



CHAPTER 4

LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND MODELS

1. INTRODUCTION

The term *leadership* is a relatively recent addition to the English language. It has been in use only for about two hundred years, although the term *leader*, from which it was derived, appeared as early as A.D. 1300 (Stogdill, 1974).

In the first part of this Chapter, different definitions of leadership will be discussed in order to create a broader understanding of the different perspectives on leadership. In the second part of the Chapter, some of the well-known leadership theories will be reviewed in order to provide the reader with a broad perspective on the concept of leadership and how it has evolved over the last few decades. This will provide the necessary context and background for the interpretation and understanding of the research results obtained in the study, since the main aim of this study was to measure leadership behaviour as part of the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development.

Researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1974, p259) concluded that *“there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.”*

The stream of new definitions has continued unabated since Stogdill made his observation. Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviours, influences, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of a position.

The following are examples of definitions of leadership from some of the well-known writers and researchers in the field of leadership:

- Leadership is a *“particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member’s perception that another group member has the right to prescribe*



behaviour patterns for the former regarding his activity as a group member” (Janda, 1960, p. 358).

- Leadership is *“interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals” (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961, p. 24).*
- Leadership is *“an interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his outcomes ... will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired” (Jacobs, 1970, p. 232).*
- Leadership is *“the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction” (Stogdill, 1974, p. 411).*
- Leadership is *“the relationship in which one person, the leader, influences others to work together willingly on related tasks to attain that which the leader desires” (Terry, 1977, 410).*
- Leadership is *“the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization” (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528).*
- According to Bray, Campbell and Grant, leadership is the *“effectiveness in getting ideas accepted and in guiding a group or an individual to accomplish a task” (Morris, 1979, p. 5).*
- Koontz and O'Donnell define leadership as *“the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly towards the achievement of group goals” (Koontz et. al., 1984, p. 661).*



- *“Leadership is an interaction between members of a group. Leaders are agents of change, persons whose acts affect other people more than other people’s acts affect them”* (Bass, 1985, p. 16).
- *“... interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specialised goal or goals”* (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 83).
- *“Leadership is the process of defining current situations and articulating goals for the future; making the decisions necessary to resolve the situation or achieve the goals; and gaining the commitment from those who have to implement these decisions”* (Brache, 1983, p. 120).
- Leadership is *“the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement”* (Rauch & Behling, 1984, p. 46).

As can be seen from the definitions reflected above, most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that leadership involves a process whereby one person exerts intentional influence over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization. Most conceptions of leadership imply that at various times one or more group members can be identified as a leader according to some observable difference between the person(s) and other members, who are referred to as “followers” or “subordinates”. According to Janda (1960), definitions of leadership as a phenomenon involve the interaction between two or more persons. In addition, most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that leadership involves an influencing process whereby intentional influence is exerted by the leader over followers.

The numerous definitions of leadership that have been proposed appear to have little else in common. The definitions differ in many respects, including important differences as to who exerts influence, the purpose of the attempts to influence, and the manner in which influence is exerted.



The researcher will not attempt to resolve the controversy over the most appropriate definition of leadership as part of this study. For the purposes of this study, the various definitions will be viewed as a source of different perspectives on a complex, multifaceted phenomenon. The reason for this is that in research, the operational definition of leadership will, to a great extent, depend on the purpose of the research (Campbell, 1977; Karmel, 1978).

The purpose may be to identify leaders, to determine how they are selected, to discover what they do, to discover why they are effective, or to determine whether they are necessary. As Karmel (1978, p. 476) notes: *“It is consequently very difficult to settle on a single definition of leadership that is general enough to accommodate these many meanings and specific enough to serve as an operationalization of the variable”*.

According to Gratton (2007), the new leadership agenda is based on enabling people to work skilfully and co-operatively within and across the boundaries of the company. Leaders must ignite energy and excitement through asking inspiring questions or creating a powerful vision of the future.

The challenge for leaders is that such conditions are emergent rather than controlled and directed. The old leadership rules of command and control have little effect (Gratton, 2007).

For the purpose of this research, leadership has been regarded as the process of influencing others so that they understand and agree about what actions can be taken, how the actions can be executed effectively, and how to inspire individual and team efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Another important underlying philosophy upon which this study is based is that leadership is different from management. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 21) the main difference is that *“managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing.”* In the following section the difference between leadership and management will be discussed in greater detail.

2. LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGEMENT

Scholars such as Bass (1990), Hickman (1990), Kotter (1988), Mintzberg (1973) and Rost (1991) view leading and managing as distinct processes, but they do not assume that leaders and managers are different types of people. However, these scholars differ somewhat in how they define the two processes.

Mintzberg (1973) developed a list of ten managerial roles to be observed in his study of executives. The ten roles account for all of management activities, and each activity can be explained in terms of at least one role, although many activities involve more than one role. Three roles deal with the interpersonal behaviour of managers (leader, liaison, and figurehead); three roles deal with information-processing behaviour (monitor, disseminator, and spokesman) and four roles deal with decision making behaviour (entrepreneur, conflict solver, resource allocator, and negotiator).

Based on the finding of his research, Mintzberg (1973) reached the conclusion that the roles of a manager are largely predetermined by the nature of the managerial position, but that managers do have flexibility in the way each role is interpreted and enacted.

Kotter (1990) differentiated between management and leadership in terms of the core processes and intended outcomes. According to Kotter (1990) management seeks to produce predictability and order by:

- Setting operational goals, establishing action plans with timetables, and allocating resources;
- Organizing and staffing e.g. establishing structure, assigning resources and tasks; and
- Monitoring results and solving problems.

Leadership seeks to produce organizational change by:



- Developing a vision of the future and strategies for making necessary changes;
- Communicating and explaining the vision, and
- Motivating and inspiring people to attain the vision.

Management and leadership are both involved in creating networks or relationships in order to facilitate the taking of action. However, the two processes have some incompatible elements. Strong leadership can disrupt order and efficiency and too strong a focus on management can discourage risk-taking and innovation. According to Kotter (1990), both processes are necessary for the success of an organization. Effective management on its own can create a bureaucracy without purpose, while effective leadership on its own can create change that is impractical. The relative importance of the two processes and the best way to integrate them depend on the situation that prevails.

Rost (1991) describes management as a relationship based on authority that exists between managers and subordinates in order to produce and sell goods and services. He defined leadership as a relationship based on influence between a leader and followers with the mutual purpose of accomplishing real change. Leaders and followers influence each other as they interact in non-coercive ways to decide what changes they wish to make. Managers may be leaders, but only if they succeed to build a relationship based on influence with their followers. Rost proposes that the ability to lead is not necessary for a manager to be effective in producing and selling goods and services. However, even when authority is a sufficient basis for downward influence over subordinates, good relationships is necessary for influencing people over whom the leader has no authority, e.g. peers. In organizations where change has become a constant part of the business environment, good relationships based on influence with subordinates seems necessary (Rost, 1991).

The following table provides a comprehensive summary of the views and research findings of leading writers and researchers in this field.



A COMPARISON OF MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

Table 4.1

Management	Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning and budgeting • Keeping eye on bottom line 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating vision and strategy • Keeping eye on the horizon
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizing and staffing • Directing and controlling • Create boundaries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating shared culture and values • Helping others grow • Minimize boundaries
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focuses on objects – producing/selling goods and services • Based on position power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focuses on people – inspiring and motivating followers • Based on personal power
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acting as boss 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acting as coach, facilitator, servant
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional distance • Expert mind • Talking • Conformity • Insight into organization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional connections (heart) • Open mind (mindfulness) • Listening (communication) • Non-conformity (courage) • Insight into self (integrity)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implementation of the leader's vision and changes introduced by leaders, and the maintenance and administration of organizational infrastructures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Articulation of an organizational vision and the introduction of major organizational change; provides inspiration and deals with highly stressful and troublesome aspects of the external environments of organizations.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focuses on the tasks (things) when performing the management functions of planning, organization, and controlling. • Planning. Establishes detailed objectives and plans for achieving them. • Organizing and staffing. Sets up structure for employees to do the job the way the manager expects it to be done. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focuses on the interpersonal relationships (people). • Establishes direction; develops a vision and the strategies needed for its achievement. • Innovates and allows employees to do the job any way they want, as long as they get results that relate to the vision.



<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Controlling. Monitors results against plans and takes corrective action.• Predictable. Plans, organizes, and controls with consistent behaviour. Prefers stability.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Motivates and inspires employees to accomplish the vision in creative ways.• Makes innovative, quick changes that are not very predictable. Prefers change.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Managers do things right.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Leaders do the right things.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Focus is on a short-term view, avoiding risks, maintaining and imitating.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The focus is on a long-term view, taking risks, innovating, and originating.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Maintains stability	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Creates change

Sources:

Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. (1985).

Draft, R.L. (1999). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. Fort Worth: Dryden Press.

Dumaine, B. (1993).

House, R.J. & Aditya, R.N. (1997).

Hughes, R.L, Ginnett, R.C. & Curphy, G.J. (1999).

Kotter, J.P. (1990).

Kotter, J.P. (1996).

Rost, J.C. (1993).



Based on the information in Table 2.1 regarding the differences between management and leadership, the following conclusions can be reached:

- Both leadership and management are concerned with providing direction for the organization, but there are differences. Management focuses on establishing detailed plans and schedules for achieving specific results and then allocating resources to accomplish the plan. Leadership calls for creating a compelling vision of the future and developing farsighted strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision. Whereas management calls for keeping an eye on the bottom line and short-term results, leadership entails keeping an eye on the horizon and the long-term future.
- Management entails organizing a structure to accomplish the plan, staffing the structure and developing policies, procedures, and systems to direct employees and to monitor implementation of the plan. Leadership is concerned with communicating the vision and developing a shared culture and set of core values that can lead to the desired future state. Leadership focuses on guiding employees towards the achievement of a common vision.
- Rather than directing and controlling employees, leadership is concerned with assisting others to grow, so that they can fully contribute to the achievement of the vision. Whereas the management communication process generally involves providing answers and solving problems, leadership entails asking questions, listening, and the involvement of others. It is essential for leadership that information on direction and on cultural values be communicated in words as well as in action in order to influence the creation of teams which will both understand the vision and support it.
- In terms of relationships, management focuses on objects such as tools and reports, on taking the necessary steps to produce the organization's products and services. Leadership relationships, on the other hand, focus on motivating and inspiring people.



