief that *all* their subordinates have an inherent willingness and ability to perform at a high level of productivity. Their style of leadership is therefore shaped by their basic beliefs about human competence and not by the readiness state (or maturity) of their followers. This is referred to as the self-fulfilling prophecy (Rosenthal, 1976)[2]. Having what might seem to be abnormally high expectations for followers is, in fact, the cornerstone of managerial competence.

5.5.2.4   Leadership Substitutes

The substitutes for leadership perspective argues that, because of the existence of certain individual, job, and organisational variables, hierarchical leadership may sometimes make no difference (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). These variables, called substitutes for leadership, often replace the influence of the leader. Leaders then become mere figureheads with little or no impact on follower behaviour. Kerr et al (1978) refer to four variables being able to substitute leader influence:

- A high level of subordinate knowledge and experience

- Highly structured jobs

- High levels of cohesiveness amongst employees

- Technology associated with certain jobs

---

[2] The subtle yet powerful way in which, that what we expect of others so influences how we behave toward them, that we literally coax out of them those reactions and achievements we anticipate. Based on what we expect or belief of others, we adapt our own behaviour to such an extent that we almost ensure that we will get what we expect (Hall: 1993).

Schermerhorn <u>et al</u> (1994) describe the substitutes for leadership as a more generalised version of the situational approaches. The distinctive difference between the two, however, is that the substitutes perspective assumes that in some cases leadership becomes unnecessary and has no impact because it is replaced by other variables as mentioned above.

5.5.3   THE CHANGING NATURE OF ORGANISATIONS

In the previous section the initial approaches towards defining and understanding the leadership concept was briefly discussed. However, the fast rate of change in all spheres of life has had a fundamental impact on business organisations and the way they are managed and led today. For organisations to survive and to remain world class they simply have to stay in harmony with the demands of ever changing and turbulent environments. Arguably the most important characteristics of today's organisational environment are instability and uncertainty, which call for new leadership skills and competencies. It is within this fast changing and often unpredictable environment that the role of the leader started taking on a new dimension, one of shaping a vision which can provide focus and direction and create meaning in the work of followers (Blunt, 1991). It has become fashionable for leaders to lead from the front by being visible role models of everything they expect others to do (Kotter, 1990). In doing so they display desirable attitudes, values and beliefs. Conger (1991) refers to the importance of these organisational values and how it has become popular to include values such as fairness, trust, openness and honesty, commitment, quality and good customer service in the company's vision and mission statements. A few prominent characteristics of modern day organisations will be discussed in this section where after the new leadership demands based on these characteristics will be analysed in the next section (5.5.4).

5.5.3.1   Changes in basic assumptions

The importance of getting the best out of people has forced leaders to think differently about the inherent competence of people and to change their assumptions concerning employees' basic work motivation towards the belief that people have an intrinsic desire to feel good about work accomplishments (Bennis <u>et al</u>, 1985). For researchers such as Charlton (1992), Kouzes & Posner (1988) and Peters & Waterman (1982) the root of today's leadership crisis lies in employees being regarded as the source of problems when low productivity, commitment and credibility are encountered – when followers are seen as the ones to be changed, not management. In contrast, a productivity crisis should in the first place be seen in the context of leaders not being able to instil vision and a sense of meaning in their followers. Leaders should accept that productivity problems tell them more about themselves than about

their followers. The challenge, according to Charlton (1992), has become one of moving followers' perceptions from expectations (what the company owes me) to aspirations (what I can contribute to the company). The organisation desiring to maintain its best people will have to create quality of work life through ownership, personal development and autonomy.

The nature of managerial control is quickly undergoing significant changes away from the traditional rule-bound approach. Instead of creating multi-leveled hierarchical structures where people can control the behaviour of those on lower levels, there is stronger acceptance of the fact that employees carry an intrinsic longing for a meaningful connection between their own lives and the work they do. When company productivity is at stake, leaders start to realise the importance of worker participation, co-operation, and healthy relationships between employer and employee.

5.5.3.2   The learning organisation

In contrast with the industrial era thinking where the value of a firm was determined by physical and financial assets, Ohmae (1988) asserted that the fundamental asset of the 21st century organisation is likely to be its knowledge base and that this will be the key to success. A critical requirement will be to constantly respond to and take advantage of external changes. This has led to the formulation of the "learning organisation" as the ideal organisation form in the future.

Senge (1990) introduced the concept of the learning organisation and defined it as "organisations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning how to learn together". The concept acknowledges the fact that organisations have to constantly learn in order to adapt, compete and survive. It is based on the premise that real learning forms part of a person's daily work as he deals with various problems, situations and people and does therefore not support the belief that learning capacity constitutes something that is limited and that those not having the necessary potential should be excluded from formal training programmes.

The learning organisation theory is furthermore based on the following principles (Meyer, 1999):

- ▪ Talent and capability can be identified, developed and nurtured in anyone.

- ▪ All employees have an enormous potential to perform.

- It is a myth that people with average capability necessarily perform accordingly.

- It is a misconception that if employees are not trained formally to perform certain tasks, they are then incapable of doing those tasks. Classroom settings are not the only opportunities for effective learning in the workplace. Learning and development should be an ongoing on-the-job part of employees' work.

After posing the question whether organisations as systems are able to learn in an ongoing way, Morgan (1997: 90) confirms that this is indeed possible, provided that these organisations are capable of firstly, scanning and anticipating change in the wider environment to detect significant variations, and secondly, developing an ability to question, challenge and change operating norms and assumptions. The key asset is a mind-set that embraces environmental change as a norm. Only through displaying the qualities of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation (see Section 5.7), will leaders succeed in creating true learning organisations.

The learning organisation concept wants to get rid of the vicious cycle formed by the fact that employees who are regarded as lacking the potential to be trained are seen to be incapable of learning. Instead, opportunities for learning should be provided to those people needing it the most and this becomes the task of leaders at all organisational levels. The new challenge is to regard all people as having the potential to develop to higher levels of competence and performance.

5.5.3.3   Changes in structure

The changes in assumptions about the workforce as described above, and specifically those regarding development and learning, require a new analysis of the way in which organisations are structured. Senge (1990) warns that the rate at which an organisation learns and the development of individual ability to learn within the organisation, will soon be its only source of competitive advantage. This means that any structure inhibiting this ability will eventually contribute towards self-destruction. Despite this threat high, multi-leveled hierarchies still dominate the way in which people are organised in the Western business world. A control orientation underpins these structures, which does not allow people to find work meaningful, to be creative and to express responsibility, commitment and ownership. These rigid structures had only one advantage, namely that the roles of managers and employees within them were simple, clear and relatively stable (Hirschhorn & Gilmore (1992). Company boundaries oriented and co-ordinated individual behaviour by making sure who reported to whom and who had which responsibilities. Recently (as the environmental characteristics of stability, predictability and

certainty disappeared), the disadvantages associated with these structures became more than the benefits. To respond to the demands of fast-changing markets, global competition and increased uncertainty, companies started designing more flexible organisational structures where vertical hierarchies are replaced with horisontal networks (Hirschhorn et al, 1992). In this network of relationships the roles that people play and the work they do became more blurred and ambiguous. As functional boundaries disappeared and organisations became more flexible, the new boundaries that mattered and that managers have to pay attention to, were psychological in nature and are created in the minds of both managers and employees. These new boundaries will be discussed in Section 5.5.4.3.

5.5.3.4 Teamwork

The synergistic value of teamwork as opposed to individual efforts, has led to organisations focussing increasingly more attention to the forming and development of strong effective functioning teams. Jobs are less clearly defined (Aguay, 1997) and people move from project to project as their skills are required. The continuing emphasis on employee collaboration and involvement is leading to self-managing teams being formed and leaders have to assume the roles of mentor coach and developer. Atwater & Bass (1994) list the following skills and abilities for effective team leaders:

- Knowledge of the group process

- Ability to think and react decisively

- Ability to articulate a position clearly and succinctly

- Subject knowledge and competence

- Sensitivity to group trends and needs

- Self-restraint and respect for others

- Ability to vocalise group sentiments

- Ability to repeatedly clarify objectives

- Persistence in achieving difficult objectives

5.5.4 ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE LEADERSHIP

Effective leadership has already been referred to as the ability to positively influence the productive behaviour of the workforce by creating the conditions (both physically and psychologically) in which they willingly do what needs to be done. Therefore, in essence leaders need to be aware of those factors influencing the motivation of followers in the workplace and can thus not afford to ignore the changes described above. Some of the important implications for leadership will be discussed further in this section.

5.5.4.1   Changing organisational structures and the importance of learning

In a business environment of increased interdependence between employees as well as higher levels of involvement, hierarchical structures will have to be replaced with flatter horisontal structures. Van der Merwe (1991) argues that the structures traditionally designed to organise people toward the achievement of results will not serve us well in future. Charlton (1992) warns that in the new "information age" those being in control do not have all the answers and that the traditional control orientation only produced conditional responders. They will have no place in a business environment where the creation of better products and services has become a necessity to stay competitive.

The changes described in the previous section demand new and innovative paradigms of looking at people and their work. The successful leader will therefore have to spend more of his time on developing people competencies. Charlton (1992) notes that the outdated notion of rational management and a focus on methods of quantitative analysis and linear thinking have to be replaced by a better understanding of individual growth and development. They have to be students of human behaviour (Sarros, 2001). Leaders will have to learn how to exchange the need to be in control for the responsibility to give followers the choice to improve productivity through learning, growth and development. This will only be possible when they realise that commitment, motivation and competence is the result of developmental, inspiring leadership. Hall (1990) stresses the basic premise that people are inherently competent and that they can and want to do what needs to be done if leaders create the conditions for them to do so. Effective leadership will only be the result of a paradigm shift in the belief system of leaders regarding the inherent potential of their followers. For as long as managers see people as incompetent, a negative self-fulfilling prophecy of responding to this incompetence will be evoked because people perform as they are expected to perform.

