2. CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Despite a growing interest in and research on the role of leadership in organisational change and effectiveness, Conger, Spreitzer and Lawler (1999) argue that the knowledge of the topic, particularly the leadership of change, remains limited. They state, "We are in the Bronze Age" in terms of our insight in this area. This becomes most apparent when one realizes that after two decades of research on leadership and organisational change there is no universal set of prescriptions or step-by-step formulas that leaders can use in all situations to guide change.

Almaraz (1994) could not find empirical research that focuses on the relationship between leadership and change. From prior research on leadership, Conger, Spreitzer and Lawler (1999) argue that we have a limited understanding of the key leader actions and behaviours required for effective change. While change management depends on leadership to be enacted (Eisenbach, Watson & Pillai, 1999), these researchers argue that at the time there has been little integration of these two bodies (i.e. leadership and change management) of literature.

Notwithstanding, despite these arguments, over the past decade Scandinavian academics empirically identified a new leadership behaviour dimension, called Change- or Development-oriented leadership (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall, & Arvonen, 1991, 1994; Lindell, & Rosenquist, 1992; Skogstad, & Einarson, 1999). Perhaps their work will be a step in the direction of resolving this expressed need of integrating leadership and change management. It could also add to our

knowledge on the appropriate behaviour required by leaders in contemporary turbulent organisational environments.

In addition to the rather uncharted territory of change-oriented leadership, a few other possible related constructs were also developed in the last decade. Notably among these constructs are visioning ability, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and emotional intelligence (EI).

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) argue that despite the existence of a body of literature that stresses the importance of time orientation in organisations the relationship between leadership and time orientation remains largely unexplored. They suggest that contemporary complex and dynamic environments necessitate particular temporal skills, such as creating future schemata for predicting change. This implies a well-developed visioning ability among employees.

In the field of OCB empirical research has focused on four major categories of antecedents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). These are individual characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours. Podsakoff, et al. (2000) urge that future research needs to carefully investigate how and why leader behaviours influence OCBs.

The construct of emotional intelligence and its applications are gaining in popularity (Schutte & Malouff, 1999). The growth in interest in EI is associated with increasing organisational contextual volatility and change, and because organisational change is frequently associated with emotional conflict. In addition the extent to which EI accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. Despite much interest in relating EI to effective leadership there is little research published that has explicitly examined this relationship (George, 2000).

These variables – leadership behaviour, visioning ability, organisational citizenship behaviour and emotional intelligence – seem to be potentially important

factors in current turbulent organisational environments. Further examination of the available literature covering these constructs therefore seems warranted.

2.2. Former leadership theories.

2.2.1. Introduction

Before describing the behaviour theories of leadership it is useful to place them in their context within the evolution of leadership theories. Scientific research on leadership did not begin until the 20th century (Bass, 1981). Since then, there has been considerable research on the subject, from a variety of perspectives. Van Seters and Field (1989) reviewed the broad realm of leadership theory using an evolutionary developmental approach. This made possible the grouping of many seemingly diverse leadership theories into nine specific and ordered categories. The purpose of Van Seters and Field's (1989) work was to analyse the major areas of leadership research using the taxonomy and nomenclature of evolution, and to place each major leadership research approach in evolutionary eras. Each new era represents a higher stage of development in leadership thought processes. The major leadership eras and periods are presented in Table 2.1 along with examples of particular theories (Van Seters & Field, 1989). The purpose here is to place the early leadership behaviour theories in its proper context and not to present an elaborate description of each leadership theory. It should be recognised that the various phases and theories do overlap from a chronological point of view.

Table 2.1 Evolutionary Stages of Leadership Theory

1. **Personality Era**	**Great Man Period** Great Man Theory (Bowden, 1927; Carlyle, 1841; Galton, 1869) **Trait Period** Trait Theory (Bingham, 1927)
2. **Influence Era**	**Persuasion Period** Leader Dominance Approach (Schenk, 1928) **Power Relations Period** Five Bases of Power Approach (French, 1956; French & Raven, 1959)
3. **Behaviour Era**	**Early Behaviour Period** Reinforced Change Theory (Bass, 1960) Ohio State Studies (Fleishman, Harris & Burtt, 1955) Michigan State Studies (Likert, 1961) **Late Behaviour Period** Managerial Grid Model (Blake & Mouton, 1964) Four-Factor Theory (Bowers & Seashore, 1966) Theory X and Y (McGregor, 1960, 1966) Action Theory of Leadership (Argyris, 1976) **Operant Period** (Sims, 1977; Ashour & Johns, 1983)
4. **Situation Era**	**Environment Period** Environment Approach (Hook, 1943) Open-Systems Model (Katz & Kahn, 1978) **Social Status Period** Role Attainment Theory (Stogdill, 1959) Leader Role Theory (Homans, 1959) **Socio-technical Period** Socio-technical systems (Trist & Bamforth, 1951)
5. **Contingency Era**	Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1964, 1967) Path-Goal Theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971) Situational Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; 1977) Multiple Linkage Model (Yukl, 1971; 1989) Normative Theory (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988)

6. **Transactional Era**	**Exchange Period** Vertical Dyad Linkage/ Leader Member Exchange Theory (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975) Reciprocal Influence Approach (Greene, 1975) Emergent Leadership (Hollander, 1958) **Role Development Period** Social Exchange Theory (Hollander, 1979; Jacobs, 1970) Role-Making Model (Graen & Cashman, 1975)
7. **Anti-Leadership Era**	**Ambiguity Period** Attribution Approach (Pfeffer, 1977) **Substitute Period** Leadership Substitute Theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978)
8. **Culture Era**	McKinsey 7-S Framework (Pascale & Athos, 1981) Theory Z (Ouchi & Jaeger, 1978, Ouchi, 1981) In Search of Excellence Approach (Peters & Waterman, 1982), Organisational Culture (Schein, 1985) Self-Leadership (Manz & Sims, 1987)
9. **Transformational Era**	**Charisma Period** Charismatic Theory (House, 1977) Transformational Leadership Theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986) **Self-fulfilling Prophecy Period** Self-fulfilling Prophecy Leadership Theory (Field, 1989; Eden, 1984) Performance Beyond Expectations Approach (Bass, 1985)

Note: From "The Evolution of Leadership Theory," by D. A. Van Seters and R. H. G. Field, 1989, Journal of Organizational Change Management, 3, (3), p. 30.

2.2.2. Origins of the Leadership Theories

The Personality Era included the first formal leadership theories, and represented the origin in the understanding of the leadership process (Van Seters & Field, 1989). This era is divided into the Great Man Period and the Trait Period. In the former, researchers focused on great people in the history of the world and

suggested that a person who copied their personalities and behaviours would become a strong leader. That process was hindered, however, when it became apparent that many effective leaders had widely differing personalities (e.g. Hitler, Gandhi, and King). Furthermore, personalities are extremely difficult to imitate, thereby providing little value to practising managers.

Leadership theory was advanced only slightly in the Trait Period, when attempts were made to remove the links with specific individuals and simply to develop a number of general traits, which, if adopted, would enhance leadership potential, and performance. Failure loomed again, when empirical studies revealed no single trait or group of characteristics associated with good leadership (Jenkins, 1947). The findings provided minimal value to practising leaders since most of the identified traits cannot be learned. As a result, Van Seters and Field (1989) maintain that the theories of the personality era proved to be too simplistic and have virtually become extinct. However, House and Aditja (1997) say that one needs to appreciate the limitations associated with early investigation of the phenomena. One problem they found with early trait research was that there was little empirically substantiated personality theory to guide the search for leadership traits. Consequently, there were few replicative investigations of the same traits. Also, test-measurement theory was not well developed during the time when trait studies dominated leadership research. As a result, even when common traits were studied in two or more investigations, they were usually operationalised differently (House & Aditja, 1997). The implication of trait research is that leaders with the right qualities need to be selected, since the traits of good leaders are largely innate and hence not amenable to substantial change (Bryman, 1992).

Very little information about the psychometric properties of the trait measures was reported, thus it is possible that many of the measures had limited

the behaviour of individuals in positions of authority (House & Aditja, 1997). These descriptions were then related to various criteria of leader effectiveness. In contrast to the trait theorists most leadership behaviour researchers believed that once the behaviour that leads to effective leadership is known, leaders can be trained to exhibit that behaviour, in order to become better leaders (Bryman, 1992). Two influential groups of investigators pursued the quest for explanations of leader effectiveness in this manner. These were members of the Ohio State Leadership Centre (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), and members of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan (Kahn & Katz, 1960; Likert, 1961).

Research conducted within this paradigm became known as the behavioural school of leadership (House & Aditja, 1997). Leadership was thus defined as a subset of human behaviour (Hunt & Larson, 1977). House and Aditja (1997) maintain that one of the major empirical contributions from the behavioural school was the identification of two broad dimensions of leader behaviours. The dimensions were task-oriented and person-oriented behaviours, which were identified by repeated factor analyses conducted by the Ohio State group and interviews by the Michigan group. It should be noted that the Ohio researchers originally identified the two kinds of leader behaviour as "initiating structure" and "consideration". It was empirically determined that the two dimensions were statistically independent. In the Michigan studies, the two kinds of behaviour were seen as lying on a one-dimensional continuum with the behaviour of the leader varying between employee-centred and task-centred.

A second major contribution of the behavioural paradigm was a more refined and detailed specification of task- and person-oriented behaviours (House & Aditja, 1997). It was a major advancement in leadership theory not only because it enjoyed strong empirical support (e.g. Fleishman & Harris, 1962), but

validity (House & Aditja, 1997). As a consequence of the lack of theory and valid measuring instruments, both the traits studied and the way they were operationalised varied widely among investigators. Further, neither specific situational demands of leaders nor the degree to which the situation permitted the behavioural expression of personality inclinations were taken into account. Finally, according to House and Aditja (1997), trait studies were almost entirely based on samples of adolescents, supervisors and lower level managers, rather than individuals in significant positions of leadership, such as high-level managers and chief executives with overall responsibility for organisational performance.

