

# The utilisation of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire as part of a Leadership Development Model and Process

Juanita van Wyk

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor Philosophiae Psychology

Department of Psychology
Faculty of Humanities
University of Pretoria

**Supervisor : Professor David Maree** 

September 2007



## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

SUM	MARY.		. 10	
OPS	ОММІМ	G	. 14	
СПУ	DTED 4	INTRODUCTION, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH		
СПА	FIERI	OBJECTIVES	12	
1.	INITD	ODUCTION		
2.		ANIZATIONAL CHALLENGES		
3.		ERSHIP ROLES IN A LEARNING ORGANIZATION OF THE TWENTY-	19	
J.		FIRST CENTURY		
	3.1	Systems Thinker		
	3.2	Change Agent		
	3.3	Innovator and Risk-taker		
	3.4	Servant and Steward		
	3.5	Coordinator		
	3.6	Coach and Mentor	26	
	3.7	Visionary	27	
4.	RESE	ARCH BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT	27	
5.	RESE	ARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES	29	
6.	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK			
	6.1	High Performance Leadership Competencies	30	
	6.2	Social Learning Theory	31	
7.	RESE	ARCH APPROACH AND PROCESS	32	
8.	SUM	MARY	35	
CHA	PTER 2	LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT MODEL AND PROCESS –		
		THEORETICAL OVERVIEW	. 36	
1.	INTRODUCTION		36	
2.	A HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT			
	2.1	LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES	43	
	2.2	ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK	45	

		2.2.1	The Assessment and Feedback process	. 46	
		2.2.2	The importance of Structured Feedback	. 46	
		2.2.3	Implementation of a 360° Assessment and Feedback Process	. 48	
		2.2.4	Benefits of 360°Assessment and Feedback	. 50	
		2.2.5	The Importance of Feedback	. 50	
		2.2.6	Effective Feedback	. 51	
		2.2.7	Best Practices in 360°Assessment and Feedback	. 52	
		2.2.8	Pitfalls of 360°Assessment and Feedback	. 53	
		2.2.9	The Future of 360° Feedback	. 55	
		2.2.10	Summary	. 56	
	2.3	DEVEL	OPMENT PLANNING	. 57	
		2.3.1	Introduction	. 57	
		2.3.2	Compiling a Development Plan	. 57	
	2.4	DEVEL	OPMENT EXPERIENCES/ACTIONS	. 58	
		2.4.1	Introduction	. 58	
		2.4.2	Approaches to Leadership Development	. 59	
		2.4.3	Other types of Development Action	. 66	
	2.5	GROW <sup>*</sup>	TH AND DEVELOPMENT	. 69	
	2.6	LEADE	RSHIP CAPABILITIES	. 70	
		2.6.1	Knowledge Acquisition	. 71	
		2.6.2	Self-awareness	. 71	
		2.6.3	Perspective change	. 72	
		2.6.4	Skills Development.	. 73	
		2.6.5	Behaviour Change	. 73	
	2.7	MONIT	ORING AND REVIEWING PROGRESS	. 74	
3.	GROU	JP AND	ORGANIZATIONAL IMPACT OF THE MODEL	. 74	
4.	LINKII	NG THE	MODEL TO HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS. $\dots$	. 75	
5.	SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL				
6.	THE F	UTURE	OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT	. 76	
7.	SUMN	//ARY A	ND CONCLUSION	. 77	



CHA	PTER	3 THE I	MPLEMENTATION OF THE HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADE	ERSHIP		
		DEV	ELOPMENT AS PART OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT	81		
1.	INTR	RODUCT	ION	81		
2.	IMPL	IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP				
	DEV	DEVELOPMENT.				
	2.1	LEADE	ERSHIP COMPETENCIES	81		
	2.2	ASSES	SSMENT AND FEEDBACK	82		
	2.3	DEVE	LOPMENT PLANNING	82		
	2.4	DEVE	LOPMENT EXPERIENCES/ACTIONS	82		
	2.5	GROW	VTH AND DEVELOPMENT	83		
	2.6	LEADE	ERSHIP CAPABILITIES	84		
	2.7	MONI	FORING AND REVIEWING PROGRESS	84		
3.	ACT	ACTIONS TAKEN TO ENSURE THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF THE				
	MOD	EL		85		
4.	SUM	IMARY A	ND CONCLUSION	86		
СНА	PTER	4 LEAD	ERSHIP THEORIES AND MODELS	88		
1.	INTR	RODUCT	ION	88		
2.	LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGEMENT					
	2.1	LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND MODELS9				
	2.2 EXAM		PLES OF TRAIT THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP	98		
		2.2.1	Achievement Motivation Theory	99		
		2.2.2	Theory X and Theory Y	102		
		2.2.3	Research results on trait theories	102		
	2.3	EXAM	PLES OF BEHAVIOURAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES	107		
		2.3.1	Leadership Style Theory	108		
		2.3.2	Ohio State University Leadership Theory	110		
		2.3.3	University of Michigan Leadership Theory	111		
		2.3.4	Leadership Grid Theory	111		
		2.3.5	Research Results on Behavioural Leadership Theories	113		
	2.4	EXAM	PLES OF CONTINGENCY LEADERSHIP THEORIES	117		
		2.4.1	Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Theory	117		

		2.4.2	Leadership Continuum Theory and Model	117
		2.4.3	Path-goal Leadership Theory	119
		2.4.4	Normative Leadership Theory	121
		2.4.5	Situational Leadership Model	123
		2.4.6	Research Results on Contingency Leadership Theories	126
	2.5	EXAM	PLES OF INTEGRATIVE LEADERSHIP THEORIES	127
		2.5.1	Weber's Charismatic Leadership Theory	127
		2.5.2	House's Charismatic Leadership Theory	128
		2.5.3	Conger and Kanungo's Charismatic Leadership Theory	129
		2.5.4	Burns' Theory of Transformational Leadership	131
		2.5.5	Bass' Theory of Transformational Leadership	132
		2.5.6	Servant-leadership	136
		2.5.7	Research Results on Integrative Leadership Theories	139
		2.6	EXEMPLARY LEADERSHIP	
3.	CON	ICLUSIO	N	142
СНА	PTER	5 LEAD	ERSHIP COMPETENCIES AND ASSESSMENT	144
1.			ION	
2.	BAC	KGROUI	ND TO THE HIGH PERFORMANCE TRANSFORMATIONAL	
	LEA	DERSHII	P COMPETENCIES	145
3.	DEV	ELOPME	ENT OF THE HIGH PERFORMANCE LEADERSHIP	
	COM	1PETEN	CIES (HPLCs)	146
	3.1	The co	ognitive (or thinking) competencies	146
	3.2	Summ	ary of Schroder's High Performance Leadership Competencies.	150
	3.3	Validity	y of the High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLCs)	152
	3.4	The Hi	igh Performance Leadership Competencies in the South African	
		contex	t	152
4.	APP	LICATIO	N OF THE HIGH PERFORMANCE LEADERSHIP COMPETEN	CIES
	IN T	HE ORG	ANIZATION WHERE THE RESEARCH WAS CONDUCTED	153
	4.1	Introdu	uction	153
	4.2	Custor	mization of the High Performance Leadership Competencies	153
5.	LINK	BETWE	EN THE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES AND THE	
	TRA	NSFORM	MATIONAL AND SERVANT LEADERSHIP THEORIES	162

6.	DEVI	DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ)			
	6.1	INTRODUCTION			
	6.2	PROCESS FOLLOWED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEADERS	SHIP		
		ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ)	164		
	6.3	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE LAQ	166		
7.	REAS	SONS FOR SELECTING A 360° LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT			
	QUE	QUESTIONNAIRE AS A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT 1			
8.	THE	THE USE OF THE LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ) AS			
	PAR	T OF THIS STUDY	172		
9.	SUM	MARY AND CONCLUSION	173		
		6 RESEARCH METHOD, PROCEDURE AND RESULTS			
1.	INTR	ODUCTION	175		
2.	RESI	RESEARCH METHOD			
	2.1	RESEARCH DESIGN	175		
	2.2	RESEARCH SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION	176		
	2.3	RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	178		
	2.4	ANALYSIS OF THE 360° LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT RESULTS	182		
3.	RESI	RESEARCH RESULTS1			
	3.1	Scale 1: Integrity	187		
	3.2	Scale 5: Purpose Building	189		
	3.3	Scale 7: Information Capacity	191		
	3.4	Scale 7: Information Capacity	193		
	3.5	Scale 8: Conceptual Ability	195		
	3.6	Scale 8: Conceptual Ability	197		
	3.7	Scale 9: Visionary Thinking	199		
	3.8	Scale 9: Visionary Thinking	201		
	3.9	Scale 10: Business Acumen	203		
	3.10	Scale 10: Business Acumen	205		
	3.11	Scale 13: People Development	207		
	3.12	Scale 14: Performance Achievement	209		



	3.13	Scale 15: Empowerment			
	3.14	Scale 15: Empowerment			
4.	SUMN	MARY OF TRENDS AND PATTERNS IDENTIFIED IN THE RESEARCH 215			
5.	INTER	RPRETATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS218			
6.	UTILIS	SATION OF THE 360° LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT RESULTS IN THE			
	HOLIS	STIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT220			
	6.1	ASSESSMENT RESULTS OF DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP GROUPS 220 $$			
	6.2	INTERPRETATION OF ASSESSMENT RESULTS AND			
		RECOMMENDATIONS			
	6.3	OVERALL COMPANY ASSESSMENT RESULTS 225			
	6.4	INTERPRETATION OF OVERALL COMPANY ASSESSMENT RESULTS			
		AND RECOMMENDATIONS			
7.	RECC	MMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER ENHANCEMENTS AND RESEARCH . 229			
8.	SUMN	MARY AND CONCLUSION229			
BIBLI	OGRA	PHY232			
APPE	NDIX A	LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ)253			
APPE	NDIX E	3 360°LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT FEEDBACK REPORT			
		STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF ASSESSMENT RESULTS270			
APPENDIX D EXAMPLE OF A DEVELOPMENT PLAN					
		E LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES: DEFINITIONS AND BEHAVIOUR			
		S 288			
APPE	APPENDIX F 360°LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES FOR LEAD ERS 296				
APPE	NDIX (	PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING GUIDELINES 309			
<b>APPE</b>	APPENDIX H SELF-DEVELOPMENT GUIDELINES FOR LEADERS 316				