Arguably the most important requirement for effective leaders of the future is found in the area of addressing the intrinsic need of people to learn and to develop their potential. This developmental role asks for a fundamental shift of

mind on the part of management, a shift in the way that they see the inherent potential of their followers (Hall, 1990). Hofmeyr (1989) highlights the fact that an employee learns much more on the job itself than on formal training programmes and that most of this learning is prompted by the direct superior. The only way for leaders to meet the needs and expectations of their people for participation, involvement and personal growth is to take on and accept a developmental role through which people will be allowed to utilise their own skills and potential to perform (Human, 1989).

Due to the increasing importance of continuous learning and development of both individuals and teams and to develop effective learning organisations leaders should act as learning role models. They do this by admitting own mistakes, asking questions and encouraging innovation (Meyer, 1999). Not only should they support learning, they should actively demonstrate their commitment towards establishing a work environment where everyone is excited about development and improvement.

To be able to do this, leaders should realise and accept the fact that the daily work environment provides numerous learning opportunities that could add to and support the knowledge, skills and competencies already acquired through formal training. They should also demonstrate the belief that all their followers have an enormous capacity for continuous learning and improvement. In South Africa, given the critical skills shortage and training backlog, a fundamental leadership task is to identify learning needs and then to provide the appropriate on-the-job practical learning opportunities.

5.5.4.2   The use of power and empowerment

The products of all organisations are the consequence of employee behaviour (Kemp, 1998) and it is through the use of power and influence that leaders shape such behaviour from random to required and purposeful activity. Power could be defined as the ability to get someone to do something you want done in the way you want it to be done (French & Raver, 1962). It therefore refers to the control one person has over the behaviour of others and can be closely linked to the concept of leadership. Power is used to influence a behavioural outcome. It is derived from two sources, namely positional power (formal authority) and personal power. Personal power stands independent from personal position. It is the use of this personal power that has changed as a result of the changes in basic beliefs and assumptions about people's competence and the reasons why they work. Schermerhorn et al (1994) divide personal power into two bases, namely expertise and reference. Expert power refers to the ability to control the behaviour of others due to the possession of certain knowledge, expertise, and judgment that the other person needs but does not have. Access to information and organisational decision makers form important elements in this power base. With referent

power the controlling ability is the result of followers wanting to identify with the power source. The quality of relationships plays a critical role – subordinates behave positively to maintain (and not interfere with) a pleasing boss-subordinate relationship. Bass et al (1994) refer to referent power as idealised influence, one of the so-called four (4) I's of transformational leadership (see Section 5.7). As the effectiveness of leadership is determined through, amongst others, follower satisfaction and extra effort future leaders will have to apply more personal power (both expert and referent) to effect positive behavioural change with followers.

The increased focus on employee involvement, ownership and learning calls for power to be shared in order to improve follower performance. This "giving away of power" is referred to as empowerment – the process of allowing people or groups to make decisions that affect them or the tasks they do. Through empowerment leaders help others to acquire and use the power they need to make those decisions affecting their own work. It therefore refers to an ability of leaders to make things happen through the involvement and participation of followers. Paradoxically, leaders do not have to give up (sacrifice) power so that followers can gain more power. Through the process of empowerment the total level of power in the group or organisation is increased. Schermerhorn et al (1994) emphasise the importance of empowering subordinates by stating that managers in progressive organisations, more than ever before, will be expected to be good at sharing power with and transferring it to those individuals with whom they work: "The concept of empowerment is part of the sweeping change being witnessed in today's industry." Power can no longer be considered to be something reserved for those in the higher levels of traditional multi-levelled organisations. Empowerment has become such an integral part of the successful leader's skills requirements that, according to Stewart (1989), organisations might find that "… the age of the hierarchy is over".

Consistent with this line of reasoning Quinn & Spreitzer (1997) add that traditional command-and-control hierarchies are increasingly less appropriate and that employees have to be empowered to take initiative, be creative and accept responsibility for their own actions. These authors distinguish between two strategies for empowerment, namely the mechanistic (top-down) and organic (bottom up) approaches.

5.5.4.2.1   The mechanistic strategy

In this strategy it is believed that empowerment is about delegating decision-making, but within a set of clear boundaries. Leaders have to start at the top where the organisation's mission, vision and values are clarified after which tasks, roles and rewards for employees are

specified. Responsibility is delegated and people are being held accountable for results.

5.5.4.2.2   The organic strategy

The contrast between this strategy and the previous one is built on the implicit assumption that people can be trusted and that power can be shared (control can be shifted to where the work gets done). Here it is believed that empowerment is about risk taking, growth, and change. People need to be trusted and their imperfections tolerated. It is assumed that newly empowered employees will make mistakes. These mistakes form part of the learning process and should therefore not be punished. The empowerment process starts at the bottom where an understanding for the needs of employees is created. Empowered behaviour for employees should be modeled by seniors. Intelligent risk taking is encouraged and people are trusted to perform. Underlying this empowerment strategy are the principles of employee competence (Hall, 1990) as well as the principles of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). For people to be empowered they must first experience a sense of involvement, participation and personal impact on the work and work environment.

For the successful implementation of empowerment, Quinn & Spreitzer (1997) do not suggest a choice between the mechanistic or organic views. Neither perspective by itself provides a clear option. Both provide partial and incomplete pictures. Although risk, trust and initiative are vital in the empowerment process, it still needs to be done in a disciplined and controlled manner. Elements of both strategies are essential to sustain effective and sustainable employee empowerment.

Veldsman, (2004: 32) relates the process of effective empowerment to the building blocks of leadership culture and climate. These building blocks (based on different leadership patterns within the organisation) give rise to either enabling or disabling organisational cultures. These building blocks and their descriptions are listed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Leadership styles according to follower maturity.

Building Block	Enabling Culture	Disabling Culture
World view: How do leaders see the world?	Inclusive, open-minded	Exclusive, closed-minded
Attitude: What value, positive or negative, must be placed on things, persons, events and outcomes?	Optimistic, confident	Pessimistic, anxious
Relationship: In what manner do leaders engage with others?	Warm, personal, close	Cold, impersonal, distant
Power: How and to what end is power taken up and exercised by leaders?	Empowering, enabling	Controlling, restrictive
Action: What style of action must leaders adopt?	Risk taking, experimenting	Risk avoiding, mistake minimisation

(Source: Adapted from Veldsman, 2004)

The importance of understanding the human dynamics underpinning power and the "power struggle" is addressed by Charlton (1992). Power forms part of all human interactions and ought to be managed to the benefit of managers, followers and the organisation. Traditional views of power as a fixed sum (if one has more, the other has less) should be transformed to the concept of "giving power to get power". In such a scenario both leader and follower are willing to be mutually influenced by one another. When leaders share power through involvement and participation, their followers are more strongly attached to them. This leads to higher levels of commitment to the carrying out of responsibilities (Kouzes et al, 1988).

5.5.4.3   Boundary management

Changes in the nature of boundaries found in organisations require leaders to focus on relationship boundary management (Hirschhorn et al, 1992). According to them recognising such boundaries and then creating the right kind of relationships at the right time is the key to improved productivity,

innovation and effectiveness. Conflict created by clashes of opinion and perspectives can be healthy as these differences may signal that group members are approaching a boundary that needs to be managed (see table 6.5). Organisational flexibility depends on how well the creative tension within each boundary is maintained and managed. Apart from certain boundaries existing on an individual level, Kriek (2004) also refers to inter-team boundaries. These team boundaries are determined through defining the level at which it will allow outsiders to enter its boundaries. Often these "visitors" are allowed to become a part of the social context, but they can't enter the "work-boundary" of the team.

The psychological boundaries to be managed are discussed below (each boundary is typically characterised by necessary tentions and can be recognised by the feelings it evokes).

5.5.4.3.1   Authority boundary

In any organisation (even the most boundaryless) some people will always lead and provide direction while others follow and have the responsibility for execution. In these roles managers and subordinates meet at the authority boundary. This boundary poses the question: "Who is in charge of what?" In more flexible organisations followers may sometimes find themselves leading a team including the formal boss. Along authority boundaries two paradoxes are found. Firstly, being an effective follower means that subordinates have to challenge superiors. Secondly, being an effective manager sometimes requires openness and even vulnerability to criticism and feedback from followers. "Subordinates need to challenge in order to follow, superiors need to listen in order to lead" (Hirschhorn et al, 1992). Building trust is a critical requirement for managing the authority boundary effectively. Kriek (2004) cites six leadership behaviours expected to build trust between leader and follower:

- Openness:
  A willingness to share information, thoughts and feelings. Reactions should also be consistent with the values of the team.

- Sharing:
  Providing materials and resources for the team to reach its goals and objectives.

- Empowerment:
  Showing confidence through allowing followers to achieve the task in their own way.

- Respect:
  Recognising the contribution of each member and showing a belief in the ability of followers to cope with the situation at hand.

- Co-operation:
  Allowing people to take part in problem solving and decision-making processes.

- Dependability:
  Keeping to what was promised.

5.5.4.3.2 Task boundary

Due to the highly specialised division of labour and the resultant contradiction between this specialisation and the need for a shared mission and purpose, teams became an important form of work organisation. Because people with different (but complementary) skills are brought together to pursue a single common goal, team members must focus not only on their own work, but also on what other members do. Leaders have to manage the relationships of those involved at the task boundary. In flexible organisations individuals have to depend on others who have skills and resources which they cannot control. This means that their own performance may depend on what others do and that they cannot ignore the work of others any more.

5.5.4.3.3 Political boundary

As members of groups with different interests, needs and goals, especially in large organisations, people meet at the political boundary by asking the question: "What is in it for us?" When groups start defending their own interest the challenge for leaders will be to distinguish between and manage win-lose and win-win strategies in such a way that the effectiveness and coherence of the organisation as a whole is not undermined.

5.5.4.3.4 Identity boundary

Hirschhorn et al (1992) refer to the fact that in the boundaryless organisation people have a multitude of group identities at work. These identities may be rooted in particular occupations, membership of a local work group or their origins may be more personal as a result of membership of and experience within a particular race, gender or nationality.