According to Van Seters and Field (1989) the second era following the personality era was the **influence era**. This era improved on the personality era by recognising that leadership is a relationship between individuals and not a characteristic of the solitary leader. It addressed aspects of power and influence, and comprises the power relations period and the persuasion period. In the first, attempts were made to explain leader effectiveness in terms of the source and amount of power they commanded and how it was used. While power influence is certainly prevalent in today's leaders (Pfeffer, 1981), the dictatorial, authoritarian and controlling nature of this type of leadership is no longer considered effective (French, 1956). In the persuasion period coercion was removed, but the leader was acknowledged as the dominant factor in the leader-member dyad (Schenk, 1928).

2.2.3. Early Leadership Behaviour Theories.

Following the disenchantment with traits theories, there ensued a period of almost thirty years during which leaders were studied either by observing their behaviour in laboratory settings or by asking individuals in field settings to describe

also because it could easily be implemented by practising managers to improve their leadership effectiveness (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Some of the work done in this era has focused on typical behaviour patterns of leaders, while other work analysed differences in behaviours between poor and effective leaders (Yukl, 1989).

In general, theorists or researchers described leadership behaviour in terms of a relatively small number of styles or dimensions Wright (1996). Accordingly, there would be two to four styles and only one or two dimensions. However, different leadership theorists gave the behaviour dimensions of task- and people-orientation a wide variety of different names. For example, Bass (1990) lists twenty-nine different classifications for leadership behaviour and his list is by no means exhaustive. Despite the different names, however, the concepts were often very similar. In practice the vast majority of work in this area can be described in terms of two to four main styles (Wright, 1996).

The late behaviour period evolved from the early behaviour period theories by adapting them for managerial application. Probably the best known is the Managerial Grid-model which uses a 9 x 9 grid indicating considerative behaviour along one axis and initiating structure behaviour along the other (Blake & Mouton, 1964, 1978). This model suggests that the most effective leader will be rated 9 on both of these behavioural dimentions. Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1982) based their model on apparently the same two leadership dimensions as identified in the Ohio studies - 'task-oriented' and 'relations-oriented' behaviour. The Hersey and Blanchard model takes into consideration one situational variable, named 'maturity of subordinates'. This maturity concept includes two aspects, that is: (1) job maturity, meaning capacity, ability, education and experience relevant to the task; and (2) psychological maturity, which means motivation, self-esteem and

confidence. Hersey and Blanchard prescribe that managers should be flexible in adapting their behaviour according to the maturity of the subordinates.

2.2.4. Leadership theories after the behaviour era

The operant period (Ashour & Johns, 1983; Sims, 1977) focused on the leader as the manager of reinforcements. The appropriate leader behaviour would be the reinforcement of the desired subordinate behaviours.

The situation era made a significant step forward in advancing leadership theory by acknowledging the importance of factors beyond the behaviour of the leader and the subordinate (Van Seters & Field, 1989). Examples include the type of task, the social status of the leader and subordinates, the relative position power of the leader and subordinates, and the nature of the external environment (Bass, 1981). Those situational aspects then determine the kinds of leader traits, skills, influence and behaviours that are likely to cause effective leadership.

In the environment period, leaders were thought to emerge only by being in the right place at the right time in the right circumstances; their actions were inconsequential. Under this approach the particular person in the leadership position was irrelevant, because, if he/she were to leave, someone else would simply take his/her place (Hook, 1943).

The social status period was based on the idea that, as group members undertake specific tasks, they reinforce the expectation that each individual will continue to act in a manner congruent with his or her previous behaviour. Thus, the leader's and the subordinate's roles are defined by mutually confirmed expectations of their behaviour (Stogdill, 1959). In essence the environment period focused on the task, while the social status period stressed the social aspect in a particular situation (Van Seters & Field, 1989).

A third category is the **socio-technical period** which essentially combined the environmental and social parameters (e.g. Trist & Bamforth, 1951).

The contingency era represented a major advance in the evolution of leadership theory (Van Seters & Field, 1989). In essence, effective leadership was seen as contingent or dependent on one or more of the factors of behaviour, personality, influence and/or situation. Typically, leadership approaches of that era attempted to select the situational moderator variables that best revealed which leadership style to use. The three most noteworthy theories of that era were the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1964; 1967), the path-goal theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974) and the normative theory (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988). Fiedler's contingency theory emphasised the need to place leaders in situations most suited to them or to train the leader to change the situation to match his or her own style. House's path-goal theory addressed a different contingency. It focused less on the situation or leader behaviour, and more on the provision of enabling conditions for subordinate success (House, 1971). The normative model differed again by concentrating on which decision-making behaviour would be most appropriate, for the success of the leader (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

Van Seters & Field (1989) argue that while the contingency approaches have generated strong empirical support as well as controversy and are still heavily utilised in contemporary leadership studies, they have substantial drawbacks. They are firstly very different from one another, so much so that it is impossible to establish distinct periods within this era. Secondly, many are too cumbersome for systematic use in day-to-day managerial practice. A computer program is, for example, necessary to aid the application of the path-goal theory of Vroom and Yetton.

The transactional era of leadership suggested that leadership resided not only in the person or the situation, but also in role differentiation and social interaction (Van Seters & Field, 1989). This theory is essentially the Influence era revisited since it addresses the influence process between the leader and subordinate. However at this stage of evolutionary development the influence process has been elevated to acknowledge the reciprocal influence of the subordinate and the leader, and the development of their relative roles over time. Examples from the **exchange period** include vertical dyad linkage theory (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975), the reciprocal influence approach (Greene, 1975), and leader-member exchange theory (Dienesh & Liden, 1986). In these theories, leadership involves transactions between the leader and subordinates that affect their relationship. Also, the leader may have different types of transactions and different relationships with different subordinates.

In the role development period there still exists an element of exchange but it refers specifically to the relative roles of the leader and the subordinate (Van Seters & Field, 1989). Theories illustrative of this period are social exchange theory (Hollander, 1979; Jacobs, 1970) and the role-making model (Graen & Cashman, 1975). In these theories, the group conveys esteem and status to the leader in return for the leader's abilities in furthering goal attainment. Leadership then becomes an equitable exchange relationship, with no domination on the part of the leader or subordinate (Bass, 1981). Just as the leader acts as a role model and a creator of positive expectations, similarly the leader's behaviour can be a reaction to subordinate maturity, interpersonal skills, and competence.

During the anti-leadership era numerous empirical studies were conducted to test the various theories presented up to that point. Unfortunately the results were less than conclusive, and a sentiment arose that perhaps there was

no clear concept called leadership (Van Seters & Field, 1989). The conclusion was made that though so many variables in the leadership equation had been explained that they explained nothing at all. As the paradigm of leadership up to that time was not evaluated as being effective, there arose an era of "anti-leadership".

In the ambiguity period, it was argued that perhaps leadership is only a perceptual phenomenon in the mind of the observer (Mitchell, 1979). Pfeffer (1977) spoke of the leader primarily as a symbol, implying that actual leader performance was of little consequence.

The substitute period was a more constructive developmental phase that evolved directly out of the situational era, and attempted to identify substitutes for leadership (Van Seters & Field, 1989). Kerr and Jermier (1978) suggested that the task and the characteristics of the subordinate and the organisation could prevent leadership from affecting subordinate performance. Their work concentrated on leader substitutes and leader neutralisers in the work situation.

The culture era finally superseded the cynicism of the anti-leadership era. It was proposed that leadership is perhaps not a phenomenon of the individual, the dyad, or even the small group, but is rather omnipresent in the culture of the entire organisation (Van Seters & Field, 1989). The leadership focus changed from one of increasing the quantity of work accomplished (productivity, efficiency) to one of increasing quality (through expectations, values). This macro-view of leadership included the '7-S framework' (Pascale & Athos, 1981), the *'In Search of Excellence'* attributes (Peters & Waterman, 1982), as well as *'Theory Z'* (Ouchi, 1981; Ouchi & Jaeger, 1978). This era was a natural extension to the leader-substitute period since it suggested that, if a leader can create a strong culture in an organisation, employees will lead themselves (Manz & Sims,

1987). Once the culture is established, however, it creates the next generation of leaders. Formal leadership is needed only when the existing culture is changed and a new culture has to be created (Schein, 1985). The culture era is also seen as a descendant of the transactional era, since culture can be created by emergent leadership at lower company levels and then directed to the top levels of the organisation.

2.2.5. Transformational Leadership theories

Finally, according to Van Seters and Field (1989) the **transformational era** represents the latest phase in the evolutionary development of leadership theory. There are two periods to this era: the self-fulfilling prophecy and the charisma period (Van Seters & Field, 1989).

The self-fulfilling prophecy (SFP) period is based on recent theorising by Field (1989) on the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon. This research deals with the transformation of individual self-concepts, and improves on previous theories by considering the transformation as occurring from the leader to the subordinate just as much as from the subordinate to the leader. In other words, the SFP leader can be activated from lower or upper levels in the organisation. Furthermore, the process works not only in dyadic situations, but also in group and organisational contexts. That idea is elaborated in Van Seters and Field (1989) suggesting that the key success factor of this type of leadership is to build positive expectations. The task of leadership thus becomes one of building, monitoring and reinforcing a culture of high expectations.

During the charisma period the theory of leadership began to be coloured by the strategic importance of leadership in introducing change (Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kotter, 1990;

Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Former leadership theories with a change orientation are for example, transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership (Burns, 1978; Bass, & Avolio, 1994; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Kouzes & Posner, 1987) and visionary leadership (Sashkin & Burke, 1990; Nanus, 1992).