## **LIST OF TABLES**

Table 4.1	Comparison Between Management and Leadership	94
Table 4.2	Personal Characteristics of Successful Leaders	107
Table 5.1	High Performance Leadership Competencies	151
Table 5.2	Comparison Between the High Performance Leadership Competencie	s
	and the Customised High Performance Leadership Competencies Add	pted
	by the Organisation where the Research was Conducted	160
Table 5.3	Distribution of Raters for the Validation of the LAQ	163
Table 5.4	Means and standard deviations of the LAQ for the total group as well	
	as per rater	165
Table 5.5	Means and Standard Deviations of the LAQ for the total group as well	as per
	rater	167
Table 5.6	Coefficient Alphas for each Dimension of the LAQ by rater	168
Table 5.7	Similarities between the Leadership Competencies Measured in this	
	Research and the Transformational and Servant-leadership Theories	169
Table 6.1	Average Rating per year of each Leadership Competency	226
LIST OF FI	GURES	
Figure 2.1	Holistic Model for Leadership Development	39
Figure 4.1	Leadership Traits	104
Figure 4.2	Leadership Continuum	109
Figure 4.3	The Leadership Grid	112
Figure 4.4	Leadership Styles	119
Figure 5.1	Leadership Model	162



#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to thank the following people for their respective contributions in making this thesis a success:

- My study leader, Professor David Maree for his competent guidance;
- Rina Owen for her assistance with the statistical analysis of the research data;
- My typist, Beatrix Fourie, for making all the numerous changes without complaint;
- My friends, family and colleagues for their sincere interest and encouragement;
- Peter Lötter, who improved the linguistic standard and readability of this thesis;
- My husband, Pieter, for his encouragement and support.



#### **SUMMARY**

The immense changes in the economic environment caused by globalization and technology have forced organizations from around the world to transform in order to adapt, survive, and succeed in the changing world of the new millennium.

These changes are not only in the external elements of the organization – its products, activities, or structures – but also in its intrinsic way of operating – its values, mind-set, even its primary purpose. Organizations must learn faster and adapt to the rapid change in the new environment or they will not survive (De Vries, 2001; Ellis & Pennington, 2004).

According to Senge (1990b), learning organizations demand a new view of leadership. In a learning organization, leaders are designers, stewards, and teachers. They are responsible for the building of organizations where employees continually expand their capabilities to understand complexity, clarify vision, and improve shared mental models – that is, the leaders are responsible for learning.

Leaders in learning organizations must help employees see the big picture, with its underlying trends, forces, and potential surprises. They need to think systematically and be able to foresee how internal and external factors might benefit or destroy the organization (Senge 1990b).

Autocratic leadership behaviour, focused on exercising top-down control is more successful in stable environments. Transformational leadership behaviour focused on giving inspiration through the marshalling of ideas, creativity, and the initiative of its employees, is more successful in competitive, changing environments (Cockerill, Schroder & Hunt, 1998).

The focus of this research has been on the measurement of leadership behaviour as part of the implementation of a holistic model and process in an organization that has to function in a competitive, changing environment. A 360° leadership assessment questionnaire has been used to conduct the research.



A set of fifteen transformational leadership competencies have been identified by the organization where the research was conducted as the leadership competencies that will enable the organizations' leaders to be effective, successful leaders in a dynamic, changing and competitive business environment. Based on the identified set of leadership competencies, a 360° Leadership Assessment Question naire (LAQ) was developed and validated. The LAQ was used to measure leadership behaviour in the organization under research annually over a period of three years as part of the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development.

The objectives of this research were the following:

- To measure leadership behaviour by means of a 360° leadership assessment questionnaire as part of the implementation of a holistic model for leadership development;
- To track the overall changes in leadership behaviour over a period of three years in order to determine if the implementation of a holistic model and process had a positive impact on leadership behaviour over a extended period of time;
- To analyse and describe the trends and patterns in leadership behaviour based on the results of the 360° leadership assessment questionnaire conducted over a period of three years;
- To describe the elements and implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development.

The quantitative statistical analysis of the 360° leadership assessment data indicated statistically significant differences in nine of the fifteen transformational leadership competencies that were measured in the 360° Leaders hip Assessment Questionnaire. All the ratings showing statistically significant differences were identified, interpreted and discussed.

The following trends and patterns were identified, based on the statistical analysis of the research data:



- Top Management (M2-3) received consistently higher ratings than the other management levels;
- Middle Managers (M5-6) received significantly lower ratings than the other management levels in terms of integrity, purpose building, information capacity, conceptual ability, business acumen and empowering;
- Female leaders received significantly lower ratings than male leaders in terms of information capacity, people development and empowering. Although females were rated higher than their male counterparts by their supervisors, all the other rater groups rated female leaders lower than male leaders on these competencies;
- Leaders in the age group 25-40 years received the highest ratings on business acumen and visionary thinking;
- Leaders in the age group 41 50 years were rated the highest by all the rater groups on conceptual ability;
- African (Black) leaders were rated significantly higher on visionary thinking in years
   1, 2 and 3 than leaders from other race groups.

The company overall results indicated an improvement in most of the competencies, except for integrity and self-responsibility which stayed the same. Motivational capacity is the only competency where there has been an improvement in year 2 and a decline in year 3.

The competencies on which leaders received the lowest ratings are motivational capacity, people development, visionary thinking and empowerment.

The overall trend on the overall 360° leadership as sessment results over a period of three years clearly indicates an improvement in all the competencies, except for motivational capacity, integrity and self-responsibility. These trends and patterns were utilised to determine what type of development interventions and programmes are needed in the organization to facilitate leadership development in the context of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development. The improvement in the overall 360° leadership assessment results also indicates the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership



development has led to an improvement of the overall leadership capability of the organization where the research was conducted.

## Keywords

- Learning organization
- Leadership
- Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ)
- Leadership behaviour
- 360°Leadership assessment and feedback
- Leadership competencies
- Leadership development
- High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLCs)
- Holistic Model for Leadership Development
- Development planning
- Development actions



#### **OPSOMMING**

Die omvangryke veranderinge in die ekonomiese omgewing veroorsaak deur globalisering en tegnologiese veranderinge, het organisasies wêreldwyd gedwing om te verander ten einde aan te pas, te oorleef en suksesvol te kan funksioneer in die vinnig veranderende wêreld van die nuwe milennium.

Hierdie verandering raak nie net die eksterne aspekte van organisasies soos hulle produkte, aktiwiteite en strukture nie, maar ook die intrinsieke aspekte soos die waardes, denkpatrone en selfs ook die primêre doel van organisasies. Organisasies moet vinniger leer en aanpas by die veranderinge in die omgewing ten einde te kan voortbestaan (De Vries, 2001; Elis & Pennington, 2004).

Volgens Senge (1990b) lerende organisasies vereis 'n nuwe siening van leierskap. In 'n lerende organisasie is leiers ontwerpers, dienaars en opvoeders. Hulle is verantwoordelik om 'n werksomgewing te skep waar werknemers deurlopend hulle vermoëns verbeter om kompleksiteit te verstaan, visie duidelik te maak en gemeenskaplike denkpatrone te verbeter – hulle is gevolglik verantwoordelik vir leer.

Leiers in lerende organisasies moet werknemers help om die groter prentjie te verstaan met die gepaardgaande tendense, invloede en onvoorspelbaarhede. Hulle moet sistemies kan dink en voorsien hoe eksterne faktore die organisasie moontlik kan bevoordeel of vernietig (Senge 1990b).

Autokratiese leierskap wat gefokus is op kontrole in hierargiese strukture, is meer suksesvol in stabiele omgewings. Transformatiewe leierskap wat gefokus is om mense te inspireer deur die gebruik van die idees, kreatiwiteit en inisiatief van werknemers, is meer suksesvol in kompeterende, vinnig veranderende omgewings (Cockerill, Schroder & Hunt, 1998).

Die fokus van hierdie navorsing was op die evaluering van transformatiewe leierskapvaardighede as deel van die implementering van 'n holistiese model en proses vir



leierskapontwikkeling, omdat die organisasie waar die navorsing gedoen is, in 'n vinnig veranderende omgewing moet funksioneer. 360° Leierskapevalueringsvraelys is gebruik vir die navorsing. 'n Stel van vyftien transformatiewe leierskapvaardighede is deur die navorsingsorganisasie geïdentifiseer as die leierskapvaardighede wat die organisasie se leiers in staat sal stel om effektiewe, suksesvolle leiers te wees in 'n dinamiese, vinnig veranderende besigheidsomgewing. 360° Gebaseer op die geïdentifiseerde leierskapvaardighede, 'n Hierdie vraelys is gebruik om Leierskapevalueringsvraelys ontwikkel en gevalideer. leierskapgedrag jaarliks oor 'n periode van drie jaar te meet, as deel van die implementering van 'n holistiese model en proses vir leierskapontwikkeling.

Die doelwitte van hierdie studie was die volgende:

- Om leierskapgedrag te evalueer deur middel van 'n 360° leierskapevalueringsvraelys as deel van die implementering van 'n holisties model vir leierskapontwikkeling;
- Om tendense te identifiseer in terme van veranderinge in, leierskapgedrag oor 'n
  periode van drie jaar ten einde te bepaal of die implementering van 'n holistiese
  model en proses vir leierskapontwikkeling 'n positiewe impak gehad het op
  leierskapgedrag oor 'n periode van dire jaar;
- Om ten dense en patrone in leierskapgedrag te analiseer en beskryf op grond van die resultate van die 360° leierskapevalueringsvrae lys soos gemeet oor 'n periode van drie jaar, 3 jaar.
- Om die elemente en implementering van 'n holistiese model en proses vir leierskapontwikkeling te beskryf.

Die kwantitatiewe analise van die 360° Leierskapeva lueringsdata het gedui op beduidende statistiese verskille by nege van die vyftien leierskapvaardighede wat gemeet is. Al die skale van die vraelys waar statisties beduidende verskille gevind is, is geïdentifiseer, geïnterpreteer en bespreek.