- The source of management power is the formal position of authority in the organization. Leadership power flows from the personal characteristics of the leader. Leadership does not demand holding a formal position of authority. Many people, who hold positions of authority, do not provide leadership. While the manager often regards herself or himself as a boss or supervisor, the leader regards herself or himself as a coach or facilitator.
- Whereas management means providing answers and solving problems, leadership requires the courage to admit mistakes and doubts, to take risks, to listen, and to trust and learn from others.
- Leadership is more than a set of skills; it relies on a number of subtle personal qualities that are difficult to perceive but are very powerful. These include characteristics such as enthusiasm, integrity, courage, and humility. Real leadership originates from a genuine concern for others. The process of management generally encourages emotional distance, but leadership fosters empathy with others. Leaders suppress their own egos, recognize the contributions of others, and let others know that they are valued.
- Management and leadership deliver different outcomes. Management produces stability, predictability, order, and efficiency. Good management therefore helps the organization consistently achieve short-term results and meets the expectations of various stakeholders. Leadership, on the other hand, leads to change, often to a dramatic degree. Leadership means questioning and challenging the status quo, so that outdated or unproductive norms can be replaced to meet new challenges. Good leadership can lead to extremely valuable change, such as new products or services that gain new customers or expand markets.

According to Kotter (1996), good management is required in order to help organizations meet current commitments, but good leadership is required in order to move the organization into the future. For much of the 20th century, good management has often

been enough to keep organizations successful, but in the changing business environment of the 21st century, organizations can no longer rely on traditional management practices only to remain successful. Good leadership is a critical success factor for organizations to remain successful.

For this reason the focus of this study will be on leadership behaviour. Although the importance of good management is not denied, the challenge facing the organization to transform itself from a state owned company functioning in a monopolistic business environment to a company that can function in a competitive environment requires a strong focus on leadership.

In the next section of this Chapter, different theories and research findings on leadership effectiveness will be reviewed in order to create an understanding of the broader context for this study which focuses on the measurement of leadership behaviour by means of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire, as part of a Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

2.1 LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND MODELS

In this section, examples of the different types of leadership theories will be discussed, namely trait theories of leadership, behavioural leadership theories, contingency leadership theories, and integrative leadership theories. The aim of this section is to provide the reader with a broad overview of the different types of leadership theories and the way in which each theory explains and interprets leadership behaviour and effectiveness. This will provide the reader with the necessary background and context for this study, since the main purpose is to measure leadership behaviour and to demonstrate a model for leadership development.

2.2 EXAMPLES OF TRAIT THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

The kind of traits studied in trait theories of leadership include personality, ability, motivation, power and needs. A Trait can be defined as an inherent characteristic of a person while a competency can be defined as ability or capability of a person to do something (Geddes & Grosset, 1998). In the earlier leadership theories the focus seems

to be more on the inherent traits of leaders while the focus of the more recent leadership theories seems to be more on leadership competencies and behaviour. A possible reason for this shift in focus may be because competencies and behaviour can change and can therefore be developed while inherent traits of a person are difficult to change.

2.2.1 Achievement Motivation Theory

The Achievement Motivation Theory of David McClelland attempts to explain and predict behaviour and performance based on a person's need for achievement, power and affiliation.

David McClelland originally developed his Achievement Motivation Theory in the 1940s. He believes that everybody has needs, and that our needs motivate us to satisfy them. Our behaviour is therefore motivated by our needs. He further states that needs are based on personality, and are developed as we interact with the environment. All people experience the need for achievement, power, and affiliation, but to different degrees. One of these three needs (achievement, power and affiliations) tend to be dominant in each of us, and motivates our behaviour (McClelland, 1960).

McClelland's needs can be described as follows:

- *Need for Achievement (n Ach)*

According to McClelland (1960), this is the unconscious concern for excellence in accomplishments through individual effort. Those with a strong need for achievement tend to have an internal locus of control, self-confidence, and high-energy traits. People with a high need for achievement tend to be characterized as wanting to take personal responsibility for solving problems. They are goal-oriented and set moderate, realistic, attainable goals. They seek a challenge, excellence and individuality. They tend to take calculated, moderate risks, they desire concrete feedback on their performance, and they are hard workers. Those with high need for achievement think about ways in which to improve work performance, about how to accomplish something unusual or important and about career progression. They



perform well in non-routine, challenging and competitive situations, while people with a low need for achievement do not have the same characteristics.

Research by McClelland (1960) showed that only about 10 percent of the U.S. population has a strong dominant need for achievement. According to House, Sprangler and Woycke (1960), there is evidence of a correlation between a high achievement need and high performance in the general population, but not necessarily for leader effectiveness. People with a high need for achievement tend to enjoy entrepreneurial-type positions.

According to McClelland (1985) good leaders generally have only a moderate need for achievement. They tend to have high energy, self-confidence, openness to experience and they are conscientious (McClelland, 1985).

- *The Need for Power (n Pow)*

According to McClelland (1960) the need for power is the unconscious need to influence others and to seek positions of authority. Those with a strong need for power possess a trait for dominance, and tend to be self-confident with high energy. Those with a strong need for power tend to be characterized as trying to control situations, trying to influence or control others, enjoying competitiveness where they can win. They resent the idea of losing and are willing to confront others. They tend to seek positions of authority and status.

According to Nicholson (1998), people with a strong need for power tend to be ambitious and have a lower need for affiliation. They are more concerned with getting their own way by for instance influencing others, than about what others think of them. They tend to regard power and politics as essential for successful leadership (Nicholson, 1998).

According to McClelland (1985), power is essential to leaders because it is an effective way of influencing followers. Without power, there is no leadership. To be

successful, leaders must want to be in charge and enjoy the leadership role. Leaders have to influence their followers, peers, and higher-level managers.

- *The Need for Affiliation (n Aff)*

According to McClelland (1960), the need for affiliation is the unconscious concern for developing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationships. People with a strong need for affiliation tend to be sensitive to others. People with a high need for affiliation tend to be characterized as seeking close relationships with others, wanting to be liked by others, enjoying a wide variety of social activities and seeking to belong. They therefore tend to join groups and organizations. People with a high need for affiliation tend to think about friends and relationships. They tend to enjoy developing, helping and teaching others. They often seek jobs as teachers, in human resource management, and in other support-giving professions. According to Nicholson (1998), those with a high need for affiliation are more concerned about what others think of them than about getting their own way by, for example, influencing others. They tend to have a low need for power and they therefore tend to avoid management roles and positions because they like to be seen as one of the group rather than as its leader (Nicholson, 1998).

According to McClelland (1985) effective leaders have a lower need for affiliation than they do for power, to the extent that relationships do not impede the influencing of followers. Leaders with a high need for affiliation tend to have a lower need for power and may therefore be reluctant to enforce discipline, such as when having to instruct followers to carry out tasks they find disagreeable, for example implementing change. They have been found to show favouritism towards their friends. Effective leaders do, however, show concern for followers by means of socialized power (McClelland, 1985).

McClelland further identified power as neither good nor bad. Power can be used for personal gain at the expense of others, for instance, personalised power, or it can be used to help oneself and others, for instance, socialised power (McClelland, 1985).

2.2.2 Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1966) classified attitudes or belief systems, which he called assumptions, as Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X and Theory Y explain and predict leadership behaviour and performance based upon the leader's attitude toward followers. Those with Theory X attitudes believe that employees dislike work and must be closely supervised in order to carry out tasks. Theory Y attitudes believe that employees like to work and do not need to be closely supervised in order to carry out tasks (McGregor, 1966).

Managers with Theory Y attitudes tend to have a positive, optimistic view of employees, and display a more participative leadership style, based on internal motivation and rewards (Tietjen and Myers, 1998). In 1966, when McGregor published his Theory X and Theory Y, most managers had Theory X attitudes (Tietjen & Myers, 1998). More recently, the focus changed from management to leadership, leading to a change from a Theory X attitude to a Theory Y attitude, as more managers started to use a more participative leadership style (Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

A study of over 12,000 managers explored the relationship between managerial achievement and attitude toward subordinates (Hall & Donnell, 1979). The managers with Theory Y attitudes were better at accomplishing organizational objectives and better at tapping the potential of subordinates. The managers with strong Theory X attitudes were far more likely to be in the low-achievement group (Hall & Donnell, 1979).

2.2.3 Research results on trait theories

The trait research has been reviewed on various occasions by different scholars e.g., Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1988); Mann (1959); Stogdill (1948, 1974). The two reviews by Stogdill will be compared to discover how conceptions about the importance of leader traits evolved over a quarter of a century.

In his first review, Stogdill (1948) examined the results of one hundred and twenty-four trait studies from 1904 ad 1948. A number of traits were found that differentiated repeatedly



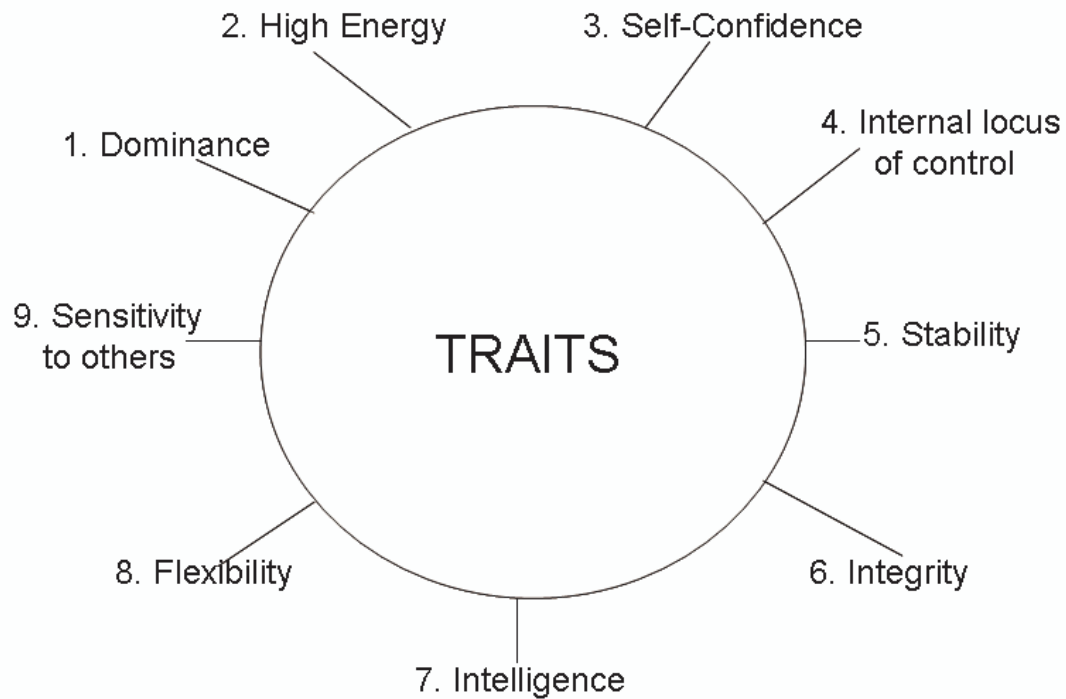
between leaders and non-leaders in several studies. The results indicated that a leader is someone who acquires status through active participation and demonstration of ability to facilitate the efforts of the group in attaining its goals. Traits relevant to the role of a leader include intelligence, alertness to the needs of others, understanding of the task, initiative and tenacity in dealing with problems, self-confidence as well as the desire to accept responsibility and occupy a position of dominance and control. In the case of certain traits, such as dominance and intelligence, there were some negative correlations, which may indicate a curvilinear relationship (Stogdill, 1948).