Briefly, according to Bryman (1992), these leadership theories indicated importance on a number of visionary leadership aspects. First, vision occupies a central position in leadership. The leader must be able to formulate a vision for the organisation that has both a qualitative and an emotional appeal to people's inner motives. Second, the leader should be able to communicate this vision to others. The leader's teaching ability, his management by symbols and his ability to be the messenger of the vision are important prerequisites. Third, the concept of empowerment plays an important part by giving people more responsibility and autonomy and making the vision a source of motivation for commitment. Fourth, the leader creates a corporate culture that is in line with the vision. This often requires an informal organisation, with formalities and bureaucracy at a minimum. Finally, the leader should have the ability to create trust and confidence. Without trust, it is more difficult to communicate the vision to co-workers.

Burns (1978) distinguished between transactional and transformational leadership, emphasizing the importance of leadership as an interactional and innovative phenomenon. Bass also distinguished between a transformational and a transactional leadership style and added a third type, namely a laissez-faire style (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994). According to the definition of transactional leadership given by Bass (1985), the leader adjusts to expected behaviour and rewards goal achievement. Contingent rewards are the hallmark of a transactional leader, with the leader rewarding people for the tasks performed as defined by the leader, or the goals the co-worker is expected to achieve. It has

similarities with the initiating structure dimension and theories of instrumental motivation (Arvonen, 1995). The rewards the manager offers are seen as instrumental incentives to get tasks done or to clearly define the kind of behaviour that will lead to an increase in direct rewards. The second part of transactional leadership is management by exception, in which the leader does not intervene until errors have occurred or the co-worker fails to follow the plan. Bass (1985) defines as a third category the laissez-faire leader who does not assume responsibility for either co-workers or work tasks.

According to Bass (1985) transformational leadership is capable of getting a person to define for himself higher than normal goals and also to improve his or her self-esteem to the extent that he will attempt to achieve a higher performance level. Transformational leaders motivate subordinates to commit themselves to performance that exceeds expectations (Bryman, 1992; Bass, 1990; Howell & Avolio, 1992). According to Bass, this occurs in three main ways. First, it is by raising the level of awareness of the objective of the organisation and how it is to be achieved. Second, it is to encourage co-workers to put the organisation's objective above their own personal interests. Finally the leader has to satisfy and stimulate people's higher-order needs (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992).

Transformational leadership consists of four basic dimensions. One is charisma, which Bass defines as providing vision and a sense of mission, instilling a sense of respect and trust (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Other components of the transformational leadership model, are inspirational leadership (communicates high expectations), individualised consideration (gives personal attention to followers and their needs, trusting and respecting them), and intellectual stimulation (providing new ideas which challenge followers).

Kouzes and Posner (1987) were also influenced by Burns's work. However, rather than having people describe great leaders and then using those descriptions to construct a questionnaire, they asked managers to write detailed memoirs of their own greatest, most positive leadership experience (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1993). These "personal best" cases were analysed to identify common threads. Only then did the researchers begin to construct questions about leadership behaviour (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Kouzes and Posner, like Bass, developed an extensive list of questions. They asked hundreds of managers to answer these questions, describing exceptional leaders they had known personally (instead of concentrating on great leaders in history, as did Bass). Kouzes and Posner examined these responses using Factor Analyses. They identified five clear factors (Sashkin & Rosenbach, 1993). Each factor is briefly described as:

- **Challenging the process:** searching for opportunities and experimenting, taking sensible risks to improve the organisation.
- **Inspiring a shared vision:** focused on what leaders actually do to construct future visions and build follower support for the vision.
- **Enabling others to act:** leaders enable followers to take action by fostering collaboration (as opposed to competition) and supporting followers in their personal development.
- **Modelling the way:** leaders set examples through their own behaviours. Leaders also help followers focus on step-by-step accomplishments of large-scale goals, making those goals seem more realistic and attainable.
- **Encouraging the heart:** leaders recognise followers' contributions and find ways to aknowledge their achievements.

The five practices of exemplary leadership identified by Kouzes and Posner are, in the view of Sashkin and Rosenbach (1993), much more specific and

behaviourally focused than the transformational leadership dimensions developed by Bass.

In addition to the Bass (1985) and Kouzes and Posner (1987) work, three other lines of research have contributed to the understanding of transformational leadership. These are the research of Bennis and Nanus (1985), the work of Tichy and DeVanna (1986), and the visionary leadership theory of Sashkin (1988). The methods used by these researchers to collect data were quite similar. They simply identified a number of leaders at large corporations and interviewed them, using a relatively unstructured open-ended question-answer format.

2.2.6. Critique on transformational leadership theory

Bryman (1992) argues that transformational leadership theories lack conceptual clarity. According to him, because the theory covers such a wide range, including creation of a vision, motivating, building trust, giving support, and acting as a social architect, to name a few, it is difficult to define clearly the parameters of transformational leadership. Furthermore, the parameters of transformational leadership often overlap with other similar conceptualisations of leadership. For example, Bryman (1992) points out that transformational and charismatic leadership are often treated synonymously even though in some models of leadership (e.g. Bass, 1985) charisma is only one component of transformational leadership.

Another difficulty with transformational leadership is that it is often interpreted too simplistically as an 'either-or' approach and not as a matter of degree. There is a tendency to fail to see transformational leadership as occurring along a continuum that incorporates several components of leadership (Bryman, 1992).

A third criticism is that transformational leadership treats leadership as a personality trait or personal predisposition rather than a behaviour in which people can be instructed (Bryman, 1992).

A fourth criticism is that transformational leadership is elitist and anti-democratic (Howell & Avolio, 1992). Transformational leaders often play a direct role in creating changes, establishing a vision, and advocating new directions.

Fifth, transformational leadership is based primarily on qualitative data collected from leaders who were very visible, serving in positions that were at the top of their organisations (Bryman, 1992). As Bryman points out, the data apply to leadership *of* organisations but not necessarily leadership *in* organisations. For example, can transformational leadership be applied equally to plant managers and chief executive officers? Can supervisors and department heads learn about leadership from a model that was constructed from interviews with senior corporate leaders? Bryman (1992) reports that Bass (1985) and his associates have begun to describe findings from quantitative studies of leaders at all levels that substantiate the assumptions of transformational leadership. However, until more data are available, the questions remain to what degeree transformational leadership applies to lower level organisational leaders.

Finally, Eisenbach, Watson and Pillai (1999) argue that research in the leadership area supports the idea that transformational leadership is better for *non-routine situations*, such as major organisational transformations, large scale re-engineering programs, mergers and acquisitions (Bass, 1985).

2.2.7. Conclusions on the evolution of leadership theory

Van Seters and Field (1989) conclude their evolutionary model by noting that previous eras of leadership theory have all suffered from eventual

disillusionment and discouragement. They propose that it is probable that the next era will add further variables that will broaden our understanding of leadership, while retaining theoretical constructs and linkages that are now well understood. Perhaps, according to them, in future years it will be called the 'Integrative Era', with theories explaining leadership and organisational structural factors, complex technologies, fast-paced change, multiple decision arenas, widely dispersed players, multicultural contexts and extensive political activity. Van Seters and Field (1989) assert that what is required is a conceptual integrating framework which ties the different approaches together, and makes possible the development of a comprehensive, sustaining theory of leadership.

2.3. Three-dimensional Leadership Behaviour

2.3.1. Introduction

Recently Scandinavian researchers have identified a new leadership behaviour dimension in their research, called Change- or Development-centered leadership (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, 1994; Lindell & Rosenquist, 1992; Skogstad & Einarson, 1999). A discussion of the origin of the change-centered leadership behaviour dimensions (the CPE model), follows.

2.3.2. Origin of the Change-centred leadership behaviour dimension

The identification of a third leadership behaviour dimension in addition to the two traditional dimensions originated when Ekvall (1991) questioned the possibility of the existence of an additional leadership behaviour dimension, as the conditions of working life unmistakably change over time.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) argued that in the 1980s the rate of technological development was significantly higher than it was in the 1940s and 1950s, when the major research programs of Michigan State University and Ohio

State University produced the classical leadership dimensions. Fufthermore, it is argued that international competition is currently much greater resulting in the competitive status of companies needing to change suddenly and dramatically. The values held by large groups of the population are also more likely to change rapidly and noticeably due to the influence of international media and the generally higher level of education (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). Change has therefore become a common phenomenon in organisations (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) argue that business leaders started to spend more time scanning the world around them, hoping to catch the winds of change in good time. The presence in the organisation of a leadership alert to change and open to new ideas, will affect leader behaviour patterns throughout the institution. The continual state of change affects all parts of the organisation, and all levels in the hierarchy. Types of leader behaviour that have not previously been relevant therefore evolve to meet the demands of the new situation. These behaviours create leadership styles that were not necessary earlier (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

Given these changing conditions, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) hypothesised the existence of a leadership style adapted to creating and supporting renewal. A Factor Analysis supported this hypothesis. This study by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) was the by-product of an organisational analysis made in four independent divisions of a medium-sized Swedish company in the chemical industry. The analyses were based on qualitative data (interviews, direct observations and a survey of documents) and on quantitative measures such as rating scales (Ekvall, 1991). A total of 130 people, which included all the supervisors and white-collar

workers in the four divisions, excluding divisional managers, answered four different questionnaires (Ekvall, 1991):

- A climate scale, consisting of about 70 questions about the emotional atmosphere in the department to which the respondent belonged.
- Leadership descriptions, consisting of about 50 statements on leadership behaviour.
- A structure scale consisting of 40 questions about formal aspects of the organisation in the department: degree of centralisation, bureaucracy complexity, planning and so on.
- A satisfaction questionnaire containing three items: satisfaction with the job, with the boss and with co-workers.