Die volgende tendense en patrone is geïdentifiseer op grond van die statistiese analise van die navorsingsdata:



- Topbestuurders het deurgaans hoër evaluerings ontvang as die ander bestuursvlakke;
- Middelbestuurders (M5-6) het aansienlik laer evaluerings ontvang as ander bestuursvlakke in terme van die leierskapvaardighede van integriteit, doelwitontwikkeling, inligtingkapsiteit, konseptuele vermoë, besigheidsin en bemagtiging;
- Vroulike leiers het betekenisvolle laer evaluerings ontvang as manlike leiers in terme van die leierskapvaardighede inligtingskapasiteit, mensontwikkeling en bemagtiging. Hoewel vroulike leiers hoër ge-evalueer is as manlike leiers deur hulle toesighouers, is hulle swakker ge-evalueer deur die ander evalueringsgroepe, naamlik ondergeskiktes en kollegas as manlike leiers in terme van bogenoemde leierskapvaardighede;
- Leiers in die ouderdomsgroep 25 40 jaar het die hoogste evaluerings ontvang ten opsigte van die leierskapvaardighede besigheidsin en visionêre denke.
- Leiers in die ouderdomsgroep 41 50 jaar is die hoogste ge-evalueer deur al die evalueringsgroepe ten opsigte van konseptuele vermoë;
- Swart leiers het die hoogste evaluering ontvang van leiers van alle rassegroepe ten opsigte van visionëre denke in jaar 1, 2 en 3 van die evaluering.

Die oorhoofse resultate dui op 'n verbetering ten opsigte van meeste van die leierskapvaardighede, behalwe vir integriteit en selfverantwoordelikheid wat dieselfde gebly het. Motiveringskapasitiet is die enigste vaardigheid waar daar 'n verbetering was in jaar 1 en 2, maar 'n verswakking in jaar 3.

Die leierskapvaardighede waarop leiers die swakste evaluerings ontvang het is motiveringskapasitiet, mensontwikkeling, visionëre denke en bemagtiging.

Die oorhoofse tendens van die 360° leierskapevaluer ingsresultate oor 'n periode van drie jaar toon 'n verbetering ten opsigte van al die leierskapvaardighede, behalwe vir integriteit, selfverantwoordelikheid en motiveringskapasiteit.



Hierdie tendense en patrone is gebruik om te bepaal watter intervensies en programme in die organisasie geïmplementeer moet word vir leierskapontwikkeling in die konteks van die Holistiese Model vir Leierskapontwikkeling. Die verbetering in die oorhoofse 360° leierskapevalueringsresultate dui daarop dat die implementering van 'n holistiese model en proses vir leierskapontwikkeling gelei het tot 'n verbetering in die oorhoofse leierskapasitiet van die organisasie waar die navorsing gedoen is.

#### Kern Woorde

- Lerende Organisasie
- Leierskap
- Leierskapvaardighede
- Leierskapontwikkeling
- 360°Leierskapevaluering en terugvoer
- Leierskapgedrag
- Leierskapevalueringsvraelys
- Holistiese Model vir Leierskapontwikkeling
- Hoë Prestasie Leierskapvaardighede
- Ontwikkelingsbeplanning
- Ontwikkelingsaksies



## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

According to Kets de Vries (2001), the rapidly changing economic environment caused by globalization and technological changes have forced organizations around the world to change in order to be successful in the rapidly changing business environment of the twenty-first century. Organizations are experiencing nothing short of a paradigm shift in the workplace. The old mindset was focused on stability, had a national (rather than global) orientation, and was technology driven, hierarchical, and inclined toward autocratic leadership. The new mindset is based on both continuous and discontinuous change, has a global orientation, is customer driven, calls for a networking architecture, and subscribes to authoritative (or position-based) leadership (De Vries, 2001)

These changes do not only manifest themselves in the visible elements of the organization such as its products, activities, or structures but also in the cultural elements such as its values, inherent beliefs and even its primary purpose. Harrison Owen (1991) explains this message well in *Riding the Tiger: Doing Business in a Transforming World* when he writes:

"There was a time when the prime business of business was to make a profit and a product. There is now a prior, prime business, which is to become an effective learning organization. Not that profit and products are no longer important, but without continual learning, profits and products will no longer be possible. Hence the strange thought: the business of business is learning – and all else will follow" (p. 1).

Based on the above, it can be concluded that organizations must learn faster and become more adaptable in the new dynamic economic environment of the twenty-first century, or they will not be able to survive.



#### 2. ORGANIZATIONAL CHALLENGES

The demands placed on organizations to be adaptable and change quickly, require learning to be delivered faster, cheaper and more effectively to meet the changing needs of the business. Some of the challenges facing today's organizations include:

- Reorganization, restructuring, and re-engineering;
- Skills shortages and gaps owing to a lack of enough skilled workers;
- Increasing demand for knowledge;
- Global competition;
- New and advanced technologies;
- Increased need for organizations to be flexible and adapt to change quickly in order to survive.

### Dilworth (1998) remarks:

Change now tends to outdistance our ability to learn. Existing knowledge tends to misdirect inquiry rather than facilitate problem resolution. People and organizations need to learn new ways of coping with problems. Only by improving the learning capacity of organizations can we deal with change dynamics (p. 34).

Based on the statement above, it is clear that learning organizations must learn faster to keep up with competition and changes in the external environment for the organization to stay in business. Revans (1983) aptly notes that:

In any epoch of rapid change, those organizations unable to adapt are soon in trouble, and adaptation is achieved only by learning – namely, by being able to do tomorrow that which might have been unnecessary today. The organization that continues to express only the ideas of the past is not learning. Training systems ... may do little more than to make organizations proficient in yesterday's techniques (p. 11).



The value offered by organizational learning is that it builds the capacity in organizations to manage change by allowing for quantum leaps.

According to Marquardt (1996) continuous improvement means that every quantum leap becomes an opportunity to learn and therefore prepares the organization for the next quantum leap. The time span between leaps can be reduced and progress accelerated by learning faster than the competition.

Organizations are compelled to learn better and faster from their successes and failures in order to obtain and sustain a competitive advantage. They have to transform themselves into learning organizations, where teams and individuals continuously learn and develop.

Shoshana Zuboff, in her 1988 classic *In the Age of the Smart Machine,* observes that today's organization may indeed have little choice but to become a learning institution:

One of its principal purposes will have to be the expansion of knowledge – not knowledge for its own sake (as in academic pursuit), but knowledge that comes to reside at the core of what it means to be productive. Learning is no longer a separate activity that occurs either before one enters the workplace or in remote classroom settings. Nor is it an activity reserved for a managerial group. The behaviours that define learning and the behaviours that define being productive are one and the same. Learning is the heart of productive activity. To put it simply, learning is the new form of labor (p. 395).

According to Ellis and Pennington (2004) the ongoing changes in the way we work and live have, over the last few decades, substantially redefined the parameters for doing business. The sustainable organisation cannot afford to stand still, but must constantly renew through innovation and a new style of leadership.

The ability to both survive and thrive in a competitive and uncertain world, rests on the ability to adapt to and encourage ongoing change, learn new rules, welcome new



styles of leadership and adopt more rigorous corporate governance standards (Ellis & Pennington, 2004).

## 3. LEADERSHIP ROLES IN A LEARNING ORGANIZATION OF THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

According to Senge (1990b) learning organizations require a different view of leadership. The new view of leadership in learning organizations is focused on different roles than was the case in the past, such as leaders having to become system thinkers, stewards and teachers. It is important for learning organization leaders to take responsibility for building organizations where people can develop their ability to understand complexity, clarify vision and develop enhanced shared mental models because leaders are responsible for facilitating learning (Senge, 1990b).

According to Senge (1990b), leaders in learning organizations must enable others to see and the big picture, with its underlying trends, forces, and potential surprises. They must think systematically and be able to anticipate how internal and external factors might benefit or destroy the organization.

A wide array of literature (Kanter, 1997; Rhinesmith, 1996; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Senge, 1990 a & b; Spears, 1995) indicates that the following are critical roles for the leaders of a learning organization in the twenty-first century:

- Systems thinker;
- Change agent;
- Innovator and risk taker;
- Servant and steward;
- Coordinator;
- Coach and mentor;
- Visionary.

Shephard (2007) explain leadership in a learning organization very well when he writes:



"Leadership is not a management practice: it is an art form. It doesn't require an impressive corporate title, a corner office, a brass plaque on the door or a unique interpersonal management style that will someday be the subject of a snappily titled book.

Leadership, at its most sublime, is the art of creating a vision of the future that is so powerful and so compelling that everyone around the person with the vision – peers, bosses, subordinates, customers, suppliers, even competitors – feel compelled to enrol in that vision and help to achieve it (p.12)."

#### 3.1 Systems Thinker

Senge (1990a & b), Wheatley (1992) and others have stressed the importance of leaders to be system thinkers. Systems thinkers have the ability to see the whole rather than only its parts. Systems' thinking requires the ability to see connections between different parts.

According to Isaacs (1993), leaders in today's world must move their focus from a mechanistic way of thinking to one that pays attention to the whole. Since the seventeenth century, leaders tended to believe that analysis of single parts will give understanding of the whole.

#### 3.2 Change Agent

According to Kanter (1985) it is very important that leaders are change agents. According to him all leaders must be able to understand, create and manage change to ensure the survival of their organisations. Wheatley (1992) refers to change as the essence of the new global environment. Leaders must have the ability to bring order to chaos, as opposed to trying to control it.

Since initiating and managing change is a key function of leadership, leaders must be able to cope with the inevitable resistance to change by motivating people. Direction setting and effective alignment can help to get people moving in the right direction. Positive motivation ensures that they will have the energy to overcome barriers to change (Kotter, 1995).



#### 3.3 Innovator and Risk-taker

Leaders of the twenty-first century learning organization must be willing to take risks. Not only should leaders be creative, they should also encourage and reward creativity amongst their followers. Leaders must be open to the new perspectives and possibilities. They must be able to identify trends and different options/solutions (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

According to Kouzes and Posnes (2002), the twenty-first century leader should obtain and analyse information from different sources in the development of a strategy in order to improve the chances of the organization successfully moving into the future.

Since new ideas may conflict with existing, established mental models or ways of operating, new ideas are often not encouraged in organizations. The learning organization leader has the task of challenging existing assumptions in an honest, but diplomatic way. The leader must be able to understand and analyse the mental models and basic assumptions of fellow employees (Senge, 1990).

According to Senge (1990b), twenty-first century leaders should continuously challenge the old way of doing things and propose new options.

According to Marsick (1988), the capacity to challenge existing assumptions and values is important in order to determine whether or not one is addressing the right problem. Leaders must be able to provide open and honest feedback to help others learn about themselves.

#### 3.4 Servant and Steward

The servant-leader concept was introduced in the 1970's by Robert Greenleaf, an AT&T manager for more than thirty years. His book *Servant-Leadership* (1977) sparked a radical rethinking of leadership.



Leaders, according to Greenleaf (1977), must first serve others. This is central to a leader's effectiveness. The primary motivation of a good leader is a desire to help others. Serving others is the main priority of a good leader.