Despite the evidence that leaders tend to differ from non-leaders with respect to certain traits, Stogdill found that the results varied considerably from situation to situation. In several studies that measured situational factors, there was evidence that the relative importance of each trait depends upon the situation. Stogdill (1948, p.64) therefore concluded that: "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits ... the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers."

In his book, published in 1974, Stogdill reviewed one hundred and sixty-three trait studies conducted during the period from 1949 to 1970. The research done during this period used a greater variety of measurement procedures than did previous research, including projective tests e.g. Thematic Apperception Test and the minor sentence completion scale, situational tests, e.g. in-basket and leaderless group discussion as well as forced choice tests e.g. Ghiselli's self-description inventory and Gordon's survey of interpersonal value (Stogdill, 1974).

According to House and Aditya (1997), there appear to be some traits that consistently differentiate leaders from others. The trait theory therefore does seem to have some claim to universality. For the theory to be truly universal, all leaders would have to have the same traits. However, there does not seem to be one list of traits accepted by all researchers. A list of leadership traits identified by various researchers is shown in Figure 4.1

Figure 4.1 – Leadership Traits



Researchers who identified the traits in Figure 4.1

- 1) Avolio, B.J., and Howell, J.M. (1992).
- 2) Bass, B.M. (1990).
- 3) Cox C.J & Cooper, C.L. 1989.
- 4) House, R.J., & Baetz M.L. (1979).
- 5) Lord, R.G., de Vader, C.L., & Alliger, G.M. (1986).
- 6) Zaccaro, S.J. Foti, R.J., & Kenny, D.A. (1991).
- 7) Same as 2.



8) Same as 5.

9) Same as 6.

The traits listed in Figure 4.1 can be described as follows:

Dominance

According to Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986) successful leaders want to take charge. However, they are not overly controlling, nor do they use an intimidating style. Should a person not wish to be a leader the chances are very good that he/she will also not be an effective manager, because the dominance trait affects leadership as well as management roles.

High Energy

According to Bass (1990), leaders with high energy have drive and work hard to achieve goals. Leaders with high energy also tend to possess stamina and tolerate stress well. High energy leaders are usually enthusiastic and do not abandon hope easily. However, they are not viewed as pushy and obnoxious. They tend to have a high tolerance for frustration, since they strive to overcome obstacles through preparation.

Self-confidence

According to House and Baetz (1979), *self-confidence* indicates whether a leader has confidence in his/her judgment, decision-making, ideas and capabilities. Leaders who have confidence in their abilities tend to foster confidence among followers. Through gaining their followers' respect, leaders with a high level of self-confidence influence their followers.

Locus of Control

According to Bass (1990), *locus of control* indicates to what extent a leader believes that he/she has control over their behaviour and what happens to them. Leaders with an external locus of control believe that they have no control over their fate and that their



behaviour has little to do with their performance. Leaders with an internal locus of control believe that they control their fate and that their behaviour directly affects their performance. Leaders with an internal locus of control take responsibility for who they are, for their behaviour and performance and for the performance of their organizational unit.

Stability

According to Howard and Bray (1988), leaders who display a high level of stability are emotionally in control of themselves, secure, and positive. Leaders with a high level of self-awareness and a desire to improve, achieve more than those who don't. Effective leaders tend to have a good understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses and they are oriented toward self-improvement rather than being defensive (Howard & Bray, 1988).

Integrity

According to Cox and Cooper (1989) *integrity* refers to honest and ethical behaviour which is characteristic of people who are trustworthy. Trustworthiness is an important factor in business success. Trusting relationships are at the heart of profit-making and sustainability in the global knowledge-based economy (Cox & Cooper, 1989).

Intelligence

According to Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986), good leaders generally have above-average intelligence. *Intelligence* refers to cognitive ability to think critically, to solve problems, and to make decisions. However, intuition, also referred to as *hidden intelligence*, is just as important to leadership success (Weintraub, 1999).

Flexibility

According to Zaccaro, Fotiand and Kenny (1991), *flexibility* refers to the ability to adjust to different situations. Leaders must be able to adapt to the rapid changes in the business world. Without flexibility, leaders would be successful only in situations that fit their style of leadership. Effective leaders tend to be flexible and can adapt to different situations.



Sensitivity to Others

According to Pfeffer and Viega (1999), *sensitivity to others* refers to understanding group members as individuals, what their viewpoints are and how best to communicate with them as well as how to influence them. To be sensitive to others requires empathy, the ability to place oneself in another person’s position – to see things from another’s point of view. In today's global economy, companies require people-centred leaders who are committed to treat people as valuable assets.

According to Stogdill (1981), the trait profile reflected in Table 4.2 is characteristic of successful leaders:

Table 4.2

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL LEADERS		
Physical characteristics	Personality	Social characteristics
Activity	Alertness	Ability to enlist cooperation
Energy	Originality, creativity	Cooperativeness
Social background	Personal integrity, ethical conduct	Popularity, prestige
Mobility	Self-confidence	Sociability,
Intelligence and ability	Work-related characteristics	interpersonal skills
Judgement, decisiveness	Achievement drive, desire to excel	Social participation
Knowledge	Drive for responsibility	Tact, diplomacy
Fluency of speech	Responsibility in pursuit of goals	
	Task orientation	

SOURCE: Albanese, R. and Van Fleet, D.D. (1983).

2.3 EXAMPLES OF BEHAVIOURAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES

According to the behavioural approach to leadership, anyone who adopts the appropriate behaviour can be a good leader. Researchers on leadership behaviour who followed the behaviour approach to leadership, attempted to uncover the behaviours in which leaders engage, rather than what traits a leader possesses.

2.3.1 Leadership Style Theory

Kurt Lewin and his associates conducted studies at Iowa State University that concentrated on leadership styles (Lewin, Lippett & White, 1939). They identified the following two basic leadership styles in their studies:

– *Autocratic leadership style*

The autocratic leader makes the decisions, tells employees what to do and closely supervises workers (Lewin, et al 1939); (Likert, 1967).

– *Democratic leadership style*

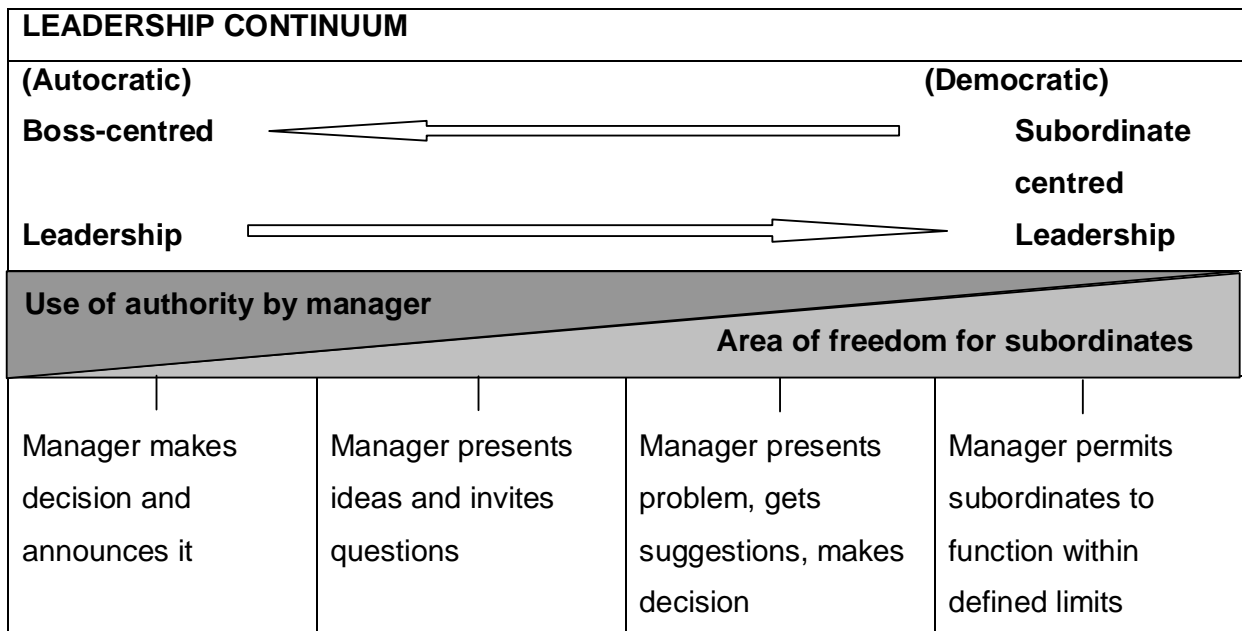
The democratic leader encourages participation in decisions, works with employees to determine what to do and does not closely supervise employees. (Lewin, *et al.* 1939); (Likert, 1967).