The Factor Analysis was based on an extract of 38 questions from the above questionnaires (Ekvall, 1991).

Ekvall (1991) points out that as a basis for a Factor Analysis their material suffered various shortcomings, as it was not collected for that purpose. Firtsly, the number of observations was too low (N=130) in relation to the number of variables (38). Secondly, there were several variable interdependencies, since several people evaluated each department and each department manager, and all these evaluations are included in the analysis. It was thus an analysis at the level of the individual, whereas the results are interpreted in organisational terms (Ekvall, 1991).

Nonetheless, the Factor Analysis produced three strong factors which are consistent and accessible to interpretation (Ekvall, 1991). These factors are described in the order in which they occurred in the analysis.

The first factor reflected a situation in which the manager's behaviour gives his subordinates a sense of security: he is consistent, cautious and conflict

moderating. He encourages co-operation, does not seem superior but lets his employees assume responsibility and participate in decisions. As a result the climate is open, trustful and free of conflict. Thus Ekval and Arvnon (1991) seemed to have reproduced the traditional leadership dimension: employee-centred, or consideration or human relations leadership behaviour.

For the second factor the picture emerged of a manager who creates visions, accepts new ideas and is prepared to take risks and encourages co-operation (Ekvall, 1991). He is not rigid about sticking to plans but can accept changes. The climate is described as dynamic and energetic, humorous, full of ideas and debate, a climate in which commitment and motivation are strong. The work organisation is flexible and temporary rearrangements are made when necessary. Managers clearly exhibiting this leadership style are not necessarily consistent, prone to organise or to inspire a sense of security. Some of them are, others are not. In certain cases the climate is open and free of conflict, in others it was closed. The work organisation may allow for a clear indication of demands and responsibilities and provide clear information about results, but then again, it may differ (Ekvall, 1991). Thus Ekval and Arvnon (1991) called this factor the Change-oriented leader behaviour dimension.

The third factor accords exactly with the "initiating structure" of the Ohio State University research programme (Ekvall, 1991). This factor describes a manager who imposes order and method (i.e. structure), who is consistent and demands that action should stick to the plans. The work organisation provides for clear demands and responsibilities. Information is supplied about general decisions and about results. Thus Ekval and Arvnon (1991) called this factor the production-oriented leader behaviour dimension.

Ekvall (1991) did not provide any statistical information about the first obtained set of factors. However, in subsequent studies in Sweden (N = 346), Finland (N = 229) and the USA (N = 123), Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) reported the alpha coefficients (in brackets) of the three behaviour dimension structures: factor 1, change-centred, (0.94), factor 2, employee-centred, (0.93), factor 3, production-centred, (0.93). In this revised study Ekval and Arvonen (1991) constructed a questionnaire which contained 36 items, intended to tap the three domains of consideration, structure and change. Some items were taken from the scale they used in the earlier study (Ekval, 1991), others were developed with the three concepts in mind. The 36 items describe manager's leadership behaviour.

2.3.3. Proceeding research on Three-dimentional Leadership Behaviour

2.3.3.1. Factor Analyses

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) provide research results on the three leadership styles studied in a range of countries, industry types and organisation levels. They found unequivocal evidence for a three-factor model of leadership behaviour, incorporating the well-known task-oriented and people-oriented factors, as well as the change-oriented factor.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) included 3,857 supervisors and managers in their study. They utilised staff training institutes in different countries to help them with collection of the data. Each participant had to rate his or her immediate supervisor or manager. The rated managers thus are the research subjects, each rated by one subordinate, the person taking part in the training program of the institute. The rated supervisors and managers came from 13 countries, from low, medium and high ranks, from different branches, from different functions and from private owned, public owned and corporate organisations. The biographic

variables shared acceptable age and educational ranges. Females were however highly under-represented, forming only about ten per cent of the respondents.

The Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) three-dimensional leadership behaviour questionnaire was Factor Analysed for this sample in order to confirm the factor structure from their earlier studies on 698 leaders in three countries. Three factors with eigen-values >1.0 emerged in this renewed and enlarged analysis. The three factors explain 97 percent of the total variance. The first factor was identified as the employee/relations factor, the second as the change/development factor and the third as the production/task/structure factor (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994). The three factors, their selected items (with their factor loadings in brackets) are:

Employee/Relations factor: Cronbach Alpha = 0.75

- Shows regard for the subordinates as individuals (0.73)
- Is considerate (0.62).
- Allows his/her subordinates to decide (0.55).
- Relies on his/her subordinates (0.53).
- Is friendly, (0.52)

Change/Development factor: Cronbach Alpha = 0.85

- Offers ideas about new and different ways of doing things (0.71)
- Pushes for growth (0.69)
- Initiates new projects (0.67)
- Experiments with new ways of doing things (0.65)
- Gives thought and plans about the future (0.56)

Production/ Task/ Structure factor: Cronbach Alpha = 0.76

- Plans carefully (0.69)
- Is very exact about plans being followed (0.63)

- Gives clear instructions (0.61)
- Is controlling in his/her supervision of the work (0.57)
- Makes a point of following rules and principles (0.56)

In a subsequent study by Arvonen (1995) a questionnaire was distributed to 1,020 employees in two production plants in a Swedish forest company. The response rate was 77 percent. The instrument used was a slightly modified version of the CPE scale (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, 1994). Arvonen (1995) reports that the dimensions of structure and relations-orientation found here were almost identical with the CPE model. The dimension of change-orientation in this case had a propensity towards change, the future and visions. The scale had 40 questions, with Likert type responses between 0 - 4. Using Varimax rotation on the response data, three factors were found. The criterion for choosing the three factors was an eigenvalue > 1.0. The items with the highest loadings in each respective factor were selected and three constructs identified: employee-orientation, change-orientation and production-orientation. Cronbach's Alpha for each index was, respectively, 0.88, 0.91 and 0.85. The three sub-scales therefore had high internal consistency as well as retest reliability.

Applying Ekvall and Arvonen's (1991) scale, Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) present results from four organisations (N =1201): (1) A municipal institution providing social and health care services for the elderly in the community; (2) an editorial department of a private newspaper company; (3) a national engineering and servising workshop which maintains vehicles and equipment for the Norwegian navy; and (4) an off-shore industrial plant.

Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) applied Principal Component Factor Analysis and reliability tests (Cronbach's alpha) to scrutinise the leadership dimensions. Varimax rotation was employed in the Factor Analyses since this was the procedure used by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) in the original study. Skogstad and Einarsen's (1999) selection criteria for items to be included in sub-scales reflecting leadership styles were coefficients exceeding 0.50 on the corresponding factor, and coefficients lower than 0.50 on the two remaining factors (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

An Exploratory Factor Analysis of the scale including the total sample employing a Principal Components Analysis with Varimax rotation and eigenvalues > 1.0, yielded a three-factor solution which accounted for 63.4% of the total variance. The three rotated factors respectively accounted for 57.1, 3.5 and 2.8% of the total variance.

Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) conducted separate factor analyses (factors = 3, Principal Components Analysis) in each of the sub-samples. The three-factor solution accounted for 52% of the total variance in the responses of respondents of the off-shore industrial plant, compared to 59% in the health care services, and 50% in the editorial department and the naval workshop (Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999).

The separate Factor Analyses showed that the sub-sample from the offshore industrial plant yielded the highest number (7) items exceeding the 0.50 criterion on the factor representing change orientation, followed by the health care services sub-sample (6 items), the editorial department sub-sample (5 items), while in the naval workshop sub-sample only four items complied with the criterion.

Skogstad and Einarsen's (1999) adjusted measure for each dimension of the scale was based on the following item inclusion criteria: 5 items per sub-scale,

factor loadings > 0.50 in at least three or all sub-samples. To be accepted an item also had to correspond with one of the 5 items with the highest loadings in the studies by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991, 1994) and Arvonen (1995).

Based on their inclusion criteria the adjusted measure of change-centred leadership yielded high Cronbach alpha coefficients both in the total sample (0.88) and in the sub-samples (Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999). The sample of the offshore industrial plant yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85. In the other sub-samples' Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged from 0.81 to 0.88.

The adjusted measure of the employee-centred dimension yielded high reliability coefficients both in the total sample (0.88) and in the sub-samples (Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.78 to 0.88).

The Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) adjusted measure of production-centred leadership also yielded high reliability coefficients both in the total sample (Cronbach's alpha = 0.87) and in the sub-samples (Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between 0.79 and 0.84).

Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) concluded that the Factor Analysis performed in their study yielded support for the existence of a change-centered leadership dimension by giving substantial support for a three-factor CPE model.

2.3.3.2. Leadership Behaviour Clusters

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) postulated that it might be possible to incorporate various leadership theories, and many others, in their CPE model. Their postulate is influenced by the early works of Blake and Mouton (1964) and Hersey and Blanchard's (1969, 1982) contingency theory. They argue that it may be possible to incorporate many leadership theories in the CPE model through the formation of leadership behaviour clusters. Leadership behaviour clusters are

combinations or blends of the three CPE behaviour dimensions. Through the clustering of leadership behaviour the CPE model may introduce the integrative era of leadership theory Van Seters and Field (1989) hypothesised.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) state that one of the central controversies in leadership style theory concerns the generality of leadership behaviour effects versus situational contingency of leadership behaviour. The most salient advocates of the generality of leadership behaviour effects were Blake and Mouton (1964) with their Managerial Grid model. Their model is based on the 'classical' two behaviour dimensions, concern-for-production and concern-for-people - with nine points on each scale of the grid. Combinations of the nine points along each grid axis essentially represent leadership behaviour clusters. For example, a 1,1 combination is called the Laissez-faire leader (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Opponents to the generality view were especially Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1982) who argued for the situational contingency of leadership behaviour.