Servant-leaders must be willing to overcome their desire for control. They must have insights into their own values, backgrounds and beliefs as well as realize that their own backgrounds or areas of experience are not superior to those of others (Greenleaf, 1977).

Spears (1995) identified the following ten key characteristics of a servant-leader:

Listening: Leaders must have a deep commitment to listen to others and understand what they are saying.

Empathy: Leaders need to accept and recognize other people for their special and unique qualities. Leaders should not reject others, even when they reject their behaviour or performance.

Wellness: Many people experience personal challenges and suffer from a variety of emotional problems. Servant-leaders endeavour to help those with whom they come into contact.

Awareness: Leaders should be aware of the needs of others as well as their own. Ethics and values are inherent in this characteristic.

*Influence:* Servant-leaders seek to convince rather than coerce. Such leaders are effective at building consensus within teams and recognize the need for participation in the strategy development process.

Conceptual ability: Leaders should be able to think beyond day-to-day realities. Servant-leaders expand their thinking in order to master broader-based conceptual thinking.



Foresight: Servant-leaders have the ability to foresee the likely outcome of a situation, as well as the likely impact of a decision, because their convictions are deeply rooted within the intuitive mind.

Stewardship: Servant-leaders recognize that they are merely holding an organization in trust for a period of time, for the greater good of society.

Commitment to the growth of people: Servant-leaders believe that people have an intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions as workers. As a result, servant-leaders are deeply committed to the personal, professional and spiritual growth of each individual.

Building a community: Servant-leaders endeavour to build a network of caring people both within and outside the organization.

Based on these characteristics, it is clear that servant-leaders emphasize growth, service to others, a holistic approach to work, a sense of community and shared decision-making.

#### 3.5 Coordinator

Learning organization leaders must be able to coordinate many activities at the same time. Leaders must also be able to work collaboratively with many others, even in unfamiliar environments on new problems. These leaders are able to focus on the bigger picture as well as on the details.

According to Walter Kiechel (1994) leaders have to be both specialists and generalists, team players and self-reliant, able to think of themselves as businessmen and plan accordingly. Leaders must possess both analytic and strategic thinking skills.

According to Senge (1990b), learning organization leaders must act holistically, seeing the business as part of a broader environment. Leaders should view business opportunities not simply as solo players, but as one player in a larger team, each player cooperating and learning with the others. This differs from the conventional idea of competition, in which companies rely only on their own resources and do not capitalize on the capabilities of



others. In the new global market, leaders must be able to collaborate with the other players for capacity, innovation and capital.

Leaders must be architects who can arrange the different parts of an organization into a system that will thrive in the rapidly changing business environment. Leaders must assist in redefining the culture of the organization, reshaping business processes and teams, as well as developing new methods for selecting, training, and rewarding people in order to enable all employees to effectively participate in the new global environment. Leaders must also assist in the creating and design of new and appropriate policies, strategies, and principles.

The twenty-first century leader must empower individuals to perform at their best while being part of the organization as a whole.

#### 3.6 Coach and Mentor

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), one of the critical responsibilities of leaders in learning organizations is to facilitate learning. This requires leaders to be coaches and mentors.

Leaders are not only required to tell others what to learn. Leaders should also encourage, motivate, and help workers to learn. Leaders should assist others in identifying learning opportunities. Leaders should also be committed to helping learners and to demonstrate a love for learning.

Learning organization leaders grant decision-making authority and responsibility to their team members. They also actively develop the skills of their team and foster self-confidence in others through the faith they demonstrate in allowing others to lead. In this way, leaders act as coaches, helping others to improve their skills and talents, as well as learn from their mistakes and experiences. No task should be more important for leaders than the encouragement of learning (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).



## 3.7 Visionary

According to Kotter (1998), leaders must assist in building the organization's vision and inspiring employees, customers and colleagues to support the vision. The leader must envision, together with fellow employees, the type of "future" the company aspires to. This "ideal future" should be exciting and challenging enough to attract and retain the best and most talented employees. The commitment and willingness of employees to achieve the vision is influenced by the extent to which the leader is able to build a shared, desired picture of the organization or unit.

Kotter (1998) points out the importance of leaders being visionaries when he states:

The best leaders know something about challenging the status quo, about developing a vision that makes sense in light of economic realities, and about how to create strategies for achieving the vision. They're compulsive communicators. They know what they need to get people all over the place to understand and believe in those visions. They're compulsive empowerers. They realize that they have to give people enough rope to implement those visions. (p. 5)

Twenty-first century learning organization leaders look for new growth opportunities that often go unnoticed because they do not naturally match the current products and services of the business. They look for a tangible corporate goal or objective that represents a challenge to the organization and at the same time assists the organization to build the competitive advantage it needs to be successful in future (Kotter, 1998).

The ability to conceptualize complex issues and processes, simplify and contextualise them to inspire people, is essential for twenty-first century learning organization leaders. The competencies measured in this research will enable leaders to effectively fulfil the different leadership roles required in a learning organization.

#### 4. RESEARCH BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

The organization where the research was conducted, are facing the challenge the change from a state owned organization to a privatised company listed of the Stock Exchange that



must function in a competitive business environment within the telecommunications industry.

The organization where the research was conducted consisted of  $\pm$  30 000 employees and  $\pm$  3000 managers during the period that the research was conducted. The organizational can be described as a typical bureaucratic organization with a hierarchical organization structure driven by top-down control and an autocratic leadership style.

Managers in this organization were appointed in management positions because of their technical skills and not their people skills. The majority of managers have a technical background and started their careers as technical specialists. Most of these managers therefore tend to be detail focused, systematic and analytical. It is therefore understandable that the majority of them probably will be good managers but not necessarily good leaders.

In order for the organization where the research was conducted to transform itself from a bureaucratic government institution to an organization that can compete successfully in a competitive business environment, the organization has to become a learning organization with strong transformational leaders.

It was for this reason that the top management of the organization decided to embark on a strategy to turn the organization into a learning organization with transformational leaders who can effectively fulfil the different roles required from leaders in a learning organizations as described earlier in this chapter.

As part of their strategy to turn the organization into a learning organization, the top management team decided upon the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development. The first step in the implementation of a holistic model for leadership development was to identify a set of leadership competencies that will enable leaders in the organization to become transformational leaders who can effectively fulfil the different role required from leaders in a learning organization.



After the identification of the required leadership competencies, a 360° leadership assessment questionnaire was designed and implemented. The aim of the instrument was to measure leadership behaviour as part of the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development. The results of the measurement was used to determine whether the implementation of this model and process leads to an improvement in the leadership competencies over an extended period of time, the assessment was conducted annually over a period of three years.

#### 5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES

In this study the leadership behaviour of managers in a large organization functioning in a changing business environment has been measured annually over a period of three years.

The objectives of this research were the following:

- (a) To measure leadership behaviour by means of a 360° leadership assessment questionnaire as part of the implementation of a holistic model for leadership development;
- (b) To track the overall changes in leadership behaviour over a period of three years in order to determine if the implementation of a holistic model and process had a positive impact on leadership behaviour over a extended period of time;
- (c) To analyse and describe the trends and patterns in leadership behaviour based on the results of the 360° leadership assessment questionnaire conducted over a period of three years;
- (d) To describe the elements and implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development.

This study will endeavour to answer the following research questions:

- (a) What differences are there between the leadership behaviour amongst gender-, race and age groups as well as at different management levels?
- (b) What trends and patterns can be identified in terms of leadership behaviour by different groups (supervisors, subordinates, peers and self)?



(c) What changes took place in terms of overall leadership behaviour between the annual surveys over the period of three years after the implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development?

#### 6. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 6.1 High Performance Leadership Competencies

Research indicates that leadership behaviour which leads to superior performance in stable environments is significantly different from the leadership behaviour that leads to superior performance in competitive, changing environments. Autocratic leadership behaviour, focused on exercising top-down control is more successful in stable environments. Leadership behaviour focused on inspiring employees through the stimulation of ideas, creativity, and initiative of employees, is more successful in competitive, changing environments. (Cockerill, Shroder & Hunt, 1998)

According to Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1998) leaders will have to develop the following skills in order to improve organizational performance in dynamic competitive business environments:

- Build a sense of shared purpose and commitment amongst their staff;
- Develop and grow certain core competencies;
- Create a climate in which change and innovation are encouraged and valued;
- Facilitate the development of higher level ideas as a basis for action, and
- Build an organization of people who continually learn from each other, across boundaries and extend this to learning about customers, suppliers and stakeholders.

Based on the above, Schroder (1997) identified ten High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLCs) as described in Chapter 5. According to Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1998), these competencies are transformational leadership competencies in the true sense of the word. The High Performance Leadership Competencies is the theoretical



framework for the Leadership Competency Model and the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire used to conduct the research.

## 6.2 Social Learning Theory

According to Social Learning Theory as described by Bandura (1977), the influence of environmental events on the acquisition and regulation of behaviour is largely determined by cognitive processes. These cognitive processes are based on prior experience and determine what environmental influences will receive attention, how they are perceived, whether they will be remembered and how they might impact on future actions. Symbolic modelling is one of the best known and most widely used methods derived from the social learning approach. In modelling, learning is assumed to occur through coding of representational processes based upon exposure to instructional, observational or imagined material. Learning can occur through observation alone without the need for direct reinforcement of the specific behaviour that is acquired (Bandura, 1977).

Psychodynamic theories regard behaviour as a product of largely autonomous unconscious forces within the individual. From an operant conditioning perspective, behaviour is a function of the environment. As Skinner (1971) described it, "a person does not act upon the world, the world acts upon him" (p, 211). According to Bandura (1978) both of these views are one-sided or unidirectional causal models of behaviour. The problems with this position have been summed up by Bandura (1978) as follows:

"Personal and environmental factors do not function as independent determinants; rather they determine each other. Nor can "persons" be considered causes independent of their behaviour. It is largely through their actions that people produce the environment conditions that affect their behaviour in a reciprocal fashion. The experiences generated by behaviour also partly determine what individuals think, expect, and can do which in turn, affect their subsequent behaviour." (p. 345)

In the Social Learning Theory, psychological functioning is regarded as a reciprocal interaction among three interdependent factors: behaviour, cognitive factors and environmental influences.



A person is neither driven only by internal forces nor is a passive reactor to external pressure. A person is both the agent and the object of environmental influence (Bandura, 1977).