According to Likert (1967), the first studies on leadership behaviour conducted at Iowa State University by Kurt Lewin and his associates included groups of children, each with its own designated adult leader who was instructed to act in either an autocratic or democratic style. These experiments produced some interesting findings. The groups with autocratic leaders performed very well as long as the leader was present to supervise them. However, group members were displeased with the autocratic style of leadership and feelings of hostility frequently arose. The performance of groups who were assigned democratic leaders was almost as good and these groups were characterized by positive feelings rather than hostility. In addition, under the democratic style of leadership, group members performed well even when the leader was absent. The participative techniques and decision-making by majority rule as used by the democratic leader served to train and involve the group members, so that they performed well with or without the leader being present (Likert, 1967). These characteristics of democratic leadership may partly explain why the empowerment of employees is a popular trend in many organizations.

This early work implied that leaders were either autocratic or democratic in their approach. However, work done by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1969) indicated that leadership

behaviour could exist on a continuum reflecting different degrees of employee participation. One leader might be autocratic (boss-centred), another democratic (subordinate) centred and a third, a combination of the two styles. The leadership continuum is illustrated in Figure 2.2:

Figure 4.2



SOURCE: Tannenbaum, R, & Schmidt, W. (1973). How to Choose a Leadership Pattern. *Harvard Business Review*.

The boss-centred leadership style refers to the extent to which the leader takes charge to get the work done. The leader directs subordinates by communicating clear roles and goals, while the manager tells them what to do and how to do it as they work towards goal achievement (Likert, 1961).

The employee-centred leadership style refers to the extent to which the leader focuses on meeting the human needs of employees whilst building relationships. The leader is sensitive to subordinates and communicates to develop trust, support, and respect, while looking out for their welfare (Likert, 1961).

According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973), the extent to which leaders should be boss-centred or subordinate-centred depended on organizational circumstances. Leaders should adjust their behaviour to fit the circumstances. For example, should there be time pressure on a leader or if it takes too long for subordinates to learn how to make decisions, the leader will tend to use an autocratic style. When subordinates are able to readily learn decision-making skills, a participative style can be used. Also, the greater the skills difference, the more autocratic the leader's approach, because it is difficult to bring subordinates up to the leader's expertise level. Followers may however not be as independent when the leader is autocratic (Heller & Yukl, 1969).

2.3.2 Ohio State University Leadership Theory

Researchers at Ohio State University identified through their research two categories of leader-behaviour types, called consideration and initiating structure (Nystrom, 1978).

According to Nystrom (1978), the categories of consideration and initiating structure can be described as follows:

Consideration describes the extent to which a leader is sensitive to subordinates, respects their ideas and feelings, and establishes mutual trust. Showing appreciation, listening carefully to problems and seeking input from subordinates about important decisions, are all examples of consideration.

Initiating structure describes the extent to which a leader is task-oriented and directs subordinates' work activities toward goal-achievement. This type of leadership behaviour includes directing the performance of subordinates to work very hard, providing clear guidelines for work activities and maintaining rigorous control.

These behavioural categories are independent of each other. In other words, a leader can display a high degree of both behaviour types, and a low degree of both behaviour types. Additionally, a leader might demonstrate high consideration and low initiating structure, or low consideration and high initiating structure behaviour. Research indicates that all four of these leader style combinations can be effective (Nystrom, 1978).



2.3.3 University of Michigan Leadership Theory

Studies at the University of Michigan compared the behaviour of effective and ineffective supervisors (Likert, 1967).

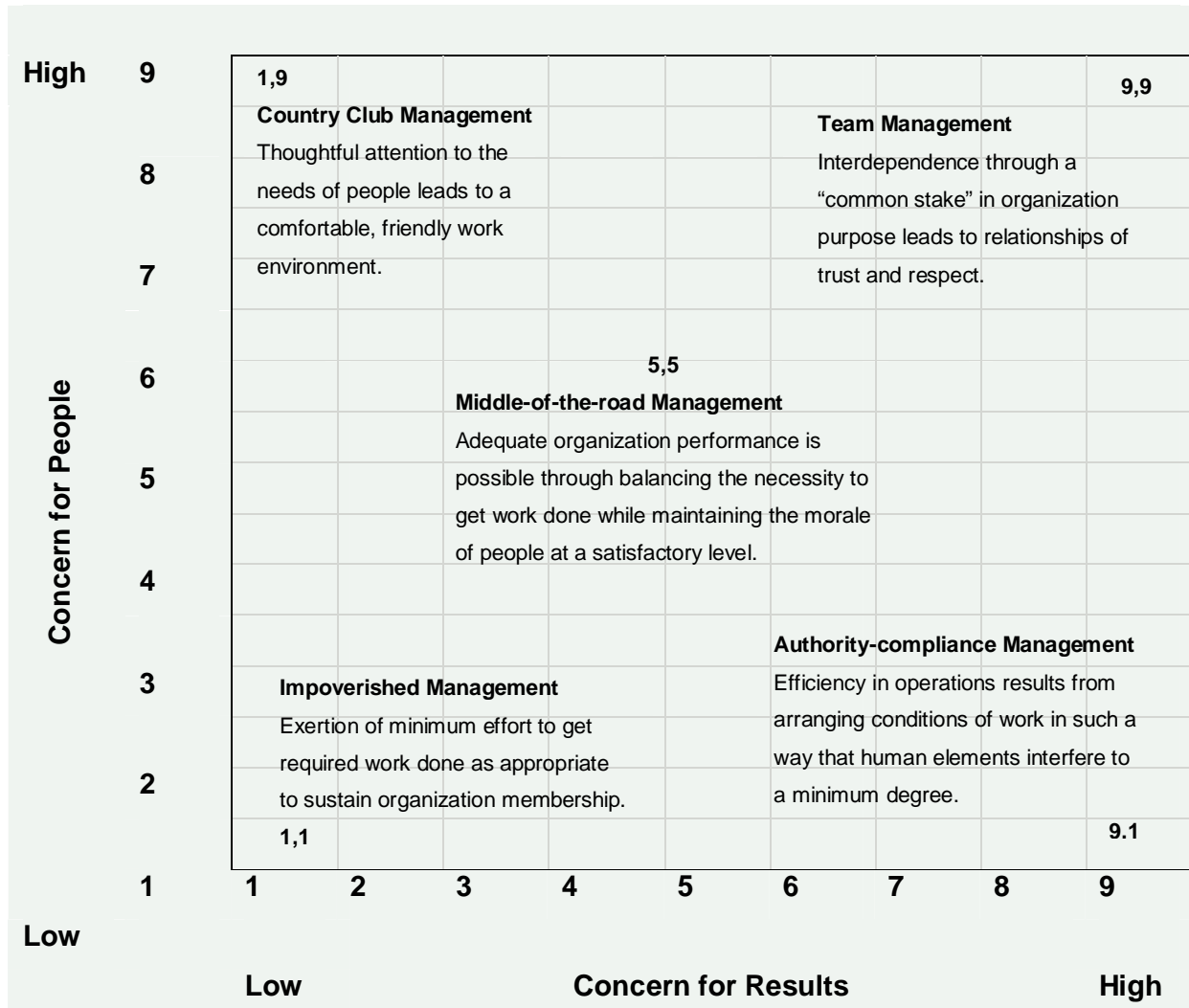
Over time, the Michigan researchers established that employee-centred leaders display a focus on the human needs of their subordinates. Leader support and interaction are the two underlying dimensions of employee-centred behaviour (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

The significance of this is that, in addition to demonstrating support for their subordinates, employee-centred leaders facilitate positive interaction among followers and seek to minimize conflict. The employee-centred style of leadership seems to roughly correspond to the Ohio State concept of consideration (see 3.2.2).

2.3.4 Leadership Grid Theory

Blake and Mouton developed a two-dimensional leadership theory called "The Leadership Grid" that builds on the work of the Ohio State and the Michigan studies (Blake & Mouton, 1985). Researchers rated leaders on a scale of one to nine, according to the following two criteria: concern for people and concern for results. The scores for these criteria were plotted on a grid with an axis for each criteria. The two-dimensional leadership model and five major leadership styles are reflected in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: The Leadership Grid



SOURCE: Blake, R.R. & McCanse, A.A. (1991). *Leadership Dilemmas – Grid Solutions*. Houston: Gulf. (Grid Figure: p.29).

Team management (9,9) is often considered the most effective style because employees are encouraged to work together to accomplish tasks. Country club management (1,9) occurs when the most emphasis is placed on people rather than on achieving results. Authority-compliance management (9,1) occurs when operational efficiency is the main focus. Middle-of-the-road management (5,5) reflects a moderate degree of concern for both people and productivity. Impoverished management (1,1) indicates that little effort is



made in terms of both interpersonal relationships and work accomplishment (Blake and Mouton, 1985).

The leadership styles in the Leadership Grid are described by Blake and McGanse (1991) as follows:

- The *impoverished leader* (1, 1) has low concern for both production and people;
- The *authority-compliance leader* (9, 1) has a high concern for production and a low concern for people;
- The *country-club leader* (1, 9) has a high concern for people and a low concern for production;
- The *middle-of-the-road leader* (5, 5) has balanced, medium concern for both production and people;
- The *team leader* (9, 9) has a high concern for both production and people. This leader strives for maximum performance and employee satisfaction. According to Blake and McGanse (1991), the team leadership style is generally the most appropriate for use in all situations.

2.3.5 Research Results on Behavioural Leadership Theories

Blake and Mouton (1978) conducted an extensive empirical research study that measured profitability before and after a 10-year period to test the Leadership Grid Theory. In the study, one subsidiary of the company used an extensive Grid Organizational Development program designed to teach managers how to become 9, 9 team leaders (experimental group), while another subsidiary did not use the program (control group). The subsidiary using the team leadership style increased its profits four times more than the subsidiary that did not use the program. The researchers therefore concluded that team leadership usually led to improved performance, low absenteeism and low turnover as well as high employee satisfaction (Blake and Mouton, 1978).

Another researcher, however, disagreed with these findings by expressing the view that high-high leadership is a myth (Nystrom, 1978). A meta-analysis (a study combining the results of many prior studies) indicated that although task and relationship behaviour tend

to correlate positively with the performance of subordinates, the correlation is usually weak (Fisher & Edwards, 1988). In conclusion, although there seems to be a measure of support for a universal theory that applies across organizations, industries and cultures, the high-high leadership style is not necessarily accepted as the one best style in all situations.