Andersen (1993) points out that there are arguments for the situation as totally unimportant for the relationship between leadership behaviour style and effectiveness, and arguments to include the situation in order to comprehend the influence of leadership behaviour upon effectiveness. His conclusion is that one should consider the possibility of a reasonable compromise between these two opposing viewpoints: that the situation plays a minor but not unimportant role. Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) took Andersen's (1993) hypothesis into account in the analysis of their leadership behaviour Cluster Analyis.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) postulate that the personal behavioural style of a leader is a 'blend' of the three leadership behaviour dimensions. 'Blending' refers to integration as opposed to addition (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994). As several authors (Blake & Mouton, 1982) have emphasised, the leadership style is more

like a 'chemical' compound of the different behaviour dimensions than a 'mathematical' summation (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994). For that reason Blake and Mouton (1982) designate different styles, based on 'concern-for-production' and 'concern-for-people', as 5,4 or 1,3 and not as 5+4 or 1+3. Task-oriented, structuring leader behaviour, for example, has different qualities when in connection with strong employee and relations-centred behaviour than with low degrees of such behaviour. In a high-high style (designated as 9,9 on the grid) the employee-orientation represents structured behaviour with a democratic and considerate content (Blake & Mouton, 1982). In the high-low style the structured leader behaviour becomes autocratic and domineering.

The leader could thus be described with a behaviour style profile (or cluster of behaviours), marking his position on the three different leadership style dimensions (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994). Each such behavioural style profile should be looked upon as a special 'blend', or integration, of the dimensions. The same position in one dimension would have different meanings and effects depending on the leaders' positions on the other two dimensions.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) acknowledge that the individual leader's behavioural style is unique, but when described in such broad dimensions as leadership style theory it is reasonable to assume that groups of leaders with similar profiles exist. They applied the Fastclus Cluster Analysis Technique (SAS Institute, 1989) to identify such leadership style profiles.

Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) decided on a ten-cluster structure, which depicted profiles that can be related to psychological as well as leadership theories.

The 10 profiles, corresponding to the clusters, are presented in Table 2.2. The signs (+ or -) are based on the mean values of each cluster in the leadership

indices and related to the means and standard deviations of the total group of 3,857 leaders in the following way:

++ More than 1 SD above the mean
+ Between 1/2 and 1 SD above the mean
+ - Up to 1/2 SD above or below the mean
- Between 1/2 and 1 SD below the mean
- - More than 1 SD below the mean

Table 2.2 Cluster profiles expressed as the cluster means' deviations from the total sample means

CLUSTER PROFILE	Profile Designation	N	Employee/ Relations	Change/ Development	Production/ Task/ Structure
1	Transactional Leader	250	--	+	+-
2	Idea Squirt	144	+	--	--
3	Invisible Leader	487	--	--	--
4	Domineering Entrepreneur	88	++	++	--
5	Middle-of-the road leader	840	+-	+-	+-
6	MBO leader	548	+-	+	+
7	Super leader	606	++	++	+
8	Gardener	280	++	-	++
9	Autocrat	161	--	+	--
10	Nice Guy	434	-	--	+

Note: From "Leadership profiles, situation and effectiveness," by G. Ekvall, and J. Arvonen, 1994, Creativity and Innovation Management, 3, (3), p. 151.

The following ten interpretations of the clusters as leadership behaviour profiles and their relevance to other leadership constructs were done by Ekvall and Arvonen (1994).

- **Profile 1** the **transactional leader** - depicts a leader who is task-oriented, structured and about average in employee-orientation. Such a leader is weak in change- and development-orientation. This seems to be similar to the type of leader Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) described as the **'transactional leader'**. Such a leader concentrates on running the business as it is, not changing it, and in so doing structures the tasks and roles, explaining to the subordinates what they have to do and what rewards they can expect when coming up to the requirements.

- **Profile 2 represents the idea-persons,** those leaders who have many ideas but who are unable to structure and actualise them and who do not listen to other peoples' ideas and views. Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) named them **idea squirts.**
- **Profile 3** is the picture of the vague and, in a figurative sense, invisible leader, named the **laissez-faire leader**. This is a non-leader in a leadership position.
- **Profile 4** portrays the style of the domineering, **entrepreneurial leader**, who is running change projects with vigour, fixed purposes and low consideration for subordinates and colleagues. This is a type of leader who activates change and development processes in companies, or starts new companies, but at the same time creates turbulence and conflicts. The domineering entrepreneur is a relatively rare figure, only 2 percent of the Ekvall and Arvonen (1994) sample belonged to this cluster.
- **Profile 5** depicts the **middle-of-the-road leader**, who practices all three behaviour types to some degree but has no conspicuous qualities, positive or negative, as a leader. This individual is seen as an average leader. The middle of the road leader is a leader without a distinctive profile and is average in all three leadership dimensions.
- **Profile 6** depicts the **'Management-by-Objectives' (MBO) leader**. Such leaders are structured and task-oriented. They motivate their subordinates by co-operating with them in the goal-setting processes. The goals are not only about the day to day operations but also refer to changes in operations. In that respect these leaders differ from the transactional leaders whose structured and motivation induced leadership behaviours are exclusively aimed at the present. It is a rational leadership style aspired to safe, smooth operations and small, stepwise predictable development. Goals are made clear and explained to subordinates concerning both the running of work and the conservative developments required.
- **Profile 7** represents the **super leaders, or the complete leaders**, who display all three behaviour styles to considerable degrees. The super leader is on the same high level concerning change/development and production/task/structure as the domineering entrepreneur of cluster 4 but there is a decisive difference in the employee/relations dimension, which gives an advanced quality to this profile. The super leader enacts the change and development-oriented role strongly while planning and structuring the processes through co-operative and

considerate means. The **'change masters'** described by Kanter (1983) might belong to this leadership style.

- **Profile 8.** The leader with this profile is named the **'Gardener' type.** This leader creates a climate where the subordinates' creativity can grow. It is a leadership geared to development, both of people and of products and processes. The lower level of structure is favourable to such strivings, but it does come into conflict with bureaucratic values and with short time-perspective, profit strategies. **'Transformational leaders'** (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985) might also fit this profile. The gardener type of leader shares strong change/development orientation with both the domineering entrepreneur and the super leader. The gardener type of leader initiates and runs radical and risky change projects as the domineering entrepreneur does, but he does this by releasing the creativity of the subordinates much more than the latter does. The gardener's deviation from the super leader refers to the low level of structure-orientation. To have the subordinates working on creative change endeavours he must grant them freedom. The super leader on the other hand is much more structured and driving, which restricts his change strivings to more cautious projects.
- **Profile 9** is a portrait of the **autocratic leader** who is directing, controlling and conservative and who shows little consideration for subordinates.
- **Profile 10** shows the **'nice guy' type of leader**. It is a leader whose strong need of being popular makes him indulgent to such a degree that his potential to lead and to structure is diminished. Supervisors and managers with this profile are in reality non-leaders similar to the **'invisible leaders'** or **'laissez-faire'** type (profile 3)

Arvonen (1995) also did a cluster analysis on his sample (N =781) to identify different leadership styles. He applied the Fastclus procedure for disjoint clusters (SAS Institute, 1989). Clusters were chosen where the managers respectively have high and low values in all dimensions and clusters were also chosen where managers have high values in one dimension and low in others. Another criterion applied to ensure a meaningful cluster was that profiles should represent established concepts about leadership.

The resulting cluster structure was found to be in line with profiles that emerged in Ekvall and Arvonen's (1994) study. Arvonen (1995) argues that this indicates that there is stability in the cluster solution, by obtaining similar clusters from separate, independently gathered samples. Arvonen (1995) concurs that the strength of the cluster analysis is that it groups people in homogenous groups. Its weakness is however, that it is difficult to make an objective decision regarding the number of clusters and seperate cluster definitions relative from one body of material to another. On the other hand, the cluster technique provides the opportunity for better links with theory because the analyses are based on the individuals and not the variables (Arvonen, 1995).

Each observation was placed in a group of fairly similar combinations of leadership styles by means of Cluster Analysis. Arvonen (1995) produced seven clusters, selected by applying the criterion of obtaining a number of meaningful groups with connections to theoretical definitions of leadership. These different groups are set out in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 **Clusters of leadership profiles, mean values (scale 0 - 4), number and percentage**

Cluster	Profile	Leadership style variable				
		Change Oriented	Relations Oriented	Structure Oriented		
		M	M	M	n	%
1	Humanist	1.40	3.12	1.82	73	9.8
2	Complete	2.84	3.26	3.00	345	46.0
3	Creative	3.37	1.56	1.55	21	2.8
4	Laissez-faire	1.64	1.9	1.60	158	21.0
5	Entrepreneur	3.15	1.98	2.73	30	4.0
6	Transformative	3.24	3.06	1.81	81	10.8
7	Bureaucrat	1.47	1.54	3.01	40	5.3
Total		2.44	2.35	2.22	748	100.0

Note: From "Leadership Behaviour and Coworker Health – A study in Process Industry," (p. 18) by J. Arvonen, 1995, Stockholm, Sweden: Department of Psychology, Stockholm University.

- Cluster 1 is a purely relations-oriented group, and describes a manager with **humanistic** features.
- Cluster 2 describes a leadership profile that consists of high values in all dimensions, a **complete manager.**
- Cluster 3 depicts a change-oriented manager, lacking other management features, called a **creative manager**.
- Cluster 4 contains relatively low values on all the behaviour variables and is designated the **laissez-faire** manager.
- Cluster 5 is change and structure oriented but does not focus on relations, called an **entrepreneur.**
- Cluster 6 describes a type of manager high in terms of change-orientation, relatively high in relations and lower in structure, representing the

transformational leader (Zaleznik, 1977; Burns, 1979; Bass, 1985; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986).