While at the political boundary differences are based on interests, the differences at the identity boundary are strongly built on values. At this boundary members seek out people who seem to be like themselves, insiders are trusted but members are wary of outsiders. The question is: "Who is – and isn't – us?" The relationships based on identity are extremely energising and motivating. Leaders need to tap this energy source and then put it to the most productive use. The tention that needs to be managed is to create and maintain a high team spirit without devaluing the contribution of other groups.

Table 5.5: A leader's guide to important organisational boundaries.

Key questions			Necessary Tentions	Characteristic Feelings
"Who is in charge of what?"		AUTHORITY BOUNDARY	How to lead but remain open to criticism. How to follow but still challenge superiors.	Trustful Open Rigid Rebellious Passive
"Who does what?"	TASK BOUNDARY		How to depend on others you don't control. How to specialise yet understand other people's jobs.	Confident Competent Proud Anxious Incompetent Ashamed
"What's in it for us?"		POLITICAL BOUNDARY	How to defend one's interests without undermining the organisation. How to differentiate between win-win and win-lose situations.	Empowered Treated fairly Powerless Exploited
"Who is – and isn't us?"	IDENTITY BOUNDARY		How to feel pride without devaluing others. How to remain loyal without undermining outsiders.	Proud Loyal Tolerant Distrusting Contemptuous

(Source: Hirschhorn & Gilmore, 1992)

5.5.4.4   Creating psychological climate

Organisations do not only consist of people but are also made up of the interactions between people. Behaviour of followers is determined by the nature and quality of relationships. When people interact and communicate a psychological climate arises (Kemp: 1998). As leader behaviour acts as a stimulus for (and therefore makes a direct impact on) the behaviour of others, leaders have to develop the interpersonal skills of establishing a constructive and productive psychological climate. The interactional skills required to favourably influence the behaviour of employees are the following:

▪   Awareness of and sensitivity for the nature of their own interaction with others. Leaders need to realise the impact of their own actions on followers. Employees' behaviour is often a direct result of the way they are treated. A lack of initiative and commitment can therefore be the result of a demotivating influence and cannot merely be seen as faults on the side of workers themselves.

▪   The relationship skills of empathy, acceptance of diversity without prejudice, genuineness and sincerity.

▪   Communication skills – the interpersonal process taking place between people in which everything said and done affects others, either to their benefit or their disadvantage.

▪   The ability to empower employees so that they can take risks, show initiative and make own decisions.

5.5.4.5   Providing vision and direction

In a world of rapid change and instability a crucial part of the contemporary leader's role has become one of creating meaning in terms of the future and a clear, well communicated vision. Committed employees need direction. Nadler, Shaw & Walton (1995: 73) define vision as "… a broad qualitative statement of what the organisation will be like in the future……an image of a future state that is realistic and compelling and better than the present state". A positive and attractive, clearly understood vision serves as one of the most important motivators to stir followers into action (Charlton, 1992). It provides focus and transmits clarity of what is expected from employees. Visionary competence, according to Charlton (1992), has a two-fold purpose:

▪   It motivates people and enables individuals to find their own organisational roles, …"it helps people to engage in a creative and purposeful venture".

- It helps to get people's attention and provides a sense of focus as to the organisational direction.

Senge (1990) describes visionary leadership by referring to the principle of creative tension. This tension develops from the gap between current reality and where the organisation (or team) needs or wants to be in future. Leaders need to hold a picture of the ideal future and communicate it in practical terms to followers. Charlton (1992) warns that peoples' motivation is dependent on understanding the team's vision and that if there is no vision people will simply assume that there is no future for the team and will then soon look for alternatives. Leaders should establish a context for the creation of hope for a better future, which is a prerequisite for a sense of commitment purpose.

5.5.4.6   From management to leadership

The traditional management style making use of a slow chain-of command decision-making process typically found in multi-leveled bureaucratic organisations (Robinson, 1989) is characterised by managers telling employees what to do and then monitoring their performance through strict external controlling mechanisms such as policies, rules, regulations and fixed procedures. This style needs to be replaced by an approach capitalising on the inherent competence, creativity and need for learning, involvement, participation and ownership of employees (Charlton: 1992). To be able to do this, Robinson (1989) suggests the following requirements:

- Coaching and developing people

- Assist employees to become "self-managed"

- Participate in and encourage teams and teamwork

- Encourage innovation and risk taking

- Treat people as your number one competitive edge in the marketplace

The areas of difference in the movement away from a managerial focus towards a style of leading others dictate some requirements for leaders in the new organisational paradigm and are reflected in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: <u>Model for transition from management to leadership</u>.

MANAGING OTHERS		LEADING OTHERS
Directing others	➔	Guiding / Developing
Competing	➔	Collaborating
Using hierarchy	➔	Using network
Consistency/Sameness	➔	Diversity / Flexibility
"Slow" decision-making requiring permission	➔	"Fast" decision-making using judgment
Risk-averse	➔	Risk taking
Individual contributor	➔	Team player
Being managed	➔	Self-management
People as expense	➔	People as asset

(Source: Robinson, 1989)

5.5.4.7 Change related leadership demands for South Africa

Despite the legacy of apartheid, low productivity and inadequate skill, South African business organisations have to face the challenges of increased international competition. Pretorius (2001) is convinced that leadership is the most critical factor that can make a difference and that will determine future success. In order to be successful, South African leaders should embrace change and accept it as an inevitability. To be able to capitalise on change and to be on the forefront of it, leaders should posses the following fundamental skills:

▪ Strategic thinking

Not only should the leader be able to formulate a coherent strategy and vision for the organisation, but he should also be able to effectively communicate this to his followers.

- Innovative thinking

  This refers to the leader's ability to find new opportunities for growth and development and to instil the same inclination in each member of the team. Competition should be "out-innovated" (Pretorius, 2001)

- Rational decision making

  Leaders must be able to deal with operational problems and decisions successfully.

Pretorius (2001) contrasts successful leadership with traditional autocratic and transactional styles and states that effective leadership can be described as visionary and transformational. For him transformational leadership, difficult as it may be, is the only way to business success. Leadership should be principle centred and built on the values of quality service, teamwork, recognition of performance, participation, involvement and continuous people development. In order to do this, leaders need to learn how to trust people so that power can be shared and shifted to those who do the work.

5.6 CURRENT THOUGHTS ON AFRICAN MANAGEMENT/ LEADERSHIP

5.6.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 1994, when political power in South Africa shifted to a first democratic government, the issue of appropriate management models for business in Africa has formed the key point of many debates. Although the concepts driving the systems, structure and effectiveness of all business are universal and apply anywhere, Drucker (1990) argues that the context in which business operates (which is not universal) forms a more powerful reality and that South African leaders need to explore the notion that business success may be caused by different realities from one context to another.

South African management practices have been strongly influenced by both colonial heritage and American business thinking. Lessem (1993) points out that a purposefully differentiated and subsequently integrated approach to management needs to accompany economic transformation in South Africa and that our managers have to start recognising the full potential of the country's cultural, economic and personal variety.

5.6.2   INCLUSIVISM VS EXCLUSIVISM

The perceived relationship between an individual and his society became one of the most important differences between black and white South Africans (Koopman, 1993). While whites have primarily designed exclusive workplaces where individual development, ambition, and achievement enjoy primary importance (an exclusive value orientation), blacks do not see man as separate and independent from society. The individual's behaviour cannot be interpreted from a pure individualistic perspective. Each individual is expected to find his place in societal structure and to subordinate himself to societal needs. He does not live for himself, but for the community. For them organisations, in order to serve the needs of its people, are therefore required to be inclusive. The dilemma created in South Africa (Koopman, 1993) is that blacks (being regarded as more holistic and inclusive right brain thinkers) are forced into predominantly left brain workplaces characterised by analytical and exclusive environments. The result is that the use of exclusivist disciplinary rules and regulations comes into conflict with the black's inclusivist view of adherence or non-adherence to the requirements of societal norms. These value differences bear substantial significance in the military environment with its numerous rules, regulations, policies and procedures. As will be discussed later in this chapter, it should be noted that the SA Air Force has already started moving away from a traditionally rule bound culture towards one that is driven by a set of shared core values.

Koopman (1993) provides four basic behavioural differences, which result from above contrasting value systems:

- In an inclusivist world-view recognition and the fear of rejection is more important than rewards or punishment. It stems from the very roots of social relationships with other people. The fear of rejection and the need for belonging is rooted very strongly in social relationships within black communities. Therefore, to use social rejection as punishment holds much more corrective potential than any of the other rational punishments used in the white individualistic exclusive orientation.

- In black societies people have to earn the right to control people ("consent of the managed"). There is a much stronger emphasis on leadership than management. Where leadership is concerned with rewarding "communal effort" against common vision, management focuses on rewarding individual merit and position.

- Self-interest is seen as being subjective to communal interest.

- In an exclusive organisational environment a leader, once receiving power, becomes directive. For blacks there is a much stronger drive towards continuing participation.

In South Africa whites are individualistic exclusivists, while Africans are communal inclusivists (Koopman, 1993). The role of the community in shaping the behaviour of its members, even in the workplace, cannot be over-emphasised and stand central to African culture. Philosophically, the community concept is strongly based on the concept of Ubuntu, which is discussed further on in this chapter. Communal morality forms the basis for the creation of shared values inside the organisation. For blacks, the workplace becomes an extension of the social community concept and this organisational community then should lay down the guidelines for both good and unacceptable behaviour within various disciplines such as teamwork and customer service. In the community, which is characterised by an organic structure, there should be a thick network of informal relationships for the creation of a collaborative and caring atmosphere. These relationships empower people to freedom and action and enable people to find meaning and satisfaction in their work (Mbigi, 1993). Ceremonies, rituals and symbols are of importance. Other characteristics of an inclusivist community-based value-system are respect for the elderly, supportiveness, c-operation, solidarity and a preference to focus on morals rather than roles and functions. There is a free flow of information and everyone has the right to be informed. In organisations, rules and regulations should be used for the facilitation of interpersonal relations and the promotion of the community's values and objectives, not for preserving the ascendancy of one group over another (Khoza, 1994). The differences between blacks and whites in terms of exclusivism and inclusivism are listed in Table 5.7. From these points as well as those mentioned above it becomes clear that if a misunderstanding and denial of these differences are allowed in the workplace, an environment for increased polarisation (and therefore low productivity and bad performance) will be created.