According to the Social Learning Theory as described by Bandura (1977), a person is an agent of change. Social Learning Theory emphasises the human capacity for self-directed behaviour change. In addition to the acquisition and maintenance of behaviour, activation and persistence of behaviour is seen to be based mainly on cognitive mechanisms. The importance assigned to cognitive processes that explain how learning experiences have lasting impact and serve to activate future action enables social learning theory to explain the fact that humans initiate behaviour that at least partly shapes their own destinies (Bandura, 1977).

The High Performance Leadership Competencies and the Social Learning Theory has been used as the underpinning theoretical framework for the leadership development model and leadership competency model used as part of this research project. The fact that a person is both the agent and the object of environmental influence supports the underlying philosophy of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development, as discussed in Chapter 2.

#### 7. RESEARCH APPROACH AND PROCESS

This research project can be described as an action research intervention since the research was conducted as part of the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development.

This research project took place over a period of five years, from 2000 until 2005 and consisted of the implementation of a holistic model and process for leadership development by means of the following process:

• Identification of the leadership competencies required to ensure the future success of the research organization as described in Chapter 5;



- Design of a leadership model for the organization based on the identified leadership competencies as described in Chapter 5 and Appendix E;
- Designing, validation and implementation of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) based on the identified leadership competencies as described in Chapter 5;
- The design and implementation of personal development planning guidelines (Appendix G) as well as self-development guidelines (Appendix H) to guide the development experiences/actions of leaders;
- The annual measurement of leadership behaviour in the research organization over a period of three years, by making use of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire as a research instrument, as described in Chapter 5;
- The analysis and interpretation of the research results as described in Chapter 6;
- The identification of possible development experiences/actions based on the assessment results that can be implemented as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development as described in Chapter 6.

Although all the elements of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development are discussed in Chapter 2, the main focus on this research will be on the measurement of leadership behaviour by means of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) and the analysis of the results over a period of three years, as well as the leadership competencies which are measured by the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire.

The reason why leadership behaviour was measured annually over a period of three years was to determine if there is a sustainable improvement in leadership behaviour after the implementation of a holistic model for leadership.

The focus of the implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development has been to develop the leadership competencies of the managers in the organisation where the research was conducted. Although this does not negate the importance of good management, leadership is regarded as the key driver for future business success by the top management team of the organization where there research was conducted.



The top management team also decided to use the High Performance Leadership Competencies identified by Professor Harry Schroder as the theoretical framework for the Leadership Competency Model of the organization because the top management team felt that the development of these competencies will enable the organization to compete successfully in a competitive business environment.

Nel (2004) provides support for this view when he writes:

Since the 1960s, the role of leadership has been identified as the primary factor in determining organisational performance and competitiveness. Prof Harry Schroder already identified this truth more that three decades ago. During his 22 years at Princeton, he led some of the most important research into what it takes to achieve high performance in today's increasingly complex and fast moving environment.

As Schroder and his teams studied the performance of teams and organisations, they found that there is a clearly definable set of what could be called high impact leadership competencies that make the difference between superior and average performance (p.24).

In Good to Great Jim Collins (2001) affirms Shroder's observations. Collins found that great companies outperformed good companies by an astonishing seven fold over a period of only 15 years. Collins found that the only true deferential between good and great companies is leadership.

The top management team also decided to develop the leadership skills of all managers in the company by implementing a holistic model and process for leadership development. This decision was made based on the fact that best practice organizations recognize leadership as a key component of jobs at all levels and are committed to creating leaders throughout their organizations as reported by Hernez-Boome and Hughes (2004).



#### 8. SUMMARY

A learning organization can be described as an organization that has the ability to collect, store, and transfer knowledge for the purpose of continuously transforming itself to ensure business success. A learning organization empowers people within and outside the organization to learn while they work and to utilize technology for the optimization of both learning and productivity. According to Senge (1990b) the following are important dimensions and characteristics of a learning organization:

- Learning is accomplished by the interaction of the organizational system as a holistic entity;
- Organizational members recognize the official importance of ongoing organizationwide learning to ensure the organization's current and future success;
- Learning is a continuous and strategically positioned process;
- There is a focus on creativity innovation and continuous learning;
- Systems thinking is regarded as fundamental;
- Learning is integrated with organizational processes and systems.

Learning organizations require a different perspective on leadership. The new roles of leadership in learning organizations require leaders to become designers, stewards and system thinkers. They facilitate learning by building organizations where people understand complexity, clarify vision, and develop shared mental models (Senge, 1990b).

To reiterate, the purpose of this study was to measure leadership behaviour in a large company striving to become a learning organization in order to function successfully in a competitive business environment. Leadership behaviour was measured annually over a period of three years by means of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) as part of a holistic model and process for leadership development is discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.



#### **CHAPTER 2**

#### LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT MODEL AND PROCESS – THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

According to Dixon (1998), personal development can be described as the movement the individual makes in achieving a more *open*, differentiated and integrated perspective. Being *open* implies a willingness to entertain alternative perspectives. *Differentiated* refers to the ability to draw finer distinctions between concepts. *Integrated* refers to the capacity to incorporate these different perspectives into an increasingly complex whole.

According to Mezirow (1991), development implies a movement toward a systems view and away from an ethnocentric or fragmented view. As adults become more developed, they are able to deal with increasing complexity, as opposed to being stuck in rigid and highly defended thought patterns that make them less able to adapt to changing conditions and less able to change themselves.

Leadership development in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development that will be discussed in this Chapter is seen as the expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes. Leadership roles and processes are seen as those which involve groups of people to work together in productive and meaningful ways.

Three aspects should be noted about this definition of leadership development. Firstly, leadership development is seen as the development of capacities within the individual.

Secondly, it is believed that most people must take on leadership roles and participate in leadership processes in order to carry out their social commitments such as the organizations in which they work in, the social interaction of volunteer groups of which they are part, the neighbourhoods they live in, and the professional groups they belong to.

These leadership roles may be formal positions linked to the authority to take action and make decisions, for example a manager, an elected official, or a group's representative at



a meeting, or they may be informal roles with little formal authority, for example, the person who organizes the neighbourhood to contest rezoning efforts. Leaders may actively participate in business process re-engineering to create change, for example serving on committees or project teams, identifying and focusing attention on problems or issues, acquiring resources to implement changes or the more subtle processes for shaping culture such as telling stories that reflect organizational values and celebrating accomplishments. The underlying philosophy is that everyone can learn and grow in ways that make them more effective in their various leadership roles and the processes in which they participate. The process of personal development which improves leadership effectiveness is what the researcher regards as the essence of leadership development.

Thirdly, a key underlying assumption in this research is that people are able to learn, grow and change. In this study, the extent to which effective leadership is genetically determined, or is developed, is not debated. The focus of this study is on the philosophy that adults can develop and improve their leadership effectiveness. Although leaders learn primarily through their experiences, not all experiences are equally developmental. Situations that challenge an individual and provide meaningful feedback together with a sense of support are more likely to stimulate leadership development than situations in which any of these elements is absent.

Leadership development is seen by the researcher as a process requiring both a variety of developmental experiences as well as the ability to learn from experience. The latter is the inherent element that enables the individual to develop. The Holistic Model and Process for Leadership Development discussed in this Chapter follows a systems approach and is based on the Social Learning- and self-directed learning principles underpinned by a Learning Organization philosophy as described in Chapter 1.

# 2. A HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Despite an extensive benchmarking and literature search, no competency based model for leadership development could be found that includes 360° assesses and feedback process is suitable for self-directed learning and is easy to implement and maintain in a



large organization. The researcher therefore had to design a model for leadership development to use as part of this research project.

Based on the work and research of Senge (1990b), Jones and Bealry (1995), Yukl (1998) and the Center for Creative Leadership (1998), the following elements which appear to be key elements of effective leadership development, were identified:

- Leadership competencies and capabilities;
- Assessment and feedback;
- Development planning;
- Developmental experiences.

The above-mentioned elements seem to serve a dual purpose in the development process. Firstly, they motivate people to focus their attention and effort on learning, growth and change. Secondly, they provide input or an experience that facilitates learning such as the information, observations and feedback that lead to a more in-depth and even a completely different understanding of the world. In order for leaders to be developed effectively, they need a wide range of learning experiences which provide opportunities for assessment, enhancement of self-awareness and challenging developmental experiences, (Center for Creative Leadership, 1998).

Weinstein (1995) identifies and distinguishes three levels in learning that must occur in order to maximise the effectiveness of learning development:

Level 1 - Understanding something intellectually;

Level 2 - Applying some newly acquired skill, i.e., taking action and doing

something differently;

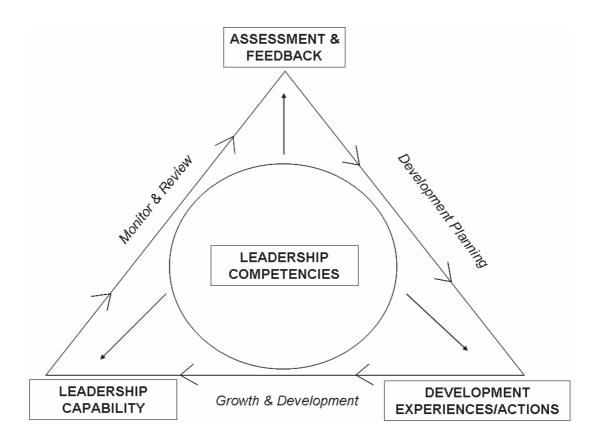
Level 3 - Experiencing, i.e. undergoing an inner development that involves

beliefs and attitudes.



The researcher has endeavoured to capture the key elements of effective leadership development and the different levels of learning into the following Holistic Model for Leadership Development:

Figure 2.1 Holistic Model for Leadership Development



The Holistic Model for Leadership Development can be described as a competency based model following as systems approach to development. The model has also been designed to facilitate learning as an ongoing process and not a single event. The model has also been designed and implemented is such a way that it provides leaders with a number of tools that will enable self-directed learning (see Appendixes B, E, G & H). Self-directed learning can be described as a process in which individuals have primary responsibility for planning, implementing and even evaluating their own development (Hiemstra, 1994). According to Hiemstra (1994) the objective of self-directed learning is to empower people to take responsibility for their own development. The reason why self-directed learning is



an important aspect in the implementation of this model is the number of managers in the organization where the research was conducted. Due to the number of managers, the most practical way to manage the development was to provide them with tools and guidelines that will enable them to manage their own development to a large extent (see Appendixes B, E, F, G & H). Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) view the term self-directed learning as a process consisting of activities such as assessing needs, identifying learning opportunities, implementing learning activities and evaluating learning.