- In cluster 7 characterises the **bureaucrat** who controls through structure.

2.3.4. Shortcomings in current knowledge of the CPE construct

The Scandinavian researchers (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, 1994; Lindell & Rosenquist, 1992; Skogstad & Einarson, 1999) have established the available knowledge on the three-dimensional leadership behaviour construct. With the exception of one sample obtained from the USA (Ekvall, 1991) their work was conducted primarily on samples obtained in the Scandinavian countries. It is not known whether the CPE model can be replicated in another cultural setting such as South Africa. More specifically, it is important to establish whether the change-oriented dimension also exists in other cultural settings with perhaps different environmental influences than those prevailing in northern Europe. As far as could be established cross-validation of the CPE scale has not been done.

In addition, the relationships between the CPE dimensions and other variables have not been studied. Important constructs in organisational development such as emotional intelligence, organisational citizenship behaviour and visioning ability have not been related to leadership behaviour styles as far as could be established. Knowledge about relationships between the CPE leadership behaviour construct with e.g. emotional intelligence of leaders, as well as visioning ability and OCB of subordinates, could lead to some implications for management and enhance our understanding of these relationships.

2.4. Visioning Ability.

2.4.1. Introduction

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) argue that despite the existence of a body of literature that stresses the importance of time orientation in organisations, the relationship between leadership and time orientation remains largely unexplored.

An examination of the management literature reveals the importance of the past, the present, and the future in terms of the leader's time orientation. Thoms and Greenberger (1995) maintain that many of the leadership theories of the past 80 years follow in the path of Taylor's (1911) work that emphasise the measurement and consideration of the past in order to control the present. Subsequent leadership theories and models focus on such leadership roles and tasks requiring the ability to communicate, solve problems, disseminate information, direct the activities of others, and monitor individual and organisational performance (Mintzberg, 1973). Some of these models point to the importance of an ongoing review of the past to deal more effectively with the present. Others denote the importance of the leaders' role in day-to-day activities of the organisation. Thoms and Greenberger (1995) state that interest has focused on the need for leaders to "envision" the future. They emphasise that effective leaders must be able to focus on the past, the present, and the future.

2.4.2. The role of time and visioning ability in leadership theory.

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) suggest that time is treated explicitly in some leadership theories, such as a moderating factor. However, the majority of researchers view the role of time in leadership as an implicit factor. Further, in both explicit and implicit treatments, the orientation to time - past, present and future is different for different leadership theories. Thoms and Greenberger (1995)

indicate that all three phases in time should be accommodated in leadership theories. Table 2.4 illustrates Thoms and Greenberger's (1995) view of the relationship between major leadership theories and the time orientation of past, present, and future.

Table 2.4 Leadership theories and time outlook

Leadership Theory	Past	Present	Future
Sources of Power (French & Raven, 1959)	x	x	
Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975)	x	x	
Managerial roles: figurehead, leader, liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesman, disturbance handler, resource allocator, negotiator roles (Mintzberg, 1973)		x	
Managerial roles: Entrepreneur role (Mintzberg, 1973)			x
Ohio State Leadership Studies Consideration and Initiation of Structure (Stogdill, 1974)		x	
Michigan Leadership Studies Participative Leadership (Likert, 1967)		x	
Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971)		x	x
Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969)	x	x	
Leadership Substitutes Theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978)		x	
Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model (Vroom & Jago, 1988)		x	
Integrating Taxonomy of Managerial Behaviours (Yukl, 1989)		x	
LPC Contingency Model (Fiedler, 1967)	x	x	
Attributional Theory (Calder, 1977)	x		
Charismatic Leadership Theory (House, 1977)	x	x	x
Transformational Leadership (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985)	x	x	x

Note: From "The Relationship between Leadership and Time Orientation", by P. Thoms & D.B. Greenberger, 1995, Journal of Management Enquiry, 4, (3), p. 272.

A past-time disposition suggests that the leader's prior experiences and relationships with followers influence and shape the leader's current behaviour. A present-time disposition means that the leader reacts and responds to situations

as they currently occur. In this case expected outcomes are short term (i.e., relatively in the present) rather than long term. A future-time perspective reflects a leader's behaviour having a direct, purposeful bearing on the future.

There are a variety of present-oriented theories. All but one of the roles of managers (entrepreneur) described by Mintzberg (1973) relates to present responsibilities and monitoring of past performance. Implicit in these roles is the idea that successfully filling them will lead to a positive future. Both the Ohio State (Stogdill, 1974) and Michigan State University (Likert, 1967) leadership studies discuss the importance of present time orientation for effective leaders. Consideration, initiating structure, and use of participative styles in the present time orientation may result in positive outcomes, but the focus is relatively short term and primarily on present performances (Thoms & Greenberger, 1995).

Situational theories (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Vroom & Jago, 1988) are similar in focus; indicating that careful analyses of previous and present situations, can lead to appropriate leader behaviour. Leaders are encouraged to evaluate the past performance and behaviour of subordinates, as well as the current needs in order to establish future approaches.

Some of the leadership theories in Table 2.4 are more future-orientated. Path-goal theory is both present-oriented and future-oriented (Thoms & Greenberger, 1995). Charismatic (House, 1977) and transformational (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) leadership theories focus on the present as well as the future, suggesting the success of a future orientation. Thoms and Greenberger (1995) argue that because most people have difficulty to form a vision of the future, they expect leaders to help them if they want subordinates to direct their behaviour toward the future. Thoms (2000) argue that successful leaders have the innate ability not only to create a vision, but to inspire others to follow their vision.

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) are of the opinion that most leadership theories lack a future time orientation. Strategic planning would for instance require strong visioning abilities. This should be used in relation to a day-to-day present orientation and past orientations of performance reviews and problem solving. Different situations would call for different temporal skills. They suggest that contemporary complex and dynamic environments necessitate particular temporal skills, such as creating future schemes and predictions, involving a visioning ability which is well developed. Leaders capable of visioning and articulating schemata seem to be especially effective in organisations with rapidly changing environments.

2.4.3. Shortcomings in current knowledge on visioning ability

Thoms and Blasko's (1999) research has provided support for the validity of the visioning ability scale (refer to chapter 3), intended to assess an individual's ability to create a positive cognitive image of an organisation in the future.

An obvious shortcoming in current knowledge is that being such a new construct, relationships of visioning ability with other organisational behaviour constructs, such as leadership behaviour, have not been tested empirically. Referring to Table 2.4 – leadership theories and time outlook - this author argues that the CPE leadership behaviour model would most probably fit in all three temporal categories, of past, present and future, with a strong inclination towards a future time perspective.

2.5. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

2.5.1. Introduction

There seems to be no consensus on a general definition of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) indicate that

commonalties of OCB include behaviours which are extra-role, entirely voluntary, constructive, not formally assigned, non-compensated, but desired by the organisation. Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) found many terms have been used to describe organisational citizenship behaviour, including prosocial organisational behaviour, extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne & Cummings, 1990), organisational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992) and counter-role behaviour (Staw & Boettger, 1990). Bateman and Organ (1983) state that these behaviours contribute to effective functioning of the organisation.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) identified four major antecedents of OCB: individual (or employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours. Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that the transformational leadership behaviours had significant and consistent positive relationships with OCB dimensions. The present study focuses on the three-dimensional CPE leadership behaviour construct as a possible antecedent of OCB among subordinates.

2.5.2. Types of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Podsakoff et al. (2000) found in their review of the OCB literature that there is a lack of consensus about the dimensionality of the construct. They identified almost 30 potentially different forms of OCB, indicating construct redundancy. The different forms of OCB are classified into seven common themes or dimensions: (1) Helping behaviour, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organisational loyalty, (4) Organisational compliance, (5) Individual initiative, (6) Civic virtue, and (7) Self-development (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- Conceptually, ***helping behaviour*** involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work related problems. The first part of this

definition (helping others with work-related problems) includes altruism, peacemaking and cheerleading dimensions (Organ, 1988, 1990); interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989); interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996); and the helping others elements, identified by George and Brief (1992) and by George and Jones (1997). The second part of the definition captures Organ's (1988, 1990) notion of courtesy, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for co-workers.

- Organ (1990, p.96) defines ***Sportsmanship*** as a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining. Podsakoff et al. (2000) see sportsmanship as behaviour where people do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, and maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way. They are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group, and do not take the rejection of their ideas personally.
- ***Organisational loyalty*** consists of loyalty boosting behaviours (Graham, 1989, 1991), spreading goodwill and protecting the organisation (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997) endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997). Podsakoff et al. (2000) claim that organisational loyalty entails promoting the organisation to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it, even under adverse conditions.
- ***Organisational compliance*** has been called generalised compliance (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983); organisational obedience (Graham, 1991); following organisational rules and procedures (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993); and

containing aspects of the job dedication concept (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). This dimension indicates a person's internalisation and acceptance of the organisation's rules, regulations and procedures, resulting in a scrupulous adherence, even when not observed or monitored for compliance (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- ***Individual initiative*** refers to engaging in task-related behaviours at a level that is far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels with a voluntary flavour (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Such behaviours include voluntary acts of creativity and innovation to improve one's task or the organisation's performance. It further includes persistence with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one's job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organisation to do the same. All of these behaviours have in common that the employee is acting "above and beyond" the call of duty. This dimension is similar to conscientiousness (Organ, 1988); personal industry and individual initiative (Graham, 1989; Moorman & Blakely, 1995); making constructive suggestions (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997); persisting with enthusiasm and volunteering to carry out task activities (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997); taking charge at work (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) as well as some aspects of the job dedication concept (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).
- ***Civic virtue*** represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organisation as a whole. This is shown by a willingness to participate actively in organisation governance (e.g., attend meetings, engage in policy debates, express one's opinion about what strategy the organisation ought to follow, etc.). Civic virtue also encompass monitoring the environment for threats and opportunities and to look out for the organisation's best interests, even at

great personal cost (Podsakoff et al., 2000). These behaviours reflect a person's recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which it entails. This dimension has also been referred to as organisational participation (Graham, 1989) and protecting the organisation (George & Brief, 1992).