Koopman (1993) is convinced that, for South African companies to be compatible with a non-racial democracy and to develop effective and appropriate organisational governance, leaders have to take account of these value differences and to adopt a more inclusivist value system within their organisations. However, this should still be integrated with the Western values of efficiency and enterprise (Mbigi, 1993). Leaders will need to continuously create an understanding for South Africa's dual heritage. Visionary management is seen as the most appropriate in meeting the challenge of synthesising polarities and integrating ancient wisdom of the past with modern science. According to Mbigi (1993) organisational forms with an organic structural design (rather than mechanistic bureaucratic designs) may serve as a starting point for the design of relevant management theories for the South African firm. The extent to which the application of the principles of transformational leadership might satisfy this requirement will be referred to further on in this chapter (see Section 5.7)

Table 5.7:   Exclusivism vs Inclusivism: Differences between whites and Africans.

Whites	Africans
Win/lose tactics within clearly defined structures and procedures are applied when managing conflict.	Within a framework of morals, the immediate family, supervisors and elders are involved in managing conflict.
Members enter into negotiations in order to control the outcome.	Members enter into a dialogue towards an outcome.
The outcome is in terms of "right-ness" and "wrongness".	The outcome is in terms of "fairness" and "unfairness" towards other members of society.
Inherent in this system is violence and disharmony according to sets of rules and standards.	Inherent in this system is a search for reconciliation and harmony so that acceptance amongst fellow human beings can be regained.

(Source: Adapted from Koopman, 1993: 48)

5.6.3   Ubuntu

Events only have meaning in a specific context (Nzelibe, 1986). This is also applicable to the study of effective leadership in Africa. A meaningful analysis and description of leadership thought in the African business world can therefore only be done with reference to certain basic, traditional values and principles (Lessem, 1993). Implicitly, a direct conflict could be found between the fundamental assumptions of Western and African management thought. Whereas eurocentricism, individualism and modernity are emphasised in Western thinking, the characteristic elements of African management thought are traditionalism, communalism, ethnocentrism and teamwork. Many of these traits are rooted in the uniquely African concept of African Humanism or ubuntu as it is known. It has become a social construct so strongly part of African communities that the study of organisational behaviour in African business cannot ignore its influence on long-term business success and survival. For Mbigi (1993) the key to successfully get one's workforce on one's side lies in the African-grown concept of ubuntu.

A deep sence of interdependence lies at the heart of Africanism. For the African one's very sense of personhood is dependent upon how one is seen and regarded by others (Van der Merwe, 1993). Nobody in an African context lives for himself. Each one lives for the community. This belief has given rise to the truly African unique concept of ubuntu as captured by the Tswana saying "Motho ke motho ka batho" (Van der Walt, 1997) or the Xhosa idiomatic expression "Umuntu Ngumintu Ngabantu" which could literally be

translated as: A person is a person only through other people (Khoza, 1993). The concept is often referred to by using phrases such as "I am because you are, you are because we are". While Western thinking moves from several individuals to a community, traditional African thinking is exactly the opposite: the community is the point of departure (Van der Walt, 1997). Ubuntu is often regarded to form the foundation of sound human relations in African societies and strongly forms the core of an African world-view to such an extent that it could be conceptualised as the "collective unconscious" of intra-human relations (Khoza, 1994).

Ubuntu is collectivistic in nature and opposes the assumptions of Western individualistic theory that a person, being self-reliant, is the best judge of his own interests and that the development of the individual is the most effective incentive to productive behaviour. According to Khoza (1994) the assumptions of the individualistic theory are inadequate to the understanding of the fact that man is a social being and that his most effective behaviour is as a member of a group or organisation. In contrast with the individualistic world-view which accords value to progress and supports the right of the individual to compete with others and to get ahead of them, collectivism sees the individual as being subordinate to a social collectivity such as a nation, an organisation or a social class, "… the individual finds his true being and freedom only in submission to the 'general will' of the community" (Khoza, 1994). Man is not regarded as the sufficient and adequate reason of his own existence. In the ubuntu ontology[3] working for the common good of all members are emphasised as both desirable and essential. Man is defined in relational terms - he can only be identified in relation to other human beings.

Ubuntu as a value orientation also has a religious component. For the African, the human community extends even beyond death. The link between the living members and the "living" dead members is regarded to be unbreakable. The African regards his relationship with God as a communal relationship even when accepting the Christian religion (Van der Walt, 1997). For him religion cannot be an individual choice.

Ubuntu is seen as an asset through which to create community. The ubuntu philosophy, together with the community concept, has significant implications for organisational life. The community in a village creates alignment through social pressures imposed on individuals who are seen to be out of line with the community's norms. It is believed that organisations could also use these processes as a means of creating pressures for alignment (Van der Merwe, 1993). Apart from this, other vital considerations of ubuntu for the workplace are the following (Khoza, 1994):

---

[3] Understanding of the truth.

- A networking style of management where people can learn from one another horizontally should replace a strictly top-down authoritarian management style. Each Individual should get support from many different levels and directions.

- Management should be approachable without being over-familiar. A prerequisite will be to understand the world views of those who are managed.

- The organisation should have a free flow of information. A community spirit cannot be built and cultivated by withholding information or by manipulating facts.

Although ubuntu, as a concept belonging to the social philosophy or social psychology, embraces values such as sharing, seeking consensus and interdependent helpfulness, it is not a business technique like an employee participation programme. Van der Wal (2001) warns that ubuntu should not be carelessly compared with and substituted for the technique of normal participative management. However, it does provide a sound basis for team learning and the development of a greater sense of oneness (Khoza, 1993). The already well developed sense of sharing and common endeavour available in the African workforce should be realised through the application of democratic leadership techniques. ubuntu manifests in protest and withdrawal under authoritarian leadership conditions.

5.6.4 ACHIEVEMENT AND WEALTH

Blunt et al (1997) argue that the two assumptions, namely that people respond in ways designed to optimise economic rewards and that there are high merits in individualism and competition, are potentially problematic as they do not correspond with the values held by people in more than 80 per cent of the countries of the world. In most non-Western countries individual and group competition are not highly valued; the group is more important than the individual, individual achievements less important than interpersonal relations.

The wealth of the extended family enjoys first priority (Blunt et al, 1997) after which ethnic and tribal wealth follow. For Africans, the value of economic transactions lies more in the ritual surrounding them and in their capacity to reinforce group ties, than in the value for the individual and the other parties involved. According to Dia (1994) wealth can even be acquired legitimately at the expense of the organisation.

5.6.5   ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

In comparison to the increased focus on task performance, productivity and organisational effectiveness by thrusting and demanding leaders, African culture shows a much higher acceptance of human frailty. Leaders who are kind, considerate and understanding is preferred to one that is too dynamic, productive and demanding (Blunt et al, 1997). Africans are more concerned about their relationships with others than individual or organisational effectiveness. Interpersonal issues are more important than issues associated with organisational performance and its clients. Followers expect leaders to use authority only sparingly and in a considerate way. The good manager is considered to be people-oriented (instead of task-oriented), one that consults subordinates, treat them with consideration and provide clear direction. Most importantly he is expected to offer assurance and security. In this regard Montgomery (1987) points to the preoccupation of African leaders with stability and order. The Western philosophy of the "survival of the fittest" where underperformers are considered to be "deadwood to be rooted out" is not easily accepted in African management models (Blunt et al, 1997). A comparison of the elements of typical "ideal" Western leadership with African paradigms is provided in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8:   A comparison of Western and African leadership paradigms.

Element	Western leadership	African leadership
Influences on leadership practices	Organisational performance is most important Drive for efficiency and competitiveness Urgency Participative (because of being follower dependent)	Centralised power structures High degree of uncertainty Control mechanisms more important than organisational per-formance Bureaucratic resistance to change Importance of extended family
Managing authority	Relative equality of authority and status between manager and subordinates Delegation/decentralisation Teamwork Empowerment	Authoritarian/ pater-nalistic leadership patterns Centralisation Bureaucratic controls Reluctance to judge performance
Managing uncertainty	High degree of tolerance of ambiguity Uncertainty accepted as normal Continuous change viewed as natural desirable Sense of urgency	High degrees of conser-vatism Change-resistant hierarchies

Table 5.8:   (Continued)

Element	Western leadership	African leadership
Managing relationships	High levels of trust and openness valued Open confrontation of differences Support of followers essential Focus on commitment and high morale	Social networks crucial for individual security

(Source: Blunt & Jones, 1997: 19)

5.6.6   EMERGENT STRATEGY VERSUS STRATEGY FORMULATION

In terms of sophisticated Western management tradition strategy is formulated where after the implementation thereof is controlled by rational management systems such as job descriptions, job evaluations, disciplinary codes and grievance procedures. In non-Western environments this approach is often met with resistance, hostility and mistrust. Africans on the other hand, are known for recognising emerging reality patterns after strategy formulation – this is referred to as emergent strategy (Mbigi, 1993). The crafting and moulding of strategy is regarded to be more important than formulating strategy. The task of the manager is to conceptualise and synthesise emerging strategic reality patterns with planned strategy. This view is supported by the research of Jones, Blunt & Sharma (1995) providing evidence that the role of vision and strategy as it is described in Western terms, are out of place in many African organisations. The Western notion of leaders having to formulate long-term strategies, to communicate corporate vision and to inspire people to work towards the organisation's mission, is found to be largely absent in these organisations.

5.7   TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

5.7.1   THE FULL-RANGE MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

Dissatisfaction with the appropriateness and relevance of some of the earlier theories of leadership led to the emergence of new approaches to the description and understanding of effective leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis et al, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1988; Senge, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993). These new theories focus on what leaders *do* in order to be effective. Building on the leadership notions of Burns (1978), Bass (1985) developed a model of a full range of leadership styles ranging from non-transactional to transactional and transformational. This theory was first developed with executives from South Africa in the early 1980's. He used subordinates' perceptions and reactions to determine whether a leader was transformational or transactional.