Critics suggested that different leadership styles are more effective in different situations (Jung & Avolio, 1999). This probably led to the paradigm shift towards contingency leadership theory. Contingency leadership theory does not recommend using the same leadership style in all situations, but rather recommends using the leadership style that best suits the situation (Jung & Avolio, 1999).

According to House and Aditya (1997), a contribution derived from behavioural leadership theory was the recognition that organizations require both production and people leadership. There is a generic set of production-orientated and people-orientated leadership functions that must be performed to ensure effective organizational performance. These two functions are regarded as an accepted universal theory because they seem to apply across organizations, industries and cultures. Every organization needs to perform production and people leadership functions effectively to be successful, but how they are performed will vary according to the situation (House & Aditya, 1997).

According to House and Aditya (1997), research efforts to determine the one best leadership style have been insubstantial and inconsistent. In other words, there does not seem to be one best leadership style for all situations. This has probably spurred researchers on to the next paradigm – that of contingency leadership theory. The contribution of the behavioural leadership paradigm was to identify two generic dimensions of leadership behaviour that continue to be important in accounting for leader effectiveness today (House & Aditya, 1997).

The Ohio State leadership questionnaires as well as modified versions thereof have been used in hundreds of survey studies by many different researchers. The results have been inconclusive and inconsistent for most criteria of leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Fisher & Edwards, 1988). The only prevalent and consistent finding was a positive relationship between consideration and subordinate satisfaction. As suggested by the



Fleishman and Harris (1962) study, subordinates are usually more satisfied with a leader who is at least moderately considerate.

Researchers at the University of Michigan also conducted research on leadership behaviour. The focus of the Michigan research was the identification of the relationship between leadership behaviour, group processes, and measures of group performance. The initial research consisted of a series of field studies with a variety of leaders, including section managers in an insurance company (Katz, MacCoby, & Morse, 1950), supervisors in a large manufacturing company (Katz & Kahn, 1952), and supervisors of railroad section gangs (Katz, MacCoby, Gurin & Floor, 1951). Information about managerial behaviour was gathered by means of interviews and questionnaires. Objective measures of group productivity were used in order to classify managers as relatively effective or ineffective. The results of this research were captured by Likert (1961, 1967), and are summarised below:

- **Task-orientated Behaviour:** Effective leaders did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, the more effective leaders concentrated on task-oriented functions such as the planning and scheduling of the work, coordinating subordinate activities, and arranging the provisioning of the necessary resources, equipment and technical assistance. Effective managers also guided subordinates in setting performance goals that were challenging but attainable. The task-oriented behaviours identified in the Michigan studies appear similar to the behaviours labelled “initiating structure” in the Ohio State leadership studies.
- **Relations-oriented Behaviour:** In the case of effective leaders, task-oriented behaviour did not occur at the expense of concern for human relations. The effective leaders were also more supportive of, and helpful to, subordinates. Supportive behaviours which correlated with effective leadership included showing trust and confidence, acting in a friendly manner showing consideration, attempting to understand subordinates’ problems, helping to develop subordinates to further their careers, keeping subordinates informed, showing appreciation for



subordinates' ideas and providing recognition for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments. These behaviours appear to be similar to the behaviours labelled "consideration" in the Ohio State leadership studies.

- **Participative Leadership:** Effective managers preferred more group supervision instead of supervising each subordinate separately. Group meetings facilitate subordinate participation, decision-making, improve communication, promote cooperation, and facilitate conflict resolution. The role of the manager in group meetings should primarily be to guide the discussion and keep it supportive, constructive, and oriented toward problem solving. Participative management however, does not imply abdication of responsibilities, and the manager remains responsible for all decisions as well as the consequences.
- **Shared Leadership:** Bowers and Seashore (1966) extended the scope of leadership behaviour by suggesting that most leadership functions can be carried out by someone apart from the designated leader of a group. A manager may at times request subordinates to share in the performance of certain leadership functions, and subordinates may at times perform these functions on their own initiative. Group effectiveness will depend more on the overall quality of leadership within a work unit than on which individual actually performs the functions. However, the possibility of shared leadership does not imply that it is not necessary to have a designated leader.

According to Bowers and Seashore (1966, p. 249), "There are both common-sense and theoretical reasons for believing that a formally-acknowledged leader, through his/her supervisory leadership behaviour, sets the pattern of the mutual leadership amongst subordinates."

2.4 EXAMPLES OF CONTINGENCY LEADERSHIP THEORIES

2.4.1 Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Theory

In 1951, Fiedler began to develop the first contingency leadership theory. It was the first theory to focus on how situational variables interact with leader personality and behaviour. Fiedler called his theory "Contingency Theory of Leader Effectiveness," (House & Aditya, 1997). Fiedler believed that leadership style is a reflection of personality (trait-theory orientated) as well as behaviour (behavioural-theory orientated), and that leadership styles are basically constant. Leaders do not change styles, they change the situation. The contingency leadership model is used to determine whether a person's leadership style is task or relationship orientated, and if the situation matches the leader's style to maximise performance (House & Aditya, 1997). Fiedler teamed up with J.E. Garcia to develop the Cognitive Resources Theory based on the Contingency Leadership Theory (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987).

The Cognitive Resources Theory (CRT), is a person-by-situation interaction theory, in which the person variables are intelligence and experience of leaders. The situational variables are stress as experienced by leaders and followers. CRT has important implications for the selection of leaders. Fiedler (1966) recommends a two-step process for effective utilization of leaders: (1) recruiting and selecting individuals with required intellectual abilities, experience, and job-relevant knowledge, and (2) enabling leaders to work under conditions that allow them to make effective use of the cognitive resources for which they were hired.

Some scholars consider Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Theory and Cognitive Resources Theory the most validated of all leadership theories (Hughes, Ginnet & Curphy, 1999).

2.4.2 Leadership Continuum Theory and Model

Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt also developed a contingency theory in the 1950's (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). They concluded that leadership behaviour is on a

continuum from boss-centred to subordinate-centred leadership. Their model focuses on who makes the decisions.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) identified seven major styles from which the leader can choose. The leadership continuum model is used to determine which one of the seven styles should be selected to suit the situation in order to maximise performance.

According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973), the leader must consider the following three forces or variables before choosing the best leadership style for a particular situation:

- Supervisor
The leader's personality and preferred behavioural style, expectation, values, background, knowledge, feeling of security and confidence in the subordinates should be considered in selecting a leadership style. Based on personality and behaviour, some leaders tend to be more autocratic and others more participative.
- Subordinates
The leadership style preferred by followers is based on personality and behaviour. Generally, the more willing and able the followers are to participate, the more freedom of participation should be used, and vice versa.
- Situation (Environment)
The environmental considerations, such as the organization size, structure, climate, goals and technology, are taken into consideration when selecting a leadership style. Managers on higher levels also influence leadership styles. For example, if a senior manager uses an autocratic leadership style, the middle manager may tend to follow suit.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1986) developed two major leadership styles, (autocratic and participative) with seven continuum styles, which reflected in a one-dimensional model. The leadership-styles part of their theory is similar to the University of Michigan Leadership Model, in that it is based on two major leadership styles: one focusing on job-centred

behaviour (autocratic leadership) and the other focusing on employee-centred behaviour (participative leadership).

Figure 4.4 : Leadership Styles

Autocratic Style			Participative Style			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Leader makes decision and announces it to followers individually or in a group without discussion (it could also be in writing).	Leader makes decisions and sells it to followers by explaining why it is a good idea (it could also be in writing)	Leader presents ideas and invites followers' questions.	Leader presents tentative decision subject to change.	Leader presents problem, invites suggested solutions and makes the decision.	Leader defines limits and asks the followers to make a decision	Leader permits followers to make ongoing decisions within defined limits

One major criticism of this model is that how to determine which style to use, and when, is not clear in the model (Yukl, 1998).

2.4.3 Path-goal Leadership Theory

The Path-goal Leadership Theory was developed by Robert House, based on an early version of the theory by M.G. Evans, and published in 1971 (House, 1971). House formulated a more elaborate version of Evans's theory, which included situational variables. House's theory specified a number of situational moderators of relationships between task and person-orientated leadership and their impact (House & Aditya, 1997). House attempted to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the performance and satisfaction of the followers. Unlike the earlier contingency leadership models, House's theory does not include leadership traits and behaviour variables (House & Aditya, 1997).

The Path-goal Leadership Model can be used to identify the most appropriate leadership style for a specific situation to maximise both performance and job satisfaction (DuBrin, 1998). According to the Path-goal Leadership Theory, the leader is responsible for increasing followers' motivation to attain personal and organizational goals. Motivation can

be increased by clarifying what follower's have to do to get rewarded, or increasing the rewards that the follower values and desires. Path clarification means that the leader works with followers to help them identify and learn the behaviours that will lead to successful task accomplishment and organizational rewards (DuBrin, 1998).

According to House (1971), the Path-goal Leadership Theory consists of the following factors:

- Situational factors:
 - Authoritarianism is the degree to which employees prefer to, and want to, be told what to do and how to do a job.
 - Locus of control is the extent to which employees believe they have control over goal achievement (internal locus of control), or goal achievement is controlled by others (external locus of control).
 - Ability is the extent of the employees' ability to perform tasks to achieve goals.
- Environment factors:
 - Task structure, i.e. the extent of the repetitiveness of the job.
 - Formal authority, i.e. the extent of the leader's position power.
 - Work group, i.e. the relationship between followers.

- Leadership styles:

Based on the situational factors in the Path-goal Model, the leader can select the most appropriate leadership style for a particular situation. The original model included only the directive and supportive leadership styles (from the Ohio State and University of Michigan behavioural leadership studies). House and Mitchell added the participative and achievement-oriented leadership styles in a 1974 publication (House and Mitchell, 1974). These leadership styles can be described as follows:

- Directive
 - The leader provides a high degree of structure. Directive leadership is appropriate when the followers prefer autocratic leadership, have an external locus of control,



and the skills levels of the followers are low. Directive leadership is also appropriate when the task to be completed is complex or ambiguous and followers are inexperienced.

– Supportive

The leader exercises a high degree of consideration. Supportive leadership is appropriate when the followers do not desire autocratic leadership, when they have an internal locus of control, and when follower's skills levels are high. Supportive leadership is also appropriate when the tasks are simple and followers have a lot of experience.