- The dimension of ***Self-development*** includes voluntary behaviour of employees to improve knowledge, skills, and abilities. According to George and Brief (1992, p.155) this might include seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organisation.

2.5.3. Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

According to Podsakoff et al. (2000) empirical research has focused on four major antecedents: individual (or employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours. Podsakoff et al. (2000) reports the meta-analytic results on relationships between OCBs and their antecedents. The mean correlations were corrected for sampling error and measurement reliability, along with the number of studies and the total sample size on which each study was based. The number of studies on which Podsakoff et al. (2000) based the correlations ranged from 2 to 28 and the sample size ranged from 502 to 6,746, with an average size of 2,040.

The leadership behaviour antecedents investigated were divided into different categories by Podsakoff et al. (2000) (refer to Table 2.5):

- Transformational leadership behaviours (articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation);
- Transactional leadership behaviours (contingent reward behaviour, contingent punishment behaviour, non-contingent reward behaviour, non-contingent punishment behaviour);
- Behaviours identified with either the Path-Goal theory of leadership (role clarification behaviour, specification of procedures, or supportive leader behaviour) and
- The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory of leadership.

Table 2.5 Meta-Analytic Correlations between Leader Behaviours and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

	Altruism	Courtesy	Conscientious	Sportsman	Civic Virtue	Generalised Compliance
Leadership Behaviours						
Articulating a Vision	.20 (4/3053)	.20 (2/1588)	.19 (2/1588)	.23 (2/1588)	.13 (2/1588)	
Providing an Appropriate Model	.24 (2/1588)	.25 (2/1588)	.21 (2/1588)	.21 (2/1588)	.15 (2/1588)	
Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals	.23 (2/1588)	.21 (2/1588)	.18 (2/1588)	.21 (2/1588)	.12 (2/1588)	
High Performance Expectations	.14 (4/3053)	.17 (3/2576)	.15 (3/2576)	.13 (4/ 3053)	.09 (4/3053)	
Intellectual Stimulation	.20 (4/3053)	.18 (3/2576)	.18 (3/2576)	.17 (4/3053)	.11 (4/3053)	
Contingent Reward Behaviour	.26 (7/2351)	.26 (5/1544)	.26 (6/2156)	.25 (5/1544)	.15 (5/1544)	
Contingent Punishment Behaviour	-.04 (7/2351)	.01 (5/1544)	-.03 (6/2156)	-.02 (5/1544)	.01 (5/1544)	
Non-Contingent Reward Behaviour	.13 (7/2351)	.08 (5/1544)	.12 (6/2156)	.09 (5/1544)	.07 (5/1544)	
Non-Contingent Punishment Behaviour	-.25 (7/2351)	-.19 (5/1544)	-.26 (6/2156)	-.24 (5/1544)	-.08 (5/1544)	
Leader Role Clarification	.12 (7/2456)	.18 (5/1544)	.12 (7/2456)	.19 (5/1544)	.04 (5.1544)	
Leader Specification of Procedures	-.09 (7/2456)	-.04 (5/1544)	-.07 (7/2456)	-.09 (5/1544)	-0.7 (5/1544)	
Supportive Leader Behaviours	.26 (12/5704)	.28 (8/4120)	.25 (10/5032)	.25 (9/4597)	.15 (9/4597)	.35 (8/3062)
Leader-Member Exchange.	.36 (4502)					

Note. This table shows the mean correlations corrected for sampling error and measurement reliability, along with the number of studies and the total sample size (in brackets (number of studies/sample size)) on which each correlation is based. Adapted from "Organisational Citizenship Behaviours: A Critical review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research." By P.M. Podsakoff, S.C. MacKenzie, J.B. Paine and D.G. Bachrach, 2000, Journal of Management, 26, 3, p.528.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) found very strong relationships between leaders' behaviour and OCB's in their meta-analysis findings. Table 2.5 gives a summary of their meta-analysis. With a few exceptions, almost all of the leader behaviour-OCB relationships were found to be significant. Leader's supportive behaviour was strongly related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Transformational leadership behaviour also had significant relationships with identified OCB factors.

2.5.4. Effects of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

A main principle of Organ's (1988) definition of OCB is that, when taken over time, such behaviour enhances organisational effectiveness. For many years, this assumption went untested and its acceptance was based more on its conceptual plausibility than direct empirical evidence (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Conceptually, there are several reasons why citizenship behaviours might influence organisational effectiveness. OCBs may contribute to organisational success by (Podsakoff et al., 2000):

- enhancing co-worker and managerial productivity;
- freeing up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes;
- reducing the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions;
- helping to co-ordinate activities both within and across work groups;
- strengthening the organisation's ability to attract and retain the best employees;
- increasing the stability of the organisation's performance and;
- enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

However, despite the intuitive plausibility of the assumption that OCBs contribute to the effectiveness of work teams and organisations, Podsakoff et al.

(2000) found this issue has received little empirical attention. They report that only five studies have attempted to test whether these behaviours influence organisational effectiveness, while over 160 studies have been reported in the literature to identify the antecedents of OCBs.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that the overall pattern of studies reported in their review, provide general support for the hypothesis that organisational citizenship behaviours are related to organisational effectiveness. By means of multiple regression OCBs accounted for 19% of the variance in performance quantity; 18% in performance quality; 25% in financial efficiency indicators (operating efficiency, and revenue); and 38% in customer service indicators (customer satisfaction and customer complaints). Podsakoff et al. (2000) conclude that the meta-analyses supports Organ's (1988) assumption that OCB is related to performance, although the evidence is stronger for some forms of OCB (i.e. helping) than for others (i.e. sportsmanship and civic virtue).

2.5.5. Shortcomings in current knowledge on OCB

In a review of empirical research it is indicated that for leadership behaviour, only relationships of the latest leadership theories (such as transformational, transactional and leader-member exchange theory) with OCB have been investigated (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This is perhaps no surprise since the OCB construct is only two decades in our midst.

A shortcoming in our knowledge is therefore that relationships between OCB and the CPE leadership behaviour construct, have not been investigated and needs empirical testing.

Secondly, as far as could be established, the relationships between subordinate OCB and subordinate visioning ability have not been researched because the latter construct has only recently been established.

Finally, relationships between OCB of subordinates and emotional intelligence of leaders could not be found in the literature. Abraham (1999) posits that EI should be directly related to OCB, arguing EI may enhance certain pro-social behaviours.

2.6. Emotional Intelligence

2.6.1. Introduction

The construct of emotional intelligence and its applications are gaining in popularity. Schutte and Malouff (1999) state that this is illustrated by the publication of over 30 books on EI between 1994 and 1999.

Though Gardner (1993) did not use the term "emotional intelligence," his concepts of intra-personal and interpersonal intelligence provided a foundation for later models and popularisation of the term emotional intelligence. The core of intra-personal intelligence is the ability to know one's own emotions, while the core of interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other individuals' motivations, emotions and intentions. According to Gardner (1993) an individual with a high level of intra-personal intelligence is able to detect and express his own complex and differential sets of feelings. An individual with a high level of interpersonal intelligence is able to determine even subtle intentions and desires of other individuals. Recognising emotions in others enables an individual to interact effectively with other people (Schutte & Malouff, 1999).

Salovey and Mayer (1990), who first used the term "emotional intelligence," postulated that EI consists of three categories of adaptive abilities: appraisal

and/or expression of emotion, regulation of emotion utilisation of emotions in solving problems and decision making.

George (2000) proposes how EI contributes to effective leadership by suggesting five essential elements of leader effectiveness.

The present study is focused on investigating the EI of leaders and the relationships between leadership behaviour dimensions and the dimensions of the EI construct. A further potential contribution will be the determination of EI 'profiles' for different leadership styles as defined by different CPE dimension combinations.

2.6.2. Conceptualisation of the current situation

2.6.2.1. The EI construct

According to the model of Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence involves five primary dimensions:

(a) Accurately recognising and expressing one's own emotions (or self–awareness);

(b) regulating one's emotions (self-regulation);

(c) using emotions to make good decisions and to motivate oneself (self-motivation);

(d) understanding others' emotions (empathy) and;

(e) Being able to influence others' emotions for their benefit and one's own benefit (social skills).

These notions are described by Salovey and Meyer (1990) as follows:

Self-awareness means having a deep understanding of one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. People with strong self-awareness are neither overly critical nor unrealistically hopeful. They are honest - with themselves

and with others. People who have a high degree of self-awareness recognise how their feelings affect themselves, other people, and their job performance. Self-awareness extends to a person's understanding of his or her values and goals. Self-aware people are cognisant and comfortable talking about their limitations and strengths. They often demonstrate an openness for constructive criticism. In contrast, people with low self-awareness interpret the message that they need to improve as a threat or a sign of failure. Self-aware people can also be recognised by their self-confidence.

Self-Regulation which is similar to an ongoing inner conversation, is the component of emotional intelligence that frees one from being a prisoner of your own feelings. People engaged in such inner conversation are as much exposed to bad moods and emotional impulses as others are, but they find ways to control and channel it in useful ways. It also involves the propensity to suspend judgement, to think before acting. Self-regulation is an inclination to reflection and thoughtfulness, a comfort with ambiguity and change. It involves an ability to suppress impulsive urges.