In the implementation of this model, the managers received an electronic feedback report on their 360° assessment results (see Appendix B), personal development planning guidelines (see Appendix G) and self-development guidelines for leaders (see Appendix H). Managers were therefore empowered to make sense of their own 360° assessment results, choose appropriate development experiences/actions from a wide variety of options and draw up their own development plans to monitor and track their progress.

The main focus of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development is on individual learning based on the philosophy that without individual learning there can be no collective learning. According to Marisick and Neaman (1997) individual learning is central to organizational learning and that without individual learning, there can be no collective learning. Although the main focus of the model is individual learning, it does not exclude team learning. Team learning can be incorporated into the model by means of team based action learning programmes as part of the development actions/experiences.

The reason why the model can be seen as following a systems approach to leadership development is because it involves more than only training. McCauley and Van Velsor (2003) noted that the approach of many organizations is events-based rather than systemic. According to them leadership development can be made systemic by making sure it involves more than training. They recommend that a number of developmental experiences should be utilised that are meaningfully integrated with one another. According to Alldredge, *et al.* (2003) leadership development must not consist of a single programme or event, but must be an ongoing process.



In the Holistic Model for Leadership Development, competencies form the core of the model. All other elements in the model are based on the competencies, e.g. 360° assessment and feedback, development planning and development experiences/actions. The reason why a competency based model was chosen for this research project was that a competency clearly defines the skills and behaviour expected from leaders in a way that is easy to understand and measure. According to Barrett and Beeson (2002), leading-edge companies define leadership by means of a set of competencies that guide leadership development at all levels.

The next element in the model is assessment and feedback. The reason why assessment and feedback are regarded as an important part of the model is because it can increase a person's level of self-awareness and self-insight which is an important part of development as indicated by Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004). According to Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004), 360° assessment and feedback can positively impact an individual's effectiveness as a leader by deepening that person's self-awareness about the impact of his/her behaviour on others. Chappelow (2004) noted that one of the most remarkable trends in the field of leadership development over the past 20 years has been the popularity and growth of 360° assessment and feedback. Others called it one of the most notable management innovations of the pas decade (Atwater & Waldman, 1998; London & Beatty, 1993). The reason why 360° assessment and feedback has been chosen as the assessment methodology for this model was because of its ease of application in large organizations.

According to Chappelow (2004), 360° assessment and feedback should not be a standalone event. In addition to assessment there need to be development planning and follow-up activities. It is for this reason that development planning as well as a wide variety of development experience/actions has been included as key elements of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

The last key element in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development is Leadership Capability. Leadership Capability in this context can be described as a reflection of the overall competencies of all the leaders in an organization. The leadership capability of an



organization can therefore be seen as the collective capacity of all leaders in the organization. In the context of this model, the leadership capability of the organization can be reflected by calculating the average score for each competency measured by the 360° assessment questionnaire. This provides an overall picture of the collective leadership capability of the organization.

This information is important to enable key role players in the organization such as top management and Human Resource specialists to monitor and review progress with regards to development of the overall leadership capability of the company and make decisions regarding leadership development interventions.

Since the intention of this model is to facilitate learning as a continuous process, assessment must take place on an annual basis to ensure continuity of the learning process.

In reviewing the entire field of leadership development, McCauley and Van Velsor (2003) noted that the approach of many organizations is events-based rather than systemic. One method of making leadership development more systemic is to make sure it involves more than training. A number of developmental experiences must be designed and implementted that are meaningfully integrated with one another.

Leadership development efforts and initiatives must be ongoing, not a single program or event. This is exactly what the Holistic Model for Leadership Development endeavours to do.

Rooke and Torbert (2005) summarises the underlying philosophy of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development very well when they write:

The leader's voyage of development is not an easy one. Some people change little in their lifetimes; some change substantially. Despite the undeniably crucial role of genetics, human nature is not fixed. Those who are willing to work at developing themselves and becoming more self-aware can almost certainly evolve over time into truly transformational



leaders. Few may become Alchemists, but many will have the desire and potential to become Individualists and Strategists. Corporations that help their executives and leadership teams examine their action logics can reap rich rewards. (p. 76)

In this Chapter a brief literature overview will be given on each of the elements in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development. Together with the literature overview implementation guidelines based on best practices used for implementation of the model in the organization where the research was conducted will be given for each of the elements. Since this model has successfully been implemented in the organization where the research was conducted, the assumption can be made that it may also be suitable for implementation in other similar organizations. The literature overview and best practice guidelines discussed in this Chapter is not intended to be a comprehensive overview and critical discussion of all the literature available on the different topics. The purpose of the literature overview and implementation guidelines discussed in this Chapter, is to provide an overview of the theoretical approach and implementation guidelines that was followed in the implementation of the model in the organization where the research was conducted. The theoretical approach that was chosen to guide their compatibility with the culture of the organization as well as ease of implementation in a large organization.

### 2.1 LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

Leadership competencies (see Figure 2.1) form the basis of the leadership development model and process. One of the initial steps in leadership development is the creation or selection of a set of leadership competencies which are critical to the development of an effective, successful leader in a particular organization. The identified set of leadership competencies are then graphically represented in the form of a leadership competency model (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.1).

In their book, Surveying Employees, Jones and Bearley point out that working from models has several advantages over "flying by the seat of your pants" (Jones & Bearley, 1995, p. 21):

Models help to reduce complexity and highlight critical success factors;



- Models can be heuristic; that is, they can lead to new knowledge and insights;
- Models help us to organize information in a meaningful way;
- Models can assist to make 360° assessment feedback understandable and meaningful to participants.

Jones and Bearley (1995) recommend the development of a set of leadership competencies that specify what is important to measure and then to develop a graphic representation of the identified set of competencies in the form of a leadership model, before starting with the development of a 360° assessment instrument and feedback process.

Bartram (2002) defines competencies as the set of behaviours that are instrumental in the delivery of desired results.

Dave Ulrich (2000) describes competencies as those behaviours that describe excellence in performance within a particular work context. A competency can be described as a set of behaviour patterns which an employee must display in order to effectively perform the tasks and functions of a designated role.

From these definitions it is clear that competencies are, in essence, descriptions of expected behaviour that should provide employees with a holistic picture of the most critical behaviours, values and tasks required for their company's success.

According to Jones (1980), the development of a leadership competency model starts with the selection and analyzing of a list of competencies to determine which competencies are critical to being an effective leader as well as how the competencies interrelate with one another and how they are linked to business success. The next step is to develop a graphic representation of the competencies, benchmarking the model with other leadership models and then revising the model if necessary. This process ensures that the 360° assessment and feedback will be useful to participants (Jones, 1980).



According to Jones (1980), models can be thought of as guidance mechanisms. Models can assist in the development of 360° assessment in struments. Models can also assist 360° assessment feedback recipients to gain perspective on their assessment data. Working from models is efficient in that both assessment and feedback rest on a foundation of clear, organized thinking.

If 360° assessment is done, based on a leadership competency model, 360° assessment and feedback are based on those aspects of leadership behaviour that the organization deems critical and reflects which skills, knowledge, and competencies are required of leaders in the organization.

Working from leadership competency models in 360° a ssessment and feedback, requires clear thinking about the critical dimensions of employee behaviour that are related to organizational effectiveness. When the model is comprehensive and clear, it guides the development of 360° questionnaires and feedback reports. Participants in 360° assessment processes can easily become overwhelmed by their assessment results. Using simple but powerful competency models can help participants to understand and accept the assessment results. In a sense, 360° fe edback delivers a strong message to employees about what behaviour senior leaders regard as critical for leaders to develop. Leadership models graphically display the leadership competencies regarded as important in a particular organization.

# 2.2 ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK

Assessment and feedback are amongst the key elements of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 5.1). What is known as 360° assessment and feedback can be described as a process in which one evaluate's oneself on a set of behavioural criteria, ones' manager/supervisor evaluate's one, as well as one's peers and direct reports. The benefit of collecting data of this type is that the participant receives feedback based on different perceptions rather than only self-perception (Atwater, Rousch & Fischtal, 1995).



According to researchers such as Atwater, *et al* (1995) as well as Hazucha, Hezlett and Schneider (1993), the impact of formal 360° feedback can be significant when imbedded in a holistic leadership development process. According to these researchers, research results indicate that 360° feedback can improve performance and lead to behaviour change.

#### 2.2.1 The Assessment and Feedback Process

The person being assessed, identified in this Chapter as the participant, selects a number of co-workers and peers who are called *raters* to participate in the assessment process. The supervisor of the participant also rates the participant. All the raters as well as the participant complete surveys designed to collect information about the participant's specific skills or specific behaviours which are deemed important to managerial or leadership effectiveness within the organization.

Once the raters have completed the surveys, the completed surveys are returned to a central point for scoring. A feedback report is generated, based on the assessment results of the different rater groups, and delivered to the participant. The participant then uses this feedback to establish a development plan geared toward increasing leadership effectiveness.

# 2.2.2 The Importance of Structured Feedback

Owing to the high level of work pressure, people often find themselves feedback-starved. Two factors play a role in this.

Firstly, people get caught up in day-to-day pressures and responsibilities and fail to identify the cues. It is a fundamental theme of this research that the leadership development process is more effective if the three key components of assessment, challenge, and support are incorporated into the process.

The assessment component is self-evident. It can be used to help participants answer the question "How am I doing?" by providing the multiple perspectives. It can enhance self-



awareness by providing new information about existing strengths and key developmental needs.

Receiving 360° assessment feedback is also a source of challenge. As a *Fortune* magazine writer states "What your boss, your peers, and your subordinates really think of you may sting, but facing the truth can also make you a better manager" (O'Reilly, 1994, p.93). The challenges provided by 360° feedback can be aspects such as a new experience, comparing oneself to a model of excellence or examining one's previous self-concept.

Obtaining multiple perspectives on performance is an improvement over the traditional assessment approach of having only the supervisor evaluating performance (known as the top-down approach). According to London and Beauty (1993) as well as O'Reilly (1994), the multiple views of a 360° assessment process are preferable because:

- Multiple views provide a more holistic representation of a leader's behaviour;
- The supervisor often does not observe the individual's behaviour daily, especially if the person is located elsewhere. Such conditions make it very difficult to provide an accurate assessment;
- The increase in team-based work has also dictated the need for collecting and synthesizing feedback from different sources;
- Previously untapped sources of feedback can be included. Some leaders are in
  positions where they can be assessed for their effectiveness in terms of how well
  they work with people outside the organization, such as customers, suppliers, or
  clients;
- Multiple assessments reduce the potential for bias.