– Participative

The leader encourages and allows followers' input into decision-making. Participative leadership is appropriate when followers wish to be involved, when they have an internal locus of control and when their skills levels are high. Participative leadership is also appropriate when the task is complex and followers have a lot of experience.

– Achievement-orientated

The leader sets difficult but achievable goals, expects followers to perform at their highest level and rewards them for doing so. In essence, the leader provides both strong direction (structure) and a high level of support (consideration). Achievement-orientated leadership is appropriate when followers are open to autocratic leadership, when they have an external locus of control and when ability of followers is high. Achievement-orientated leadership is also appropriate when the task is simple, and followers have a lot of experience.

2.4.4 Normative Leadership Theory

An important leadership question is, "When should the manager take charge, and when should the manager let the group make the decision?" Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton published a decision-making model with the aim of improving decision-making effectiveness.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) identified five leadership styles as described below:

Two are autocratic (AI and AII), two are consultative (CI and CII), and one is group-orientated (GII).

- Autocratic Leadership Styles:

AI:

The leader makes the decision alone, using available information without input from others.

AII:

The leader obtains information from followers but makes the decision alone. Followers are asked only for information and not for their input into the decision.

- Consultative Leadership Styles:

CI:

The leader meets individually with relevant followers, explains the situation, and obtains information and ideas on the decision to be made. The leader makes the final decision alone. The leader may or may not use the followers' input.

CII:

The leader meets with followers as a group, explains the situation, and gets information and ideas on the decision to be made. The leader makes the decision alone after the meeting. Leaders may or may not use the follower's input.

- Group-orientated Leadership Styles:

GII:

The leader meets with the followers as a group, explains the situation, and the decision is made on the basis of group consensus. The leader does not attempt to influence the group and is willing to implement any decision that has the support of the entire group. In the absence of consensus, the leader makes the final decision based on the input of the group.



2.4.5 Situational Leadership Model

Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard published the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership in 1969. In 1977 they published a revised version called the Situational Leadership Model. Unlike the other contingency theories, situational leadership is not called a theory by its authors, since it does not attempt to explain why things happen (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). The primary contingency variable of situational leadership is the maturity level of the follower. Like the Path-goal Theory, situational leadership does not have a leader variable, and the situational variable (task) is included within the follower variable because it is closely related to follower maturity. Task is therefore not included within the model as a separate variable (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

The situational leadership theory is used to determine which of four leadership styles (telling, selling, participating, and delegating) matches the situation (followers' maturity level to complete a specific task) to maximize performance (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) identified leadership in terms of two dimensions, namely, task (T) and relationship (R) which can either be high (H) or low (L), e.g. high task (HT). They also gave each leadership style a name: S1 – telling; S2 – selling; S3 – participating and S4 – delegating.

The Leadership Styles identified by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) can be described as follows:

- *Telling (S1) – high-task/low-relationship behaviour (HT/LR)*
This style is appropriate when leading followers with a low level of maturity (M1). When interacting with employees, the leader must give very detailed instructions, describing exactly what the task is and when, where, and how to perform it. The leader closely monitors performance and provides some support, but most of the time spent with followers is spent on giving instructions. The leader makes decisions without input from followers.



- *Selling (S2) – high-task/high –relationship behaviour (HT/HR).*

This style is appropriate when leading followers with a low to moderate level of maturity (M2). The leader gives specific instructions as well as monitors performance. At the same time, the leader supports the followers by explaining why the task should be performed as requested, as well as answering questions. The leader builds relationships whilst convincing the followers of the benefits of completing the task in accordance with the leader's wishes. The leader spends an equal amount of time between directing and providing support to followers. The leader may consult employees when making decisions.

- *Participating (S3) – low-task/high-relationship behaviour (LT/HR)*

This style is appropriate when leading followers with a moderate to high level of maturity (M3). Whilst interacting with followers, the leader does not spend a lot of time giving general directions, but spends most of the time on providing encouragement. The leader spends limited time monitoring performance, letting employees do the task their way while focusing on the end result. The leader supports followers by providing encouragement and building their self-confidence. If a task must be performed, the leader will encourage followers to explain how the task should be accomplished rather than instructing them as to how the task should be performed. The leader makes decisions together with his/her followers or allows the followers to make the decision.

- *Delegating (S4) involves low-task/low-relationship behaviour (LT/LR)*

This style is appropriate when leading followers with a high level of maturity (M4). When interacting with such followers, the leader merely advises them as to what must be achieved. The leader answers their questions but provides little, if any, direction. There is no necessity to monitor performance. The followers are highly motivated and require little, if any, support. The leader allows followers to make their own decisions. In order to make use of the Situational Leadership Model, the first requirement is to determine the maturity level of the follower(s) and then to choose the leadership style that matches the maturity level of the follower(s) (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).



The maturity of followers is measured on a continuum from low to high. The leader selects the capability level that best describes the followers' ability and willingness or confidence to complete a specific task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), the maturity levels of followers can be described as follows:

- Low (M1) – unable and unwilling or insecure
The followers can not or will not do the specific task without detailed direction and close supervision, or they are insecure and need supervision.
- Low to moderate (M2) – unable but willing or confident
The followers have moderate ability to complete the task, but require clear direction and support to get the task done properly. The followers may be highly motivated and willing, but still require task direction owing to a lack of skills.
- Moderate to high (M3) – able but unwilling or insecure
The followers possess high ability but may lack confidence owing to insecurity to perform the task. What they need most is support and encouragement to motivate them to complete the task.
- High (M4) – able and willing or confident
The followers are capable of performing the task without direction or support. They can be left on their own to do the job.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977) the maturity levels of followers can be matched to the most suitable leadership style in the following way:



Maturity Level of follower style

- M1 – Unable and unwilling or insecure
- M2 – Unable but willing or confident
- M3 – Able but unwilling or insecure
- M4 – Able, willing and confident

Most suitable leadership

- S1 Telling – HT/LR
- S2 Selling – HT/HR
- S3 Participating – LT/HR
- S4 Delegating – LT/LR

Employees usually start working at an M1 maturity level requiring clear direction and close supervision. As their ability to perform the job increases, the leader can begin to give less direction and be more supportive to develop a working relationship with the followers. Leaders should gradually develop their employees from M1 levels to M3 or M4 over time.

2.4.6 Research Results on Contingency Leadership Theories

Despite its ground-breaking start to contingency theory, Fiedler's work was criticized in the 1970's owing to inconsistent empirical findings and the inability to account for substantial variance in group performance (Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977). Over the past 20 years, numerous studies have been conducted to test the theory. According to Strube and Garcia (1981), the research results tend to support the theory, although not for every situation and not as strongly for field studies as for laboratory studies.

Hersey and Blanchard have not provided any conclusive evidence that those who use their model become more effective leaders with higher levels of performance (Cairns, Hollenback, Preziosi & Snow, 1998). Previous tests of the model have shown mixed results, indicating that the model may only be relevant for certain types of employee (Vecchio, 1987).

In general, the research results have been negatively impacted by a lack of accurate measures and weak research designs that do not permit strong inferences about direction of causality (Korman & Tanofsky, 1975; Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977).

Some behavioural scientists have questioned whether contingency theories have any applicability to help managers become more effective. For example, McCall (1977)



contends that the hectic pace of managerial work and the relative lack of control over it by managers' makes it impossible to apply complex theories that specify the optimal behaviour for every type of situation. Managers are so busy dealing with problems that they do not have time to pause and analyse the situation using a complicated model. McCall (1977) also questions the implicit assumption of most contingency theories that there is a single best way for the manager to act within a given situation. Managers face an immense variety of rapidly changing situations, and several different patterns of behaviour may be equally effective in the same situation. According to McCall (1977), the contingency theories do not provide sufficient guidance in the form of general principles to help managers recognize the underlying leadership requirements and choices in the myriad of fragmented activities and problems confronting them.

According to McCall (1977), the majority of the contingency theories are very complex and difficult to test. Each theory provides some insights into reasons for leadership effectiveness, but each theory also has conceptual weaknesses that limit their utility. A major limitation of the contingency theories is a lack of sufficient attention to some leadership processes that transform the way followers view themselves and their work (McCall, 1977).

2.5 EXAMPLES OF INTEGRATIVE LEADERSHIP THEORIES

2.5.1 Weber's Charismatic Leadership Theory

In 1947, Weber used the term *charisma* to explain a form of influence based on follower perceptions that the leader is endowed with the gift of divine inspiration or supernatural qualities (Weber, 1947). Charisma can be seen as a fire that ignites followers' energy and commitment, producing results above and beyond the call of duty (Klein & House, 1995). Charisma can be described as the influencing of followers resulting in major changes in their attitudes, assumptions and commitment (Yukl, 1998). According to Yukl (1998), charismatic leaders are more likely to come forward as leaders during times of great social crisis. They are often instrumental in focusing society's attention to the problem it faces by means of a radical vision that provides a solution.



2.5.2 House's Charismatic Leadership Theory

House (1977) developed a theory that explains charismatic leadership in terms of a set of verifiable propositions involving observable processes. The theory identifies how charismatic leaders behave, how they differ from other people as well as the conditions under which they are most likely to thrive. The inclusion of leadership traits, behaviour, and situational factors, makes this theory more comprehensive in scope than most other leadership theories. According to House (1977), the following indicators determine the extent to which a leader is charismatic:

- Followers' trust in the correctness of the leader's beliefs.
- Similarity of followers' beliefs to those of the leader.
- Unquestioning acceptance of the leader by followers.
- Followers' affection for the leader.
- Willing obedience to the leader by followers.
- Emotional involvement of followers in the mission of the organization.
- Heightened commitment of followers to performance goals.
- Followers believe that they are able to contribute to the success of the group's mission.

According to House's theory, charismatic leaders are likely to have a strong need for power, high self-confidence as well as strong beliefs and ideals. A strong need for power motivates the leader to attempt to influence followers. Self-confidence and strong beliefs increase the trust of followers in the leader's judgement. A leader without confidence and strong beliefs is less likely to try to influence people, and if an attempt is made to influence people, it is less likely to be successful (House, 1977).