Self-motivation is a passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status. It is the propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence. People with high self-motivation seek out creative challenges, enjoy learning and take pride in a job well done. They display an unflagging energy to do things better. They often seem restless with the status quo. They are persistent in questioning set procedures. They are eager to explore new approaches to their work. People with high self-motivation remain optimistic even in times of adversity.

Empathy is an ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people and a skill of treating people according to their emotional reactions. Empathy means thoughtfully considering employees' feelings taking into account other

factors in the process of making informative decisions. Empathy is particularly important as a component of leadership for at least three reasons: the increasing use of teams; the rapid pace of change and globalisation; and the growing need to retain talented people. People who have empathy are attuned to subtleties in body language; they can hear the message beneath the words being spoken. They also have a deep understanding of the existence and importance of cultural and ethnic differences.

Social Skills are the culmination of the different dimensions of EI. The first three components of emotional intelligence are all self-management skills. The last two, empathy and social skills, refer to a person's ability to manage relationships with others. People tend to be very effective at managing relationships when they can understand and control their own emotions and can empathise with the feelings of others.

Social skills lead to a proficiency in managing relationships, building networks, finding common ground and building rapport. Social skills are not only a matter of friendliness. It is friendliness with a purpose - moving people in the desired direction, whether it is agreement on a new strategy or enthusiasm about a new vision. Socially skilled people tend to have a wide circle of acquaintances, and a flair for finding common ground with people of all kinds - an ability to build rapport. They do not necessarily socialise continually. They work according to the assumption that important things do not get done on an individual level.

2.6.2.2. The status of research on EI and leadership

Downing (1997) points out that the growth in interest in EI is associated with increasing organisational contextual volatility and change, and points out that organisational change is frequently associated with emotional or interpretative

conflict. To deal with rapid technological and social change, individuals need the interpersonal competencies embodied in the EI construct (Schmidt, 1997).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) found that the concept of EI is based on extensive scientific and research evidence, by for example Salovey and Meyer (1990), Cooper (1997) and Cooper and Sawaf (1997). However, they conclude that little research has been conducted in an organisational context and existing research has been largely deducted from psychological, educational and therapy research fields. Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) conclude that organisational applications of EI tend to be based on derivative arguments, largely anecdotal case descriptions and in some cases pure rhetoric. For example much of Goleman's (1996) work on EI provides examples from research in the educational sphere. Research that rigorously demonstrates the impact of EI on success and performance in an organisational context remains uncommon. The proposition underlying much of the focus of EI in relation to its organisational application, appears to be derived from a desire to explain differential achievement of success in an organisational context which cannot adequately be accounted for by traditional measures such as IQ tests (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000).

Tucker, Sojka, Barone and McCarthy (2000) concur that current changes in the work environment suggest that EI might be of increasing importance to managers in the new millennium.

George (2000) states that while existing studies discuss what leaders are like, what they do, and how they make decisions, the role of emotions in the leadership process, are often not explicitly considered in the leadership literature. The notable exception is the work on charisma (e.g. Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Lindholm, 1990). George (2000) finds this relative neglect not surprising as the organisational literature has been dominated by a cognitive orientation, with

emotions being ignored or being seen as something that gets in the way of rationality and effective decision making. George (2000) argues that just as motivation theory and research have ignored how workers' emotions influence their choice of work activities, levels of effort, and levels of persistence in the face of obstacles, leadership theory and research have not adequately considered how leaders' emotions influence their effectiveness as leaders.

Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001) state that the extent to which EI accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. They found that despite much interest in relating EI to effective leadership there is little research published that has explicitly examined this relationship.

2.6.3. Shortcomings in current knowledge on EI

The discussion on the status of research on EI and leadership in 2.6.2.2 indicates the almost complete lack of knowledge on relationships between leadership behaviour and EI. There is thus a definite need for rigorous research to underpin relationships between leadership behaviour and EI.

Assertions are made about the growth in interest in EI in organisations due to heightened organisational contextual volatility and change (Downing, 1997; Tucker, et al. 2000). The change-centred leadership behaviour dimension in the CPE model, related to EI dimensions of leaders may address some of the shortcomings in our understanding of the relationships between leader behaviour and leader EI.

2.7. Research Questions

The objectives of this study as discussed in 1.3 are schematically summarised in Figure 2.1. The solid lines show the main relationships that will be investigated. In addition, as a secondary set of objectives the existence of

relationships shown by the dashed lines will also be investigated. Namely, to determine if there are relationships between the visioning ability of subordinates and the EI of leaders, and the visioning ability of subordinates and the OCB of subordinates.

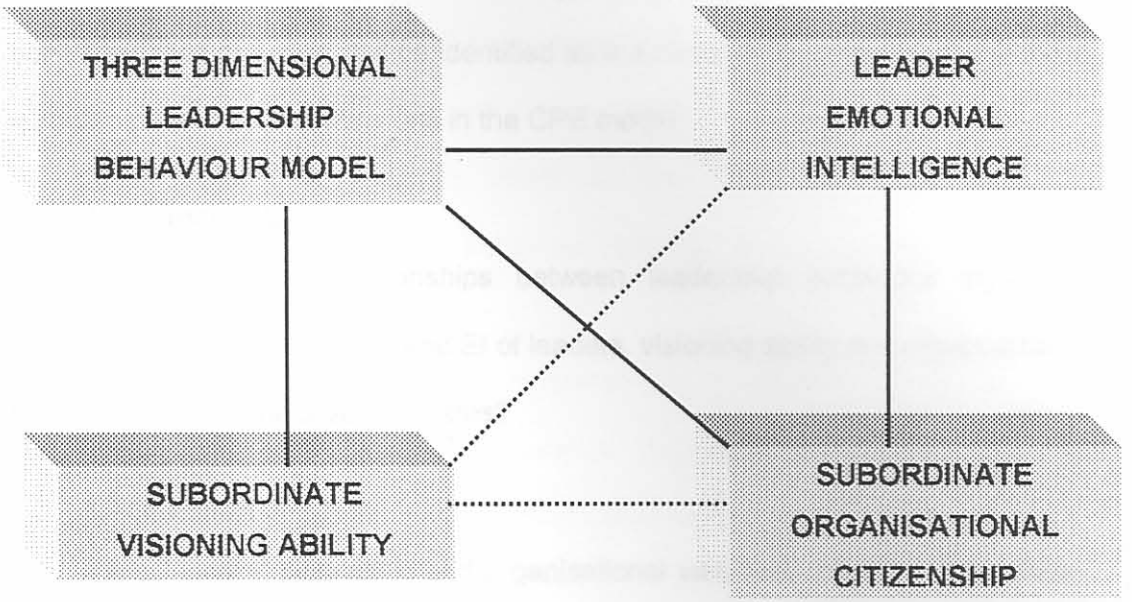

Figure 2.1 Model of relationships between constructs studied.

From the objectives of this study and identified shortcomings in current knowledge on the four constructs as shown in Figure 2.1, three research questions and propositions for this study are investigated.

2.7.1. Question 1

Does leadership behaviour exist in a three dimensional form as identified by the CPE model in a sample of South African managers? That is, is the CPE construct identifiable in another cultural and environmental setting, such as South Africa, with the same leadership behaviour dimensions?

2.7.1.1. Proposition 1.1:

The CPE scale of Ekvall (1991) is transportable to a South African cultural setting and demonstrates significant construct validity.

2.7.1.2. Proposition 1.2:

Different leadership behaviour style groupings (clusters) exists – each behaviour style grouping can be identified as a distinctive combination of the three leadership behaviour dimensions in the CPE model.

2.7.2. Question 2

What are the relationships between leadership behaviour styles as identified with the CPE model and EI of leaders, visioning ability and organisational citizenship behaviour of subordinates?

2.7.3. Question 3

Are leaders' biographic and organisational variables related to their three-dimensional leadership behaviour styles?

2.8. Conclusions

Being a new construct the CPE model has not been tested empirically in many environments, cultures, or related to many behavioural constructs. Of particular interest in this study are relationships between the CPE dimensions and leaders' emotional intelligence, subordinates' OCB and visioning ability.

The application of the CPE model through the identification of various leadership style profiles (clusters) seems to integrate a variety of former leadership theories (such as the situational, transactional, and transformational theories). The three-dimensional CPE leadership behaviour construct revisits the traditional two-dimensional construct, which was well developed and researched in the 1950s to

1970s. It will enrich our understanding of the kinds of leadership behaviour that is necessary in contemporary organisations and in organisations of the near future.

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) argue that despite the existence of a body of literature that stresses the importance of time orientation in organisations, the relationship between leadership behaviour and time orientation remains largely unexplored. The development of the visioning ability scale is their first attempt to address this shortcoming in leadership theory. Investigating relationships between the CPE model with visioning ability of subordinates would add to our understanding of how leadership behaviour potentially influences the formation of vivid mental images about the future.

The construct of emotional intelligence and its applications are gaining in popularity in organisation behaviour literature. However, little research has been conducted in organisational contexts and existing research has been largely drawn from psychological, educational and therapy research fields. Organisational applications of EI tend to be based on derivative arguments and largely anecdotal case descriptions and in some cases pure rhetoric. The growth in interest in EI is associated with increasing organisational contextual volatility and change, and because organisational change is frequently associated with emotional conflict.

The extent to which EI accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. Despite much interest in relating EI to effective leadership there is little research published that has explicitly examined this relationship. This study proposes to investigate linkages between EI, leadership behaviour as conceptualized through the CPE model, subordinate OCB and visioning ability.

From empirical research evidence it has been established that leadership behaviours have direct relationships with OCB, some positive and others negative.

Research is necessary on the CPE leadership behaviour construct to establish its relationships with the OCB dimensions for subordinates.