Formal 360° assessment and feedback provides a structured means of collecting and processing data and an opportunity to reflect on this valuable information. It may be the only time some leaders ever consciously reflect on their leadership behaviour and how it is perceived by other people.



Providing and receiving feedback can be seen as threatening activities by some people, and they may not think doing either is worth the risk. This is particularly the case for leaders in higher level positions (Kaplan, Drath & Kofodimos, 1985). Anonymously provided feedback, by its very nature can help to reduce the interpersonal threat of face-to-face feedback for both parties.

- 2.2.3 Implementation of a 360° Assessment and Feedb ack Process

  According to Dalton and Hollenbeck (1997), Edwards and Ewen (1996) and Jones and

  Bearley (1995), this methodology is usually implemented as follows:
- Determine the need for, and purpose of, the assessment. This entails determining the objectives for the use of 360° assessment and feedback. Validity is directly related to the purpose of such an instrument.
- Establish a competency model. If the assessment focuses on competencies, it is
  best to work from some sort of model that shows how the competencies being
  measured are linked to one another and/or to meaningful criteria for success.
- Determine data sources and develop assessment items. This type of assessment involves the gathering of ratings from several respondents about one person. It is important to consider the data sources and determine whether data from separate sets of raters will be treated equally or weighted differentially.
- Develop an assessment questionnaire. After determining the items that will be used in the 360° assessment instrument, the next step is to develop the actual questionnaire. Instructions concerning the questionnaire should emphasize the importance of the survey and must assure raters that their anonymity will be protected. Other considerations include the choice of a rating scale, the format for responding to the items, and the overall look and feel of the instrument.
- **Administer the questionnaire.** The easiest way to gather 360° assessment data is to electronically distribute questionnaires to the participants, who then complete



the questionnaires and return them. Whatever method is used, it is vital to assure participants that their assessments will remain confidential. Since the 360° assessment can seem threatening to some individuals, it may be advantageous to use a fully automated computer based system to receive and process the questionnaires.

- Process the data and develop feedback reports. The main factors in processing
  the data are speed, accuracy and confidentiality. Carefully consider the form of
  feedback reports, since the focus is on understanding and development, not on
  statistical complexity.
- **Deliver the feedback reports.** In a 360° assessment and feedback system intervention, reports are usually delivered electronically, followed by a series of sessions devoted to different leadership levels. The design of these meetings should emphasize aspects such as confidentiality, the development of an understanding of the statistical results and the development of a personal development plan. The meetings should start with highest management levels of the organization and then be cascaded down to the lower management levels.
- Brief the executive team on group trends. Once all of the feedback reports have been received by individual leaders at all levels of the organization, the human resource staff should study the overall assessment results. The overall findings enable the senior leaders in the organization to make informed decisions regarding the development of their leaders as a strategic organizational objective.
- Evaluate the intervention. The design of an evaluation of the 360° feedback system intervention should be approved by the executive team. This may include an annual assessment in order to monitor changes in leadership behaviour and competencies.



## 2.2.4 Benefits of 360°Assessment and Feedback

Providing 360° assessment and feedback information to leaders about how they are perceived by significant others in their work environment can have enormous benefits, both to the individual and to the organization. The following are the major benefits as described by Edward Ward and Ewen (1996); Hoffman (1995); London and Beatty (1993) as well as O'Reilly (1994):

- The assessment is systematic and structured in such a way that it can be repeated and validated;
- The process can assist individual leaders to draw up personal development plans to improve their leadership capabilities;
- Thoroughly working through the assessment data before drawing up personal development plans can lay the groundwork for a genuine commitment to following through on the plans;
- This kind of assessment and feedback which is accurately aligned with the overall developed strategy of the organization can send the following message to leaders: "This is what you need to become good at in order to help us realize our organizational vision";
- This kind of assessment and feedback can form the basis for a monitoring system
  to measure the results and benefits of developmental programs in organizational
  leadership. Repeat studies on groups of leaders should show improvement over
  time if the organization's training and development efforts are effective.

The main value of 360° assessment is the personal nature of the process – its emphasis on providing relevant information to the individual for development planning.

# 2.2.5 The Importance of Feedback

The following reasons are cited in the literature by amongst others Hoffman (1995) and O'Reilly (1994) as to why it is important for leaders to receive regular feedback on their competencies and behaviour, namely:



- Regular feedback provides answers to the vital question, "How am I doing?" As leaders move up in the hierarchy, they receive less and less honest feedback and 360° assessment and feedback can provide them with the information they require in order to improve their leadership competencies;
- Receiving regular feedback can provide a guidance mechanism for continuous improvement. For leaders to serve as role models for others, they must receive reliable and valid information on how they are perceived by others;
- Participating in 360° assessment and feedback can help leaders validate their selfperceptions. Leaders require honest feedback from others in order to test their own understanding of their strengths and weaknesses;
- Leaders require feedback from significant others in order to ensure that they are viewing themselves realistically;
- This type of assessment and feedback encourages investment in the development of leaders. Soliciting feedback from supervisors, peers and subordinates actively involves them in a process of development. Employees are more likely to support leaders who ask for feedback and act on it.

Soliciting feedback is consistent with the modern emphasis on self-management in organizations.

### 2.2.6 Effective Feedback

According to Daniels (1989), meaningful feedback provided to leaders must meet with the following basic criteria:

- Individualized. Every leader who participates should receive an individualized feedback report;
- Clear and unambiguous. Feedback should be specific and open to only one interpretation;
- Well presented. Feedback should be represented in such a way that it is selfexplanatory and easy to understand;
- Focused on modifiable behaviour. A recipient cannot improve behaviour if the behaviour is impossible to change;



- Current. The feedback should be based on the recent or current behaviour of the recipient;
- Affirming and reinforcing. The feedback should highlight the recipient's strengths, and not focus only on development areas;
- **Sensitive.** Feedback should be provided in such a way that it is sensitive to the recipient's needs;
- Voluntary. People are more receptive to feedback that is solicited rather than imposed;
- **Descriptive.** Descriptive feedback is preferable to evaluative feedback;
- **Specific.** Specific information about behaviour is more useful than vague general statements.

### 2.2.7 Best Practices in 360°Assessment and Feedback

Dalton and Hollenbeck (1997) list the following best practices in the implementation of 360° assessment and feedback processes:

- Communicate your purpose. All participants, raters and supervisors involved should know the purpose of the 360° assessment, their role in terms of the assessment process and how the results will be used. Some organizations communicate the purpose and process in a newsletter.
- **Prepare the participants.** Orientation sessions to explain the assessment and feedback process to participants, should be planned in advance.
- **Make top management visible players.** Make sure that senior executives participate in the process.
- Integrate feedback data with other processes. Be clear about how this specific
  assessment activity supports the business strategy and how it links with other
  processes and systems, e.g. training, performance management, etc.
- Clarify ownership of data. Clearly state who owns the feedback data, and who has access to the data.
- **Maintain integrity**. It is crucial to maintain the integrity of the process through confidential handling of sensitive information.



- Strive for accuracy. Implement administrative checks to ensure that all raters are provided with accurate information.
- Make it easy to participate. Plan ahead, provide lead time, and provide clear instructions to participants.
- Provide support. Ensure that there is always a contact person who can provide
  assistance for everyone involved in the process. Always allow time for individual
  consultation should anyone have a negative emotional reaction to the feedback.
- **Check the timing.** Be sensitive to what else is taking place in the organization. In the middle of a downsizing process or during periods when most employees are on holiday is probably not the best time to conduct this activity.
- Ensure confidentiality and anonymity. An electronic process that permits automated scoring, gives a greater perception of rater anonymity. Confidentiality of results should be assured before implementation.
- Always use recent data. What is the shelf life of an individual's assessment data?
   A reasonable rule of thumb is not to use data gathered more than a year previously.
- Anticipate what can go wrong. Plan for unexpected events such as technical problems in e-mail systems, etc.
- **Start small**. An organization's first 360° intervention should preferably start with a small pilot group in order to work out the systems prior to rolling out a big invention.
- Align with other interventions. Be sensitive to other ongoing activities within the
  organization which may negatively impact on successful implementation, such as
  climate surveys.

### 2.2.8 Pitfalls of 360° Assessment and Feedback

Dalton and Hollenbeck (1997) as well as Chorpade (2002), have noted the following common pitfalls encountered in implementing 360° as sessment and feedback processes.

• **No return on investment.** As with most organizational initiatives, the implementation of a 360° feedback instrument has cost implications. The best way to ensure a return on investment is to plan the implementation carefully prior to developing and implementing a 360° assessment instrument and feedback process.



Make sure that the process is linked to a specific business issue that the organization is trying to address and that the strategic context is clear.

- Compromised anonymity or confidentiality. Effective implementation requires the absolute anonymity of raters, so that respondents feel free to answer the questions honestly and without fear of retribution by the participant. The integrity of the instrument and the feedback process also depend upon complete confidentiality of the participants' feedback report. Feedback reports should be held completely confidential.
- Survey fatigue. The increased popularity of 360° feedback means larger workloads for those completing the assessment forms. This is particularly an issue with large teams. In some cases, the raters may have to complete surveys for each person in a team. At twenty to thirty minutes for each survey, this can become very time consuming. It could also lead to the raters answering the survey questions by comparing the different participants that they have to assess. The best way to overcome this problem is to allow the raters as much lead time as possible in order to spread the completion of questionnaires over time and to inform raters in advance of the time required to complete one survey.
- No clear objectives and scope. Many organizations implement 360° assessment
  and feedback without clearly defining the objectives and the scope of the
  intervention. Consequently, employees who receive feedback after the assessment
  are left to figure out for themselves how to cope with the results and tend not to
  develop personal development plans after they have received feedback.
- Poor logistics. The distribution and collection of surveys, feedback reports and
  other supporting materials must proceed smoothly and on schedule in order to
  ensure the integrity of the assessment and feedback process. HR consultants
  should identify the kind of internal administrative tasks associated with such an
  intervention and assign specific responsibilities for those tasks.



- Missed deadlines. In order to protect the confidentiality of the participants, most 360° feedback instruments require that a certain minimum number of instruments (typically three) be returned from each rater group. It is therefore important, for each rater to complete a survey and return it on time. Communication of the schedule together with deadlines must start well in advance. E-mail or SMS reminders can be used to remind respondents as the deadline date for the completion of questionnaires approaches.
- Negative reaction to feedback. It is possible that participants could feel offended
  if they receive negative feedback from co-workers. This can lead to tension
  between them after the assessment process is completed. This risk can be
  reduced by using a credible 360° assessment instrum ent process with experienced
  feedback facilitators. Conducting participant and rater training before the
  intervention can also reduce the risk of negative reaction to feedback.