A common characteristic of all the styles in this full-range model is that the more active the style (i.e. the leader) is, the more effective the style will be (Bass & Avolio, 1994). All the styles could therefore be plotted on the two dimensions passive-active and ineffective-effective. A fundamental characteristic of full-range leadership training and development is that every leader possesses and displays a certain degree of each of the styles. This leads to the model also showing a third dimension, namely the frequency of displaying each one of the styles. The optimal profile (figure 5.4) indicates the relative frequency of styles displayed by most effective leaders.

In essence Bass's (1985) theory focuses on the differences on transactional and transformational leadership approaches and how these styles influence follower behaviour and organisational effectiveness. Transformational leaders use individual attention and visioning and inspirational skills to develop strong emotional bonds with their followers. Transformational leadership is a more complex but more potent leadership style (Negin, 2000) and causes both leaders and followers to commit themselves to excellence. In addition to satisfying only the lower order needs of followers, these leaders also appeal to the higher level growth needs (esteem and self-actualisation). The style serves to address (and change) the stutus quo by appealing to followers' sense of higher purpose. It could ultimately be seen as a moral exercise that aims at raising the standard of human conduct. These leaders have a compelling vision of the organisation's future and what it could be like. (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership is often (wrongly) confused with charisma. Although charisma forms an important part of transformational leadership characteristics, many charismatic leaders are not transformational in their approach. Charisma alone is not sufficient for transformation. When charismatic leaders convey a vision and form strong emotional bonds but do so in order to get their own needs met, they are not transformational (Negin, 2000). Transformational leaders show more identifiable behaviours that result in followers going beyond previously expected levels of performance.

Transactional leaders do not possess these characteristics and are therefore not able to inspire followers or to develop emotional bonds. Their means of motivating people are to set goals and then to promise rewards for achieving the desired outcomes.

Bass (1990) notes that transformational leadership should be seen as a compliment to the transactional style and not a replacement of it. Leaders understanding and using both styles were found to be the most effective.

Figure 5.4: <u>Optimal leadership profile</u>.
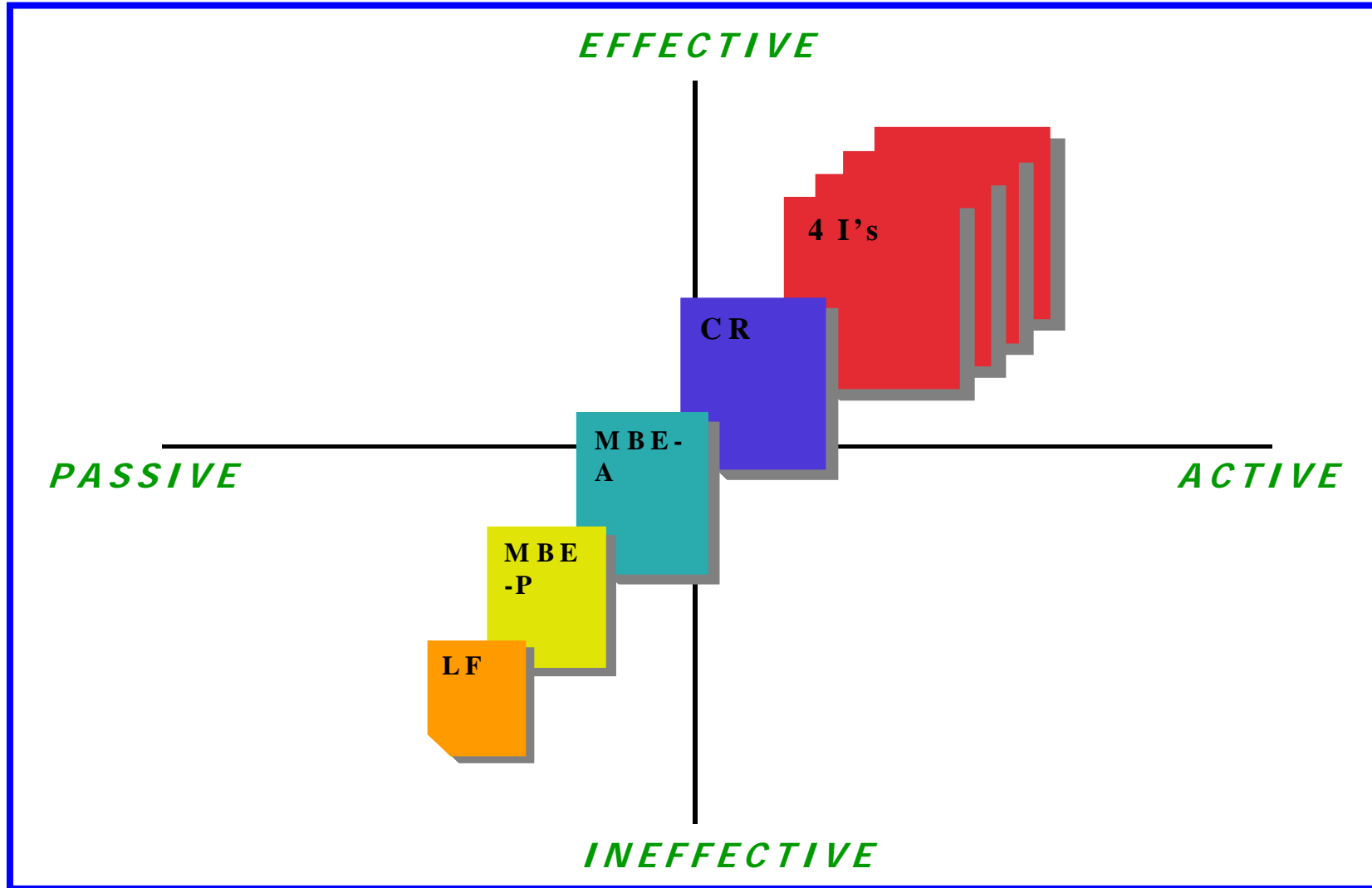
(Source: Bass & Avolio, 1994)

After comparing organisational cultures in terms of transactional versus transformational leadership approaches, Bass et al (1993: 112) suggests that organisations should move in the direction of more transformational qualities in their cultures, yet not move away completely from transactional qualities. A transactional leadership style refers to exchanges of performances for rewards between leaders and followers. In achieving daily routine performance the leader and follower agree upon incentives or rewards in exchange for achieving specific work objectives. Rewards and compensation can only be expected upon successful completion of the defined task. After setting clear standards for performance, the transactional leader is focussing on deviations and mistakes and only pays attention to correcting these.

In contrast with the transactional style, the transformational leader motivates and encourages followers to do more than what is expected and often even more than they thought possible (Bass et al, 1994).

5.7.2   NON-TRANSACTIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMA-TIONAL STYLES

A brief description of each of the styles making up the full-range model of leadership will subsequently be provided:

5.7.2.1   The laissez-faire (LF) style

Although characterised as one of the leadership styles of the full-range model the laissez-faire style refers to the absence or avoidance of leadership, where the leader neglects his responsibility of involvement in the work of his followers. In terms of the full-range model of leadership (see Figure 5.4) this style is the most inactive as well as the most ineffective. This fact is supported by almost all research on the style (Bass et al, 1994). These leaders fail to make decisions, are absent when needed, and fail to follow up on follower requests.

5.7.2.2   Transactional leadership

Leadership is transactional in nature when follower behaviour is rewarded or disciplined based on the adequacy of the behaviour or performance. Some type of exchange relationship exists. Transactional leadership depends on contingent reinforcement, (Bass et al, 1994) either through positive contingent reward (CR) or negative forms of management-by-exception (MBE), which could take on a passive or active approach. The focus is more on what needs to be done than on the person doing the work. The approach more often than

not results in followers only delivering what is expected or contracted and shows no intent or motivation for doing more through exerting extra effort.

Transactional leadership can merely serve as a base for effective leadership (Bass et al, 1990). There are numerous disadvantages and many elements of effective leadership are missing from the approach. Pure transactional leaders are unconcerned with the development of followers and only focus on the requirements of the transaction or the exchange between themselves and the followers. In a transactional approach the motivation of employees through promising rewards or the avoidance of penalties will depend on whether the leader has control of the rewards or penalties. Whether the follower wants the rewards or fear the penalties, further influence the level of motivation.

In the full-range model, transactional leaders are characterised by behaviours associated with constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is labelled "contingent reward" and the corrective style is labelled "management-by-exception". These two styles will be briefly discussed next.

5.7.2.2.1   Contingent reward

In its positive form, the transactional leadership style is referred to as "contingent reward" or "constructive transaction". It takes on the form of an exchange process owing to the fact that followers' needs are met when they meet the leader's expectations. These leaders employ goal setting to help clarify what is expected of their subordinates and what the subordinates will receive for accomplishing the goals and objectives (Bass et al, 2003: 14). This form of leadership is highly dependent on the ability of the leader to reward subordinates for their successful completion of the contract or agreement. In essence, the approach is a proactive facilitation of what subordinates do, how hard they try and what they receive for their accomplishments. The style could be regarded as reasonably effective only in the sense that, when implemented properly, it results in follower performance that meets expectations. There are no leader actions in this style that inspire followers to do or achieve more than what was expected, both by the leader and themselves.

Negin (2000) refers to two negative aspects of transactional leadership. It is described as transitory (i.e. there may be no ongoing purpose or reason to hold the leader and followers together once a transaction has been made). This type of relationship will therefore only last for as long as the transaction is mutually beneficial. Secondly, for as long as the rewards are provided and agreements are kept to, it could be very effective. However, it does not lead to organisational change (as

opposed to transformational leadership). It could even legitimise the status quo.