Charismatic leaders are likely to engage in behaviours aimed at creating the impression among followers that the leader is competent and successful. Effective image management creates trust in the leader's decisions and increases willing obedience by followers. In the absence of effective image management any problems and setbacks may lead to a decline in follower confidence and undermine the leader's influence.

Charismatic leaders are likely to articulate ideological goals that are closely aligned to the mission of the group, as well as to shared values, ideals and aspirations of followers. By providing an appealing vision of what the future could be like, charismatic leaders give meaning to the work of the followers and inspire enthusiasm and excitement among followers.

According to House (1977), charismatic leaders are likely to set an example in their own behaviour for followers to imitate. This role modelling involves more than just imitation of leader behaviour. If followers admire and identify with a leader, they are likely to emulate the leader's beliefs and values. Through this process, charismatic leaders are able to exert considerable influence on the satisfaction and motivation of followers (House, 1977).

Charismatic leaders are likely to communicate high expectations regarding follower performance and at the same time express confidence in followers. Leaders with strong referent power can influence followers to set higher performance goals and gain their commitment to these goals. Such commitment will however not occur unless the goals are perceived by followers to be realistic and attainable. If followers lack confidence in their ability to meet the leader's high expectations, they may resist the leader's attempts to influence them. The expression of confidence and beliefs by the leader are then questioned. Charismatic leadership is more likely to be found in a new organization struggling to survive, or an old one that is failing, than in an old organization that is highly successful (House, 1977).

2.5.3 Conger and Kanungo's Charismatic Leadership Theory

Conger and Kanungo (1987) developed a theory of charismatic leadership based on the assumption that charisma is an attribute. Followers attribute certain charismatic qualities to a leader based on their observations of the leader's behaviour. Conger and Kanungo identified aspects of leadership behaviour responsible for these attributes, based on research findings comparing charismatic and non-charismatic leaders. The behaviours are not believed to be present to the same extent in each charismatic leader.

According to Friedland (1964) the major features of the theory can be summarized as follows:

- *Extremity of vision:* Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who advocate a vision that is very different from the status quo, but still within the latitude of acceptance by followers. Non-charismatic leaders typically support the status quo, or advocate only small, incremental change. A vision that involves only a small deviation from current assumptions and strategies does not clearly set the leader apart from others. However, followers will not accept a vision that is too radical, and the leader may be viewed as incompetent or crazy (Friedland, 1964).
- *High personal risk:* Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who make self-sacrifices, take personal risks and incur high costs to achieve the shared vision they support. Trust appears to be an important component of charisma and followers tend to have more trust in a leader who advocates their strategy in a manner reflecting concern for followers rather than self-interest. A true charismatic leader is a leader who actually risks substantial personal loss in terms of status, money or leadership position (Friedland, 1964).
- *Use of unconventional strategies:* Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who act in unconventional ways to achieve the shared vision. The leader must make use of unconventional strategies to achieve the desired goal in order to impress followers and convince them that the leader is extraordinary. The uniqueness of a leader's vision involves unconventional strategies as well as objectives (Friedland, 1964).
- *Accurate assessment of the situation:* The risks inherent in the use of unconventional strategies make it important for the leader to have the skills and expertise to make a realistic assessment of the environmental constraints and opportunities involved in the successful implementation of the strategies. Timing is critical since the same strategy may succeed in a certain situation at a particular time, but may fail completely if implemented in a different situation at another time. Leaders must be sensitive to the needs and values of followers, as well as to the environment, in order to identify a vision that is innovative, relevant, timely and appealing (Friedland, 1964).



- *Follower disenchantment:* Charismatic leaders are more likely to emerge when there is a crisis requiring major change or when followers are otherwise dissatisfied with the status quo. Even in the absence of a crisis, a leader may be able to create dissatisfaction with current conditions, and simultaneously provide a vision of a more promising future. The impact of unconventional strategies is greater when followers perceive that conventional approaches are no longer effective. The leader can convince followers that the conventional approaches are no longer effective by discrediting the old, accepted ways of doing things in order to set the stage for proposing new ways (Friedland, 1964).
- *Communication of self-confidence:* Leaders who appear confident about their proposals are more likely to be viewed as charismatic than leaders who appear doubtful and confused. The success of an innovative strategy may be attributed more to luck than to expertise if the leader fails to communicate confidence. A leader's confidence and enthusiasm can be contagious. Followers who believe that the leader knows how to attain the shared objective will work harder to implement the leader's strategy, thereby increasing the actual probability of success (Friedland, 1964).
- *Use of personal power:* Leaders are more likely to be viewed as charismatic if they influence followers with expert power based on advocacy of successful, unconventional changes, and referent power based on perceived dedication to followers (Friedland, 1964).

2.5.4 Burns' Theory of Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978, p.20) described transformational leadership as a process in which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation." Transformational leaders appeal to higher ideals and moral values of followers such as liberty, justice, equality, peace and humanitarianism. In terms of Maslow's (1954) needs-hierarchy theory, transformational leaders activate higher-order needs in followers. Followers are elevated from their "everyday selves to their better selves". According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership may be exhibited by anyone in an organization in any type of position.



Burns (1978), contrasts transformational leadership with transactional leadership. Transactional leaders motivate followers by appealing to their self-interest. Transactional leaders in the corporate environment exchange pay and status for work effort. Transactional leadership involves values, but they are values relevant to the exchange process, such as honesty, responsibility and reciprocity. Influence in transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority. Bureaucratic organizations emphasize legitimate power and respect for rules and tradition, rather than influence based on exchange or inspiration.

According to Burns (1978), leadership is a process, not a set of discrete acts. Burns (1978, p.440) described leadership as “a stream of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational responses from followers and modifying their behaviour as they meet responsiveness or resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counter flow.” According to Burns, transformational leadership can be viewed both as an influence process between individuals and as a process of mobilizing power to change social systems and reform institutions. At the macro level, transformational leadership involves shaping, expressing, and mediating conflict among groups of people in addition to motivating individuals.

2.5.5 Bass' Theory of Transformational Leadership

Bass (1985) defines transformational leadership primarily in terms of the leader's impact on followers. Followers trust, admire and respect the leader, and they are therefore motivated to do more than what was originally expected. According to Bass (1985) a leader can transform followers by:

- Making them more aware of the importance and value of task outcomes.
- Inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team.
- Activating their higher-order needs.

Bass (1985) views transformational leadership as more than just another term for charisma. According to Bass (1985, p.31), “charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership, but by itself it is not sufficient to account for the transformational process.” Transformational leaders influence followers by arousing strong

emotions and identification with the leader, but they may also transform followers by serving as a coach, teacher and mentor.

The conceptions of transformational leadership proposed by Bass and Burns are similar in many respects, but there are some differences. Initially, Burns (1978) limits transformational leadership to enlightened leaders who appeal to positive moral values and higher-order needs of followers. In contrast, Bass (1985) views a transformational leader as somebody who activates follower motivation and increases follower commitment. Bass does not exclude leaders who appeal to lower-order needs such as safety, subsistence, and economic needs.

With respect to transformational leadership, there are also similarities and also some differences in the conceptions of the two theorists. Similar to Burns, Bass views transactional leadership as an exchange of rewards for compliance. However, Bass defines transactional leadership in broader terms than Burns does. According to Bass, it includes not only the use of incentives and contingent rewards to influence motivation, but also clarification of the work required to obtain rewards. Bass (1985) views transformational and transactional leadership as distinct but not mutually exclusive processes, and he recognizes that the same leader may use both types of leadership at different times in different situations.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) identified through their research the following common themes in terms of effective transformational leadership:

– *Development of a vision*

Transformational leaders channel the energy of followers in pursuit of a common vision. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985) these leaders “move followers to higher degrees of consciousness, such as liberty, freedom, justice, and self-actualization” (p. 218). Examples from historical leaders include Martin Luther King, Jr. (“I have a dream”), and President John Kennedy’s goal of “putting a man on the moon by 1970.”



A clear and appealing vision serves some important functions such as inspiring followers by giving their work meaning and appealing to their fundamental human need to be important, to feel useful and to be part of a worthwhile enterprise. A vision also facilitates decision making, initiative and discretion by followers.

– *Development of commitment and trust*

To identify a coherent and appealing vision is not enough. It must be communicated and embodied within the culture of the organization. A vision must be conveyed by means of persuasion and inspiration, not by edict or coercion. Effective transformational leaders make use of a combination of captivating rhetoric, metaphors, slogans, symbols and rituals. President Reagan is an example of a leader who made effective use of anecdotes and metaphors, in contrast with President Carter, who “never made the meaning come through the facts” (Bennis, 1985, p.17).

The vision must be repeated in different ways and at different levels of detail, from a vague mission statement to detailed plans and policies. The vision must be reinforced by the decisions and actions of the leader. Changes must be made in organization structure and management processes, consistent with the values and objectives contained in the vision. The process of gaining commitment should start at the top of the organization with the executive team. Executives should participate in the process of reshaping the organization’s culture, based on the vision.

Commitment to the vision by followers is closely related to their level of trust in the leader. It is unlikely that a leader who is not trusted can successfully gain commitment to a new vision for the organization. Trust is dependent not only on the perceived expertise of the leader, but it also depends on the leader’s consistency in statements and behaviour. Leaders, who frequently move positions and express contradictory values, undermine the trust and confidence of followers. Inconsistency reduces the clarity of the vision, and lack of confidence in the leader reduces the appeal of the vision. Leaders demonstrate commitment to values

through their own behaviour and by the way they reinforce such behaviour as well as by the way they reinforce the behaviour of others (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

– *Facilitation of organizational learning*

One prominent theme found by Bennis and Nanus (1985) was the importance of both individual and organizational learning. Effective leaders did a number of things to develop their skills and increase the knowledge gained from experience of success and failure. They recognized the necessity of continually gathering information about changes in the business environment. They forced themselves to examine their assumptions and they tested their ideas by asking for feedback from colleagues and outside experts. They created an information sharing network and initiated research to gather information required for effective strategic planning. They made use of experimentation in order to encourage innovation and to test new products and procedures. They viewed mistakes as a normal part of doing things and used them as opportunities to learn and develop. In order to facilitate learning by other members of the organization, the leaders encouraged managers reporting to them to extend their time horizons, e.g., by requiring them to make five-year plans, and sponsored seminars to develop planning skills and heighten awareness of environmental changes and trends.