### 2.2.9 The Future of 360°Feedback

Most of the existing 360° feedback instruments meas ure the current knowledge and skills necessary for effective leadership behaviour. Awareness of these skills is critical for an individual leader's effectiveness, yet they place the focus of feedback on current behaviour rather than on future challenges (McCall, 1997). Since the work environment changes rapidly, these reactive measurement techniques – even though they address the organization's list of expected competencies – do not measure an individual's ability to meet future business challenges.

Bartlett and Ghoshal (1997) describe the phenomenon of identifying and developing executives by using only reactive assessments based on the "Russian doll" theory of management development. In this classic toy, a series of dolls, each smaller than the one before, fit in to each other. By opening up the largest doll and progressing through the smaller dolls inside, one notices that they are painted to look exactly alike. The smallest doll is an exact copy of the largest, differing only in size. In this analogy, the largest doll represents a mature, experienced leader in the organization. By using only reactive competency assessments, organizations are developing future leaders who have the



same skills and experiences as do the current successful leaders. The risk is that the organization identifies and develops leaders based on a model of past success, rather than on the future business challenges likely to face leaders.

Organizations may benefit from using both reactive assessments as well as those who help the participants to develop skills that will help them to meet future business challenges.

## 2.2.10 Summary

There are many reasons for using a valid 360° feedback instrument as part of this Leadership Development Model and Process, despite the pitfalls. Feedback from such an instrument provides people with formal assessment data from multiple perspectives and enables them to set developmental goals. Given an organizational context that supports efforts to work toward those goals, the outcomes include improvement of leadership capabilities in the organization as well as increased leadership bench strength.

Gorpade (2000, p.16) summarises this very well when he writes:

It would be difficult to argue against the general notion of multi-source feedback in today's business climate. Corporations have decentralized their management systems and considerable importance is placed on teamwork with the role of the manager, particularly the middle manager, being closer to that of a team leader than that of an officer in the traditional bureaucratic sense. In this competitive context, it would be difficult for any manager in any complex organization to go very long without receiving some feedback from the multiple constituencies that the role serves. The 360° concept enables such feedback at a relatively low operating economic cost. Research indicates that the gains from 360° feedback, when us ed as a developmental tool, are substantial. Changes in behaviour brought about by such programs tend to be immediate and frequently dramatic.



Organizations get better results if 360° assessment and feedback forms part of a holistic longer-term developmental process. By using the best practice information presented in this section, the benefits of using 360° feedback i nstruments can be enhanced and many of the common problems can be avoided.

### 2.3 DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

#### 2.3.1 Introduction

The 360° assessment and feedback process should result in a focused development plan as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 5.1). Effective developmental planning is more than just an exercise in goal setting. It is a blueprint for achieving and sustaining behaviour change by using a variety of development strategies proven to enhance learning. According to Chappelow (1998), a leader can choose from several development approaches such as:

- Identify a development need and improve upon it;
- Identify a strength and capitalize on it. This means that leaders take something they do well and become more visible in their approach to it. They may teach it to someone else or when appropriate, do it more often;
- Identify a development need and make changes to improve it. Rather than trying to turn weaknesses into strengths, a leader may only need to tweak certain behaviour a little to improve a weakness to an acceptable standard;
- Compensate for a weakness by accepting it and adopting strategies to work around
   it. Use strength in order to tackle a weakness;
- Address lack of experience in a certain area by seeking out new opportunities to gain practical experience.

# 2.3.2 Compiling a Development Plan

Once a recipient of the feedback has identified a clear set of development objectives, clarified his or her development actions and determined targets, all the information should be consolidated for easy reference in order to refocus or clarify an objective. A development plan is recommended as a good tool for this type of consolidation (Yukl,



1995). Not only does it serve as a reference and reminder, but the process of planning specific action steps forces leaders to think through all their development activities and how they can be monitored.

According to Yukl (1995), a good development plan would include the following information:

- A clear, written statement of the specific development goal;
- The measurement to be used for measuring when the target has been successfully reached:
- The development strategies that will be followed;
- The action steps and learning techniques that correspond to each development strategy;
- The role players who will be involved in the implementation or monitoring of the plan.

(See Appendix C for an example of a development plan)

### 2.4 DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES/ACTIONS

### 2.4.1 Introduction

According to Van Velsor and Guthrie (1998), people learn from a variety of development experiences and development experiences enhance their ability to learn. The best approach in helping leaders to develop a wide range of leadership skills is to combine multiple kinds of development experiences (Van Velsor & Guthrie, 1998). According to Moxley and Wilson (1998), no single development experience, no matter how well designed, leads to maximum development. Leadership lessons are learned best when one development experience is reinforced by other experiences. Development experiences/actions is a key element of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 5.1)



### 2.4.2 Approaches to Leadership Development

# a) Skills-based Training approach to Leadership Development

Different methods are often used in skills-based training such as lectures, case studies, role-plays, behavioural role-modelling and simulations. Skills-based training methods are based on the theory that active experience facilitates learning better than passive techniques and that participants learn better through interactive methodologies (Thiagarajan, 1996).

Although each method is discussed separately, it is important to note that some training programs make use of a combination of these methods. A multi-method approach is often used because it helps to maximize learning (Van Velsor and Guthrie, 1998).

The following methods are often used in skills-based training:

#### Lectures

A lecture efficiently presents content-specific information to a relatively large group of participants in a relatively short period of time.

The traditional lecture format, familiar to anyone who ever sat in a classroom, uses one-way communication. Some experts, however, insist that active participation by participants is critical in training (House, 1996).

An interactive lecture presents content-specific information but also engages participants in discussions and debate about the information. An interactive approach stimulates questions, generates group discussions and even encourages discussion of disagreements (House, 1996).

#### Case studies

A case study presents participants with information describing an organization, a situation in the organization, how the situation was handled as well as the outcome. The facilitator requests participants to debate the situation and outcome in light of the



information they have received in order to decide whether the action taken was appropriate and what could have been done differently.

Case studies serve several functions in training programs: they are icebreakers, they provoke thought and the development of insight, they afford practical learning opportunities, and they test participants' learning (Alden & Kirkhorn, 1996).

As a thought provoker, a case study may make participants aware of previously unrecognized issues and/or their need to learn a new skill (Alden & Kirkhorn, 1996). In any of these situations, a case study could effectively set the context for skills-based learning.

The greatest value of case studies is probably the opportunity they offer for the practising of skills. They are particularly useful for practising complex skills such as the ability to identify different solutions, question assumptions, explore ambiguity, think analytically as well as detect and solve problems. These skills underlie leadership competencies such as creativity, systems thinking and critical evaluation.

### Role-plays

Role-plays are defined as exercises in which "players spontaneously act out characters assigned to them in a scenario" (Thiagarajan, 1996, p.521). Once participants understand the theories, principles, and techniques underlying the topic at hand – effective conflict management, for instance – each participant gets a partner for the role-play. One partner must resolve a conflict being experienced with another manager in the organization and that has affected interactions between the two work groups. The partners take on the role of the two managers and act out the situation, practising what they have learned about conflict management in order to resolve the problem.

Role-plays are designed in order to reflect reality, but provide the participants only limited information about the hypothetical situation. Because of this, the range of behaviours that might unfold during the exercise is almost unlimited. Responding



appropriately to whatever evolves; using the knowledge gained is an inherent part of the exercise.

As a rule, role-plays are most useful for practising interpersonal skills such as conflict management, negotiation, influencing, team building, active listening, giving and receiving feedback as well as communication (Thiagarajan, 1996, p.521).

# Behavioural role-modelling

Behavioural role-modelling, an elaboration of the role-play technique, is based on the social learning theory (Bandura, 1986). It first presents participants with models of appropriate behaviour, after which they role-play the behaviour and receive feedback on their performance. For example, in learning effective negotiation skills, participants start by watching a video show of an effective negotiation. At the end of the video show they are reminded of the key steps necessary to complete a negotiation successfully. They then receive role-play materials and practice negotiating with partners, using the key steps that have been modelled and described.

As is the case with role-plays, behavioural modelling is useful for learning interpersonal skills. Goldstein and Sorcher (1974) used the approach to improve interpersonal and managerial skills. Behavioural role-modelling is regarded as one of the more effective training methods (Burke & Day, 1986).

## Simulations

Simulations usually offer a realistic representation of one or more aspects of the leadership role such as setting direction, acting on values, building relationships or acting strategically. Simulations are like role-plays in that they mimic aspects of work reality. Simulations provide more detailed information and more structure for the participants than do role-plays.

In a typical simulation, participants receive a packet of detailed information about a fictitious company, such as an organizational chart, detailed background on the company's financial results, descriptions of the various departments, and the



challenges facing both these departments as well as the organization as a whole. They are assigned, or they select a role as one of the organization's leaders and receive additional information about the person in question and the specific problems and opportunities the leader faces. Once roles have been assigned and materials have been received, participants run the fictitious organization. They set priorities, make decisions (or fail to make them), work with disgruntled customers and solve problems. At the end of the exercise, participants give and receive feedback on the what (the content) and the how (the process) of their performance.

# b) Personal Growth approach to Leadership Development

These types of leadership training programs emphasize personal growth. They are generally based on the assumption that leaders are individuals who want to be in touch with their personal dreams and talents and who will act to fulfil them (Conger, 1992).

Personal growth programs induce participants to reflect on their behaviour as well as on their personal values and desires by making use of outdoor-adventure activities and psychological exercises. They also empower participants through experiences that teach them to take responsibility for their behaviour – rather than blame problems on the job or outside influences and events (Galagan, 1987).

At the heart of personal growth programs is Abraham Maslow's idea of finding what your true self is and what one wants and in that process of discovering one's leadership abilities (Conger, 1992). The activities utilised in personal growth programs to facilitate the development of self-insight, range from jumping off cliffs, to intense personal explorations with others.

## c) Conceptual Understanding approach to Leadership Development

According to Conger (1992), training and the conceptual understanding of leadership has traditionally been the domain of the universities. Graduate and undergraduate programs generally focus on the issue of leadership development through a cognitive understanding of leadership. Models and case studies are often used to explain to students and managers what leaders actually do.



The lecture-case-discussion format however, provides few