5.7.2.2.2   Management-by-exception

The negative form of transactional leadership is referred to as management-by-exception or MBE (Bass et al, 1990) and literally means that leaders pay attention to the deviations, errors and mistakes in follower performance. In its active form (MBE-A), leaders look for mistakes and take corrective action when mistakes occur. They constantly monitor their subordinates' performance and call for corrections when problems are observed. Bass et al (2003: 14) clearly point out the risks involved in using this style. If a leader only uses the MBE-A style, he is likely to create a work force of risk avoiders and individuals who work to standards only using "traditional methods". Followers avoid innovative actions due to a fear of making mistakes, which may result in their leader's disapproval.

The MBE-Passive style refers to those MBE leaders who are not actively searching for deviations, mistakes and errors in followers' assignments. These leaders wait to take action only when something goes wrong. Matters have to be brought to their attention for them to make corrections. They tend to leave things alone as long as it doesn't give them too much trouble. Followers of MBE leaders (both active and passive) usually do not perform at high levels.

5.7.2.3   Transformational leadership

The development of followers to their full potential is a primary concern for the transformational leader. Superior leadership performance occurs when leaders elevate employee interests and generate awareness and acceptance of group mission and purposes (Bass, 1990). These leaders firstly elevate the desires of followers for achievement and self-development (through increasing follower self-confidence) firstly, but also promote group and organisational development (Bass et al, 1990). They gradually move followers away from concerns for existence to concerns for development and achievement.

The transformational leader is much more future oriented and fosters an organisational culture of creative change and growth. Continuous awareness and acceptance of the group's purpose is viewed as critical and followers are encouraged to focus away from self-interest towards the good of the group or team. These leaders tend to give direction, they inspire, gain commitment, and serve as respected examples in order to develop people to their full

potential in their efforts to solve problems and perform better. Negin (2000) cites three important criteria for leaders to be transformational:

- They should manifest modal values[4] and advance the standards of good conduct.

- They work to achieve end values[5]

- They have a positive impact on the people whose lives they touch.

Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino (1991: 10) characterise transformational leaders by four separate components or characteristics denoted as the four (4) I's of transformational leadership:

5.7.2.3.1   Individualised consideration.

The development of each follower is important and his/her worth as a person is constantly reinforced through personal attention. Each follower is individually coached and advised. All individuals are considered as having different needs, abilities and aspirations.

5.7.2.3.2   Intellectual stimulation.

Intelligent, creative problem solving is promoted through the continuous questioning, challenging and re-examining of assumptions. Followers are encouraged to challenge old rules, procedures and status quo's where they do not fit the purpose any more. These leaders get others to look at problems from different angles. They encourage non-traditional thinking to deal with problems.

5.7.2.3.3   Inspirational Motivation.

The importance of each individual's task is expressed in terms of a bigger picture. Accomplishments of the team are emphasised and members' attention are constantly focussed on the future. Inspirational motivating leaders talk optimistically and enthusiastically about the future and what needs to be accomplished. They express confidence that goals will be achieved and provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider.

---

[4] Those values surrounding the exchange process, i.e. honesty, fairness and fulfilling commitment (Negin, 2000).
[5] The ideals by which a society or organisation should strive to live and could include justice, liberty, freedom, equality and brotherhood.

5.7.2.3.4   Idealised Influence.

> Through acting as positive examples and role models, these leaders ensure follower respect and trust. They display a sense of power and confidence, they instil pride in others for being associated with them and will go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.

In the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model it is indicated that both transactional and transformational styles should be used depending on the given situation, but that research results have proven that followers perform significantly better under conditions where a more transformational leadership approach is being followed. It also follows that where leader behaviours are more transactional, the result is a transactional culture, and *visa versa*. Such a transactional culture is characterised by rigidity in terms of rules, regulations and jobs being managed and controlled in an attempt to get performance. In a transformational culture on the other hand, people are led through example and given direction but are also allowed initiative. Creativity is encouraged, mistakes are considered as part of learning and development, and open communication generally prevail. Behaviour is guided through vision and shared values and people are encouraged to develop beyond their present jobs and abilities.

Bass (1994: 12-13) cites the following reasons why transformational leadership is particularly needed in South Africa:

- Socio-political changes since 1991 impacted on employee/ manager relations in organisations. Organisational cultures, which are in line with the new democratic socio-political environment, are required.

- The challenges faced by white and black South African leaders are different to those of the 1980's.

- For many years South African managers have been too internally focussed causing them to be out of touch with international requirements for competing in world markets.

- In a diverse South African environment, leaders being able to deal with different cultures, different political viewpoints, complex prejudices and various literacy levels will be required.

- Managers need to put the potential of racial conflict and white fears into perspective to ensure social harmony. For this, basic assumptions need to be challenged and questioned to ensure fundamental change.

- Strong transformational leadership will be needed for the fundamental changes in South Africa's education system.

5.8   ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IN THE SAAF

NOTE: The discussion in this section is based on information contained in the following internal defence documents as well as discussions and interviews with various senior Air Force officers:

- Consolidated as-is findings and input into the desired culture change of the DOD.

- Proposed integrated philosophy on leadership, command and management, and organisational culture.

- DOD Leadership Doctrine

5.8.1   CHANGE IMPERATIVES FOR A MORE TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP IN THE SAAF

5.8.1.1   Constitutional and transformational imperatives and guidelines for Department of Defence leadership (White Papers)

Like many other organisations, both locally and abroad, the DOD is also faced with the demands of a rapidly changing environment characterised by uncertainty, turbulence, complexity and unpredictability. Environmental changes for the DOD include a shift in its role due to the absence of a military threat to the country, increasingly tight budgetary constraints and the typical demands that a liberal democracy places on its military forces. This has resulted in the SANDF being increasingly confronted with and subjected to civilian values and expectations. The challenge for the DOD has clearly become one of "doing more with less". Effective transformational leadership, which could unleash the inherent competence and potential of the DOD's workforce has remained as the only workable solution to these demands.

Diminishing resources, especially in respect of defence budget cuts, have led to the demand, by both government and the general public, that allocated resources are efficiently and effectively utilised in the pursuance of the DOD's mission, goals and objectives. As a result the government has adopted a total quality approach to management, of which important guidelines have been set out in various government publications. Most requirements associated with the new approach are primarily reflected in the *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service* (1995) and the *White Paper on Defence*

(1996). These documents contain both constitutional and transformational imperatives and guidelines for DOD leadership. The most important guidelines impacting on the desired DOD organisational culture are the following:

▪ The devolution and decentralisation of managerial responsibility and accountability to ensure that effective, timeous and responsible decisions-making takes place at all levels.

▪ The introduction of new, flexible and more participative organisational structures which will concentrate less on the application of rules and more on the creative use of consultation and team work.

▪ The development of new organisational cultures way from a rule-bound culture to one which is focussed more on the achievement of tasks and the meeting of needs.

▪ Effective mobilisation, development and utilisation of human resources.

▪ Increasingly becoming a learning organisation by fully exploiting opportunities for growth, development and change, constantly re-appraising existing work practices and behaviour.

▪ Managing change and diversity, increasingly becoming rainbow workplaces, representative of the cultures and peoples of South Africa.

5.8.1.2   DOD structural and cultural changes

After the election in 1994, the DOD was one of the first state departments to initiate change by integrating the former SA Defence Force (SADF), Transkei/Bophutatswana/Venda/Ciskei (TBVC), Azanian People's Liberation Army (APLA) and Umkontho we Sizwe (MK) forces into one force, the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). This integration process brought together diverse entities with diverse value systems into one organisational entity, which necessitated the development of an appropriate and acceptable organisational culture in view of and in anticipation of comprehensive and continuous societal, political and organisational change. Moreover, international imperatives for change in public services in general, as well as a decline in budget spending on defence globally, with an increasing emphasis on peace-keeping operations, have all added to the impetus for internal change.

Since the integration of the different forces into the SANDF, little effort has been made during the first few years to identify and integrate similar values, and to focus on the development of a new organisational culture based on these values. The existing DOD organisational culture was characterised by

the following ineffective practices: insufficient communication, bureaucracy, and leader ambivalence (leaders managed rather than led and did not empower their subordinates sufficiently). Human dignity was not adequately recognised and high levels of uncertainty were reflected in morale and organisational climate. The need for a culture change process was furthermore supported by the following:

▪ A poor public image of the SANDF/DOD.

▪ A rapid decrease in standards and discipline.

▪ Inconsistency in leadership conduct (pockets of transformational leadership combined with large areas of autocratic and transactional leadership).

▪ The DOD was not in line with the government's guidelines on institution building and management.

The DOD recognised the fact that a strong organisational culture is one of the most important avenues through which transformational change could be implemented and that leadership forms the vehicle for behavioural change in this process. It has become necessary to identify a set of core values that is shared by all members and that provides common understanding and cohesion in the DOD. A new organisational culture not only had to be reflective of shared values, but also had to facilitate a transformation from a rigid, rule-bound organisation to a much more participative, value driven approach. The desired DOD culture should be driven by the following overarching principles:

▪ *Primacy of output*. It refers to the fact that the end aim, mission or result takes preference over everything else in the process. Instead of defining activities and tasks into the smallest detail, the end goal must be clearly stated and tested for comprehension. Control mechanisms need to be reduced and leadership should allow for freedom of movement and creativity in achieving the end aim in the most economical manner.

▪ *Initiative and empowerment*. It ties in with the previous principle – the limiting of control mechanisms and levels of authority , allowing for more creative delivery of stated goals. Responsibility and accountability are, however, not negated; there should therefore be a strong focus on the development of human potential.

▪ *Jointness and networking*. It refers to the ability to work across departmental or functional boundaries in order to avoid duplication and

to achieve results in the most economic manner. It relies on collective conduct and discourages the "building of empires".

- *Value-based conduct*. This implies that the behaviour of DOD personnel should be driven by agreed upon, shared and consistent values, rather than by strictly laid-down rules and regulations.

- *Continuous improvement*. The organisation should readily adapt to changing circumstances, and an ongoing examination of all processes should ensure necessary change, not for the sake of change, but for the sake of improvement in organisational performance.