Research done by Tichy and Devanna (1986) indicated that effective transformational leaders have the following competencies:

- They see themselves as risk-takers;
- They are prudent risk-takers;
- They believe in people and are sensitive to their needs;
- They have a set of clear core values which guide their behaviour;
- They are flexible and open to learn from experience;
- They possess strong cognitive skills and believe in disciplined thinking;
- They are visionaries who trust their intuition.



2.5.6 Servant-leadership

Servant-leadership is an employee-focused form of leadership which empowers followers to make decisions and keep control of their jobs. Servant-leadership is leadership that transcends self-interest in order to serve the needs of others, by helping them grow professionally and emotionally (Daft, 1999).

The focus of servant-leadership is on empowering followers to exercise leadership in accomplishing the organization's goals. Traditional leadership theories emphasize the leader-follower structure, in which the follower accepts responsibility from the leader and is accountable to the leader. The non-traditional view of leadership however, views the leader as a steward and servant of the employees and the organization. It is less about direction or controlling and more about focusing on helping followers do their jobs, rather than to have followers help the managers do their jobs (Greenleaf, 1997).

Servant-leadership requires a relationship between leaders and followers in which leaders lead without dominating or controlling followers. Leaders and followers work together in a mutually supportive environment in order to achieve organizational goals. According to Greenleaf (1997) the key to servant-leadership is based on the following four supporting values:

- *Strong teamwork orientation*
Servant-leadership works best in situations where self-managed teams of employees and leaders work together in formulating goals and strategies to deal with a changing environment and marketplace. The leader's role is less dominant and more supportive of the process.
- *Decentralized decision-making and power*
Servant-leadership is evident when authority and decision-making are decentralized down to where the work gets done and employees interact with customers. Servant-leadership has a great chance to succeed in an environment where employees are empowered and have a good relationship with their managers. The absence of this value renders stewardship impossible.



- *Equality assumption*

Servant-leadership works best when there is perceived equality between leaders and followers. It is a partnership of equals rather than a leader-follower command structure. The applicability of servant-leadership is enhanced as leaders find opportunities to serve rather than manage. Honesty, respect and mutual trust will be evident when equality prevails. These are values that enhance the success of stewardship.

- *Reward assumption*

Servant-leadership places greater responsibility in the hands of employees. Servant-leaders are known not for their great deeds, but for empowering others to achieve great deeds. Servant-leaders offer the best chance for organizations to succeed and grow in today's dynamic environment because these leaders do not only lead, but also coach followers to do the leading. The strong focus on people is what encourages followers to be more creative, energetic, and committed to their jobs.

Servant-leaders approach leadership from a strong moral standpoint. The servant leader operates from the viewpoint that everybody has a moral duty to one another. (Hosner, 1995) Leadership can be seen as an opportunity to serve at ground level, not to lead from the top (Hosner, 1995).

According to Greenleaf (1997) the following behaviours are typical of servant-leadership:

- *Helping others discover their inner spirit*

The servant-leader's role is to help followers discover the strength of their inner spirit and their potential to make a difference. This requires servant-leaders to be empathetic to the circumstances of others. Servant-leaders are not afraid to show their vulnerabilities



- *Earning and keeping others' trust*
Servant-leaders earn followers' trust by being honest and true to their word. They have no hidden agendas and they are willing to give up power and control.
- *Service over self-interest*
The hallmark of servant-leadership is the desire to help others, rather than the desire to attain power and control over others. Doing what's right for others takes precedence over self interest. Servant-leaders make decisions to further the good of the group rather than promote their own interests.
- *Effective listening*
Servant-leaders do not impose their will on the group, but rather listen carefully to the problems others are facing and then engage the group to find the best solution. Servant-leaders have confidence in others.

Spears (2002) describes servant-leadership as a long-term, transformational approach to life and work that has the potential for creating positive change throughout society and organizations.

According to Spears (2002), the following ten competencies are critical for servant-leadership:

- Listening – The servant-leader seeks to identify the will of a group and to help clarify that will;
- Empathy – The servant-leader strives to understand others and empathize with them;
- Healing – Servant-leaders recognize that they have an opportunity to help those with problems, with whom they come into contact. They help them to heal and become “whole” again since many people experience personal problems;
- Awareness – Servant-leaders have a high level of awareness, especially self-awareness;



- Persuasion – Servant-leaders rely on persuasion, rather than positional power in the making of decisions;
- Conceptualization – Servant-leaders show the ability to think beyond day-to-day realities;
- Foresight – This enables servant-leaders to understand the lessons from the past, the realities of the present and the likely consequence of a decision for the future;
- Stewardship – Servant-leaders are committed to serve the needs of others;
- Commitment to the growth of people – Servant-leaders believe that people have an intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions as workers;
- Building community – Servant-leaders seek to identify some means of building community among those who work within a organization.

2.5.7 Research Results on Integrative Leadership Theories

In one laboratory experiment, several actors were coached to display people-orientated, autocratic or charismatic behaviours as leaders of four-person work groups (Howell & Grost, 1998). In one instance, actors exhibiting charismatic behaviour acted confidently and expressed high confidence in followers, set high performance targets, empowered followers, and empathised with the needs of followers. The results revealed that the four-person work group of charismatic leaders had higher performance and satisfaction levels than the four-person work groups having an autocratic or people-orientated leader who did not exhibit the same leadership traits (Howell & Grost, 1998). While some researchers have used these findings to argue that it is possible to train leaders to be more charismatic, others think it is still too early to make such a claim (Bass, 1996). Since the actors playing the role of leaders in the study were not trained to exhibit both high-task and high-relationship behaviours, it is uncertain whether the followers of charismatic leaders would have higher performance or satisfaction levels than followers of people-orientated or autocratic leaders (Bass, 1996). However, the very fact that it is possible for actors to exhibit certain charismatic leadership behaviours through training and coaching, lends support to the notion that these are trainable behaviours.

Collectively, the interactive leadership theories appear to make an important contribution to our understanding of leadership processes. They provide an explanation for the

exceptional influence some leaders have on subordinates, a level of influence not clearly explained by earlier theories of instrumental leadership or situational leadership.

Some of the later theories of leadership reflect themes that can be found in theories from the 1960's. For example, the importance of developing and empowering subordinates echoes the emphasis on power sharing, mutual trust, teamwork, participation, and supportive relationships by writers such as Argyris (1964), McGregor (1960), and Likert (1967).

According to writers such as Beyer (1999), Bryman (1993), and Yukl (1999), most of the theories of transformational and charismatic leadership lack sufficient specification of underlying influence processes. The self-concept theory of charismatic leadership provides the most detailed explanation of leader influence on followers, but even this theory requires more clarification of how the various types of influence processes interact, their relative importance, and whether they are mutually compatible.

More attention should also be given to situational variables that determine whether transformational or charismatic leadership will occur and whether they will be effective (Beyer, 1999; Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1999). Some progress has been made in identifying situational variables that may be relevant for charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Shamir & Howell, 1999; Trice & Beyer, 1986). Only a small number of empirical studies have actually examined contextual variables (e.g., Bass, 1996; House *et al.*, 1991; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Klein & House, 1995; Pillai, 1996; Pillai & Meindl, 1998; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Roberts & Bradley, 1988; Waldman, Ramirez, & House, 1997).

The empirical research relevant to the theories of transformational leadership has generally been supportive, but few studies have examined the underlying influence processes that account for the positive relationship found between leader behaviour and follower performance. More research is required in order to determine the conditions in which different types of transformational behaviour are most relevant as well as the underlying influence processes that make them relevant.



2.6 EXEMPLARY LEADERSHIP

Kouzes and Posner (2002) discovered through their studies of leadership experiences that successful leaders have certain behaviours in common. They developed a model of leadership based on this common behaviour which they called (The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership.”

The five practices of exemplary leadership identified by Kouzes and Posner (2002) are the following:

- **Model the way**
To effectively model the behaviours which are expected of others, leaders must first be clear about their own guiding principles. Leaders must find their own voice and then they must clearly and distinctively express their values.
- **Inspire a shared vision**
Leaders inspire a shared vision. They desire to make something happen, to change the way things are, to create something that no one else has ever created before. Leaders breathe life into the hopes and dreams of others and enable them to see the possibilities which the future holds.
- **Challenge the process**
Leaders are pioneers – they are willing to step out into the unknown. They search for opportunities to innovate, grow and improve. They learn from their mistakes as well as from their successes.
- **Enable others to act**
Leadership is a team effort. Exemplary leaders enable others to act. They foster collaboration and build trust.
- **Encourage the heart**
Leaders encourage their followers to carry on despite setbacks. They build a strong sense of collective identification and community spirit that can carry a group through exceptionally tough times.



3. CONCLUSION

Research and resultant theory on how organizations evolve and adapt to a changing environment suggests that the mix of skills required for effective leadership may change over time. The skills required by an entrepreneurial manager to build a new organization are not identical to the skills required by the chief executive of a large, established organization. The skills required to lead an organization in a stable, supportive environment are not identical to the skills needed to lead an organization facing a turbulent, competitive environment (Hunt, 1991; Lord & Maher, 1991; Quinn, 1992).

The nature of management and leadership is changing owing to the unprecedented changes affecting organizations. In an effort to cope with these changes, managers may still need the traditional competencies, as well as additional competencies (Conger, 1994; Hunt, 1991; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1995). As the pace of globalisation, technological development, and social change keeps on increasing, there appears to be a premium on competencies such as cognitive complexity, emotional and social intelligence, self-awareness, cultural sensitivity, behavioural flexibility and the ability to learn from experience and adapt to change. These are typical transformational leadership competencies as described by Tichy and Devanna (1986).

Spears (2002, p.2) summarises the relevance of the integrative leadership theories for learning organizations in the 21st century very well when he writes:

In these early years of the twenty-first century, we are beginning to see that traditional, autocratic, and hierarchical modes of leadership are yielding to a newer model – one based on teamwork and community, one that seeks to involve others in decision making, one strongly based in ethical and caring behaviour and one that is attempting to enhance the personal growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of our many institutions.



In this research the leadership competencies and behaviour measured by means of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire, is based on the Transformational Leadership Theory since transformational leadership is required in organizations functioning in a changing environment such as in the organization in which the research was done.