Based on the above-mentioned principles, DOD leaders will have to display much more transformational characteristics and will therefore be expected to (1) create a climate that puts people first; be caring and supportive and provide opportunities for individual growth; (2) provide a future vision and direction in which the organisation is moving; (3) lead by example, be value-driven and provide motivation and inspiration; (4) communicate openly, honestly and regularly; (5) trust and empower their subordinates and delegate responsibilities to the lower levels, and (6) provide guidance and allow subordinates to learn from their mistakes. These behaviour patterns are synonymous with those identified with transformational leaders (Bass et al, 1994). In terms of the desired leadership culture and the concept of the learning organisation (see Section 5.5.3.2) DOD leaders will also be responsible for creating an environment in which the development and sharing of knowledge, skills, experience and lessons learnt is enhanced. As part of building strong, effective teams, they have to serve as role models of the principles of continuous learning as well as the core values of the DOD. These values are listed in Table 5.9.

5.8.2   THE SAAF CULTURE CHANGE PROCESS

Central to the South African Air Force's view of the future is its mandate as the provider of air power to the nation. The provision of combat ready air power is the fundamental consideration in its strategic planning process. In an effort to harmonise the SAAF's strategies and objectives with those of the DOD, the SAAF committed itself to a demanding transformation process. In reaction to, and in support of the DOD transformation process, the SAAF developed a long term outlook, referred to as *SAAF Vision 2012*, with a focus on establishing a "centre for air power excellence". This desired future state is also characterised by a new organisation culture of excellence and competence, including a set of new corporate values (see Table 5.10).

Table 5.9: <u>DOD core values</u>.

Value	Description	Some behavioural examples
Integrity	Regarded as a moral virtue. The cornerstone for building trust. It implies a oneness between words and action.	Honesty Credibility Trustworthiness Transparency
Patriotism	The love and devotion to one's country. It implies that allegiance to the country comes first.	Pride Honour Sacrifice
Loyalty	To be faithful to one's oath, mission and organisation.	Trust Faithfulness Comradeship
Human Dignity	Treating others the way you would expect to be treated.	Respect Tolerance Fairness
Military Professionalism	To exemplify those qualities, virtues and behaviour that govern the conduct of all members . It forms the heart of a military culture and implies a strive towards excellence.	Discipline Ethical conduct
Accountability	To be responsible for one's actions and decisions and the resulting consequences thereof.	Reliability Legality

(Source: Department of Defence Leadership Doctrine)

It is accepted that the SAAF will always have a unique subculture of its own. The creation of a culture of air power excellence is a crucial building block in the SAAF's endeavours to meet the objectives of *Vision 2012*. The intention is to move away from inhibiting, rule bound practices and approaches towards a value driven culture, one being characterised by participating practices, innovation, continuous improvement and the acknowledgement of the inherent competence and creative potential of all employees (Beukman, 2003).

In order to be able to effectively assess the existing culture of the SAAF, the "Organisation Culture Analysis" (Hall, 1987) was used for data collection. This instrument, in addition to providing actual culture data, also gave the added benefit of a clear picture of the future desired SAAF culture as seen by all members participating in the survey. The Organisation Culture Analysis (OCA) feedback is given in terms of those conditions that need to be in place for people to be competent – it analyses these conditions (collaboration, commitment and creativity) in terms of actual and desired situations. The OCA is based on the theory of competence (Hall, 1993), which has as its basic premise (or point of departure) the fact that people can and want to do what needs to be done provided that the correct conditions exist within the organisation. The results of the OCA are given as an indication of the extent to which the nine so-called "supporting conditions for competence" are evident and exist in the organisation. The Air Force's senior leadership acknowledges the fact that the establishment of an organisation of Air Power Excellence (the SAAF future vision) will only be possible through people, and is therefore dependent on the extent to which these conditions under which people can excel, are created in the work place. To be able to do this, it was necessary to create a clear picture of the existing conditions as well as an indication of how people throughout the SAAF would like to see them as part of the desired future organisation culture. A 10% sample of the organisation was drawn, after which the actual survey was done, including all bases/units as well as the Air Command and the Air Force Office. Just more than a 1 000 members eventually participated in the survey. This sample was representative in terms of rank, ethnic group and gender.

Although an OCA report was prepared for each base on its own, the overall SAAF results clearly show that the predominant culture of the organisation is still characterised by non-flexibility, tight procedural and regulatory control, a high resistance to change and people practices that do not encourage collaboration, commitment and creativity. Results furthermore show that there is a significant gap between the actual and desired scores. It is only through closing this gap that the organisation will move to a culture of strong enthusiasm and commitment, one that is thriving on the inherent talent, creativity and competence of its people, thus allowing the SAAF to adapt to the changes as described above, quickly and smoothly.

After studying the OCA results thoroughly and through following the proven principles of a full-scale culture change intervention, a unique change process was developed for the SAAF. The process, consisting of a series of six steps (see Figure 5.5), should not be seen as a short-term intervention, but rather as a continuous guideline for changing/aligning all the SAAF's practices, policies and procedures to eventually reflect the characteristics of the desired culture. It has far-reaching implications for leaders in all areas of business and the eventual success will predominantly be determined by Officers Commanding, Directors and their leadership teams taking full ownership and responsibility for implementing the new principles.

No value system is cast in concrete and can ever be seen as suitable and applicable forever. Values are always coupled to the organisation's vision of what it wants to achieve. As a first step in the culture change process of the SAAF, clarity on its set of core values became important. To provide a clear picture of the desired SAAF culture, a number of descriptive culture attributes were developed. These culture attributes reflect the principles on which SAAF leadership development is built (see Section 5.8.3) and are as follows:

- We believe that future excellence lies in the hands of all our people, our most precious asset.

- We value competent, credible and effective (transformational) leadership.

- We value the inherent competence of all our Air Force people.

- We value continuous learning and improvement.

- We value our SAAF uniqueness.

The new set of (four) values for the Air Force (underpinning the above-mentioned attributes) indicates what is regarded as important for employee conduct. The new SAAF values are listed in Table 5.10.

Figure 5.5: <u>SAAF culture change process</u>.
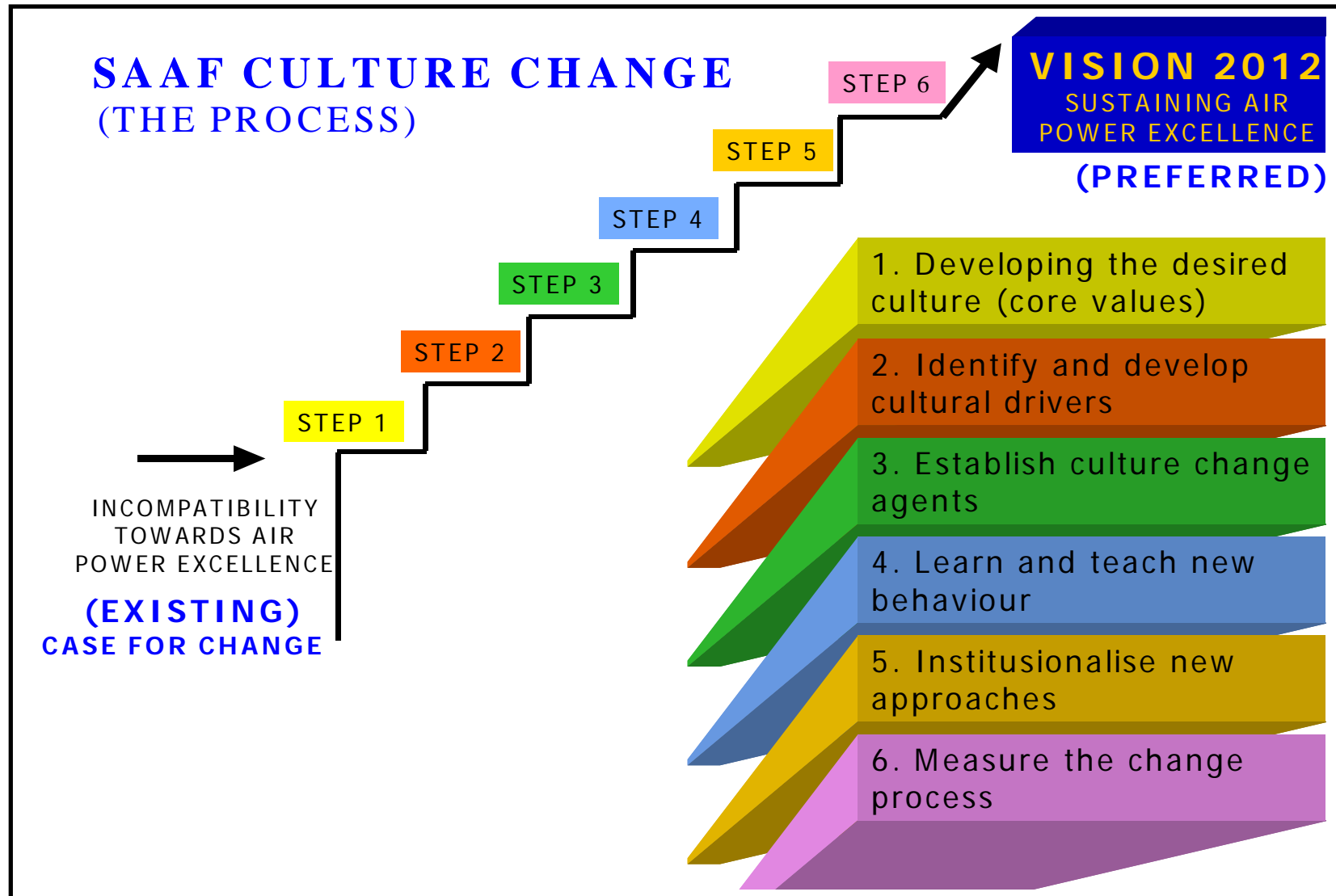
(Source: Minutes of Presentation to the SA Air Force Board, 2003)

Table 5.10: <u>SA Air Force core values</u>.

Value	Description	Associated concepts
Human dignity	Respecting the infinite dignity and worth of all individuals. Treating others the way you would expect to be treated	Respect Tolerance Fairness Consideration
Excellence in all we do	A sustained passion to continuously improve individual and organisational performance	Team excellence Leadership excellence Service excellence Military professionalism
Integrity	To be honourable and to follow ethical principles. To be faithful to convictions. To practice what you preach. It forms the cornerstone for building trust	Honesty Credibility Trustworthiness Transparency
Service before self	Professional SAAF duties take preference over personal desires	Loyalty Commitment Sacrifice Devotion Faithfulness Pride Courage Military discipline

(Source:) Minutes of Presentation to the SA Air Force Board, 2003)

5.8.3   BASIC PRINCIPLES ON WHICH THE NEW LEADERSHIP CULTURE
           OF THE SAAF IS BUILT

Leadership, and this is especially true for the military (Popper, Landau & Gluskinos, 1992: 3), is commonly recognised as the one factor which has the most profound influence on human behaviour. Therefore, it is essential that the SAAF's transformational endeavour should focus on leadership as the strongest integrating and binding force, and the main source for the development and maintenance of the new desired culture. The description of the SAAF's new organisational culture and more specifically its core values and the associated behaviours is based on a number of fundamental principles regarding human behaviour in the workplace. These principles are reflected in basic belief systems and are universal in nature. The SAAF expects the actions of all its leaders to be driven by these principles. To a large extent they underpin and summarise the underlying principles of transformational leadership (Bass et al, 1994) and the competence process (Hall, 1993). They are briefly the following:

- People want to feel good about themselves and the work they do. This means that they have a need for finding meaning in their work through deriving a sense of personal identity from doing what they do and doing it well.

- People want to be successful. They do their best when they have the experience of making a valuable contribution to the organisation. They want to enjoy a sense of control over their work. This is gained through the incorporation of their ideas and feelings into the design and procedures governing the work they do and when they feel responsible for accomplishing the organisation's objectives.

- People do their best when they are allowed to collaborate. They are willing to show extra effort when their own needs and objectives are met by achieving those of the organisation and when it is done through problem-solving processes where all contribute to and participate in generating solutions.

- People do not want to make mistakes. Mistakes should always be regarded as part of the learning process.

- People can and want to do what needs to be done… IF their leaders create the organisational conditions for them to do so. Subordinates inherently have both the willingness and potential to be empowered to do their work with competence and pride.

▪ All people have the inherent potential to be creative. The leader's role in improving performance is to eliminate the unnecessary interferences so that followers' potential can be optimally unleashed.

The above principles have one central theme in common: for leaders to influence followers to higher levels of performance, a keen sense of concern for people, their well-being and their growth and development is essential. Their leadership efforts should all be focussed on creating a culture of collaboration and commitment.

5.8.4   FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN THE SAAF

Towards the end of the bush war in Angola in the 1980's the SAAF had to go through a process of redefining its role in defence and to reposition itself for the future. This was particularly important for the ongoing motivation of employees, now suddenly finding themselves in an organisation with a new and different role definition. It was clear that in this process of transformation and renewal, leadership at all levels would have to play a critical role. At the same time The Air Force Board under the leadership of the Chief of the Air Force (CAF) realised that the Air Force as an organisation could not be excluded from the new approaches towards people development and organisational effectiveness resulting from the changes in basic assumptions as discussed earlier.

As a result of the above and the change imperatives described earlier, it was decided to launch a leadership development intervention at a macro level to develop leaders for their new role of creating the required organisational conditions where all employees could understand the new direction and where they could display a new sense of commitment, involvement and ownership. The full-range leadership development programme used, is based on the evidence of Bass et al (1990) that transformational leadership can be learned by managers at all hierarchical levels. The overriding goal of the programme is to take leaders from a beginning stage of awareness regarding own strengths and weaknesses as a leader, to a final stage of adapting and implementing new and more effective orientations towards leading others. The programme consists of 14 modules in which the first eight form a basic three-day workshop and the last six an advanced three-day workshop. It has been adapted to the constraints and opportunities of the unique SAAF organisational setting. More than 1 500 SAAF leaders have done either the basic or both workshops. This study will also report on the impact and effectiveness of this transformational leadership development in the SAAF over the past eight years.

5.9   A MOTIVATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON LEADERSHIP

Transformational leaders need to inspire and motivate ordinary followers to extraordinary levels of performance. An awareness of people's value-related preferences is a prerequisite for being able to motivate them. Individual needs determine which rewards will be valuable for an employee (Human & Hofmeyr, 1985). Value will therefore be assigned to those outcomes or rewards that will allow him to satisfy his most important needs. Schermerhorn et al (1994: 170) stress the role that basic cultural values play in motivating followers. They also warn managers (p83) not to be ethnocentric by assuming that all people will be motivated by the same things and in the same ways. They need to be careful in applying motivational theories developed in one culture to a different one. As such, for example in a high uncertainty avoidance culture, people will be strongly motivated by security where the satisfaction of social needs is more important in a society emphasising Hofstede's femininity and collectivist values.

Research attempting to find motivational differences between blacks and whites report blacks in South Africa to have a significantly lower level of need for achievement than whites (Nasser, Motsepe & Lenamile, 1979). These differences are assigned to a "collectivistic mind" and the extended family system, which kept dormant the need for achievement. Steers (1975) indicates some of the motivational implications of the relatively low achievement need amongst blacks. While employees with a high need for achievement strongly relate performance to satisfaction, employees with a low achievement need do see some satisfaction resulting from good performance, but rather from things such as affiliation and meeting with others. This dilemma is summarised by Human et al (1985): a high group dependence and relationship orientation are found amongst workers with a high need for affiliation, while companies often require greater initiative and individuality (which are seen as characteristics of the achievement need). Many blacks will not attach the same value as whites to those outcomes leading to increased independence, decision-making and authority. According to Human et al (1985) some traditional rewards may even result in a conflict for the black employee. Promotion, for example might mean that an employee is separated from his colleagues and that he might even be expected to exercise control over them.

Despite above-mentioned differences in motivational patterns, the needs of black workers start to match those of white workers as they become more industrialised and integrated into the urban environment (Human et al, 1985). This is particularly true for blacks starting to move up the organisational hierarchy. The strong positive relationship between need levels, education and degree of urbanisation is confirmed by Nattrass (1981). For those black workers with higher levels of education and sophistication management has to

attend to the same needs as for their white counterparts when providing motivational opportunities.

A large portion of the black population of the SAAF is still finding themselves at the lower levels of education and industrialisation. The need to examine the nature of work-related values in the SA Air Force is therefore further reinforced by the fact that, when developing and implementing reward systems, the organisation should recognise that what proves to be motivating people in one cultural setting may not necessarily work in another.

5.10   MEASUREMENT OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

By definition (Bass et al, 1994) the test for effective leadership is whether the leader can get followers to unleash their potential and extend performance to a level above what is expected. Followers' experience of the leader's behaviour is more important than the intention of the leader (Charlton, 1992: 105). Leaders can only lead if they have followers that follow. Leadership effectiveness therefore, is determined by the performance of followers.

The Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), as it is used in this research, reports on behaviours and attributes in terms of several leadership styles ranging from transactional to transformational and is based on the Full Range Leadership Model (Bass et al, 1994). Where prior leadership research and training concentrated on a limited range of transactional behaviours (Bass et al, 1997: 2), the MLQ was developed to expand the dimensions of leadership to include key factors such as inspirational motivation, that is typically ascribed to successful leaders. It also includes three outcomes, viz "Extra Effort", "Effectiveness" and "Satisfaction", in terms of which leadership effectiveness is reflected.

A comprehensive discussion of the MLQ will follow in Chapter 7.

5.11   SUMMARY & CONCLUSION

Leadership can probably be viewed as one of the most critical elements for ensuring organisational effectiveness. With a history of low productivity and low workforce morale, the development of South Africa into an entity of economic prosperity, political stability and social unity calls for extraordinary leadership. For long-term economic survival, transformational leaders with the abilities to go beyond the reactive quick fix, immediate gratification and traditional approaches are required. Only these leaders, with a firm commitment to enable, empower and liberate employees in South African organisations, will ensure the country's competitive advantage for the future.

This chapter provided a brief overview of both classical and recent thoughts on leadership with particular reference to contemporary demands on today's leaders. The discussion included the most important arguments for and against the development of a unique African leadership model (as opposed to the application of Western leadership theories and principles). An introduction to the SAAF as an organisation finding itself within the process of structural and cultural transformation was also provided.

The chapter reviewed the changing nature of organisations, both structurally and psychologically, as the driving force behind new leadership thinking, especially in the African context. The uniqueness of South African conditions in terms of multi-cultural diversity and complexity necessitates the search for leadership solutions beyond those having been developed in purely Western settings. No evidence could be found that these theories can merely be applied in the current South African business environment, with values, customs and beliefs being substantially different to those of Western cultures. Leaders will have to play a critical role in responding to and addressing the strong expectations of inclusion and involvement following the many years of apartheid during which a large component of the potential workforce has been alienated and excluded from the business world. Despite the unique leadership requirements for Africa, the chapter also included the arguments for the inclusion of tested and proven Western business principles and philosophies when developing a workable South African approach.

After a brief reference to the classical leadership theories, the chapter also described the organisational changes leading to new thinking patterns with regard to effective leadership. A few prominent characteristics of modern day organisations were discussed where after the new leadership demands, based on these characteristics were analysed. Organisational changes and environmental demands led to new and innovative paradigms of looking at people and the work they do. Leaders are forced to think differently about the inherent competence of people. They are also required to change their basic assumptions concerning employees' work motivation, and to realise the increasing importance of worker participation, co-operation and healthy relationships between employer and employee.

The chapter concluded with a detailed discussion of transformational leadership as part of a Full-Range Model. All the evidence point towards transformational leadership being a more effective approach than the other transactional styles. Reasons for the implementation of a more transformational approach for South Africa have also been included. Finally, organisational changes and the basic principles underlying leadership development in the SA Air Force were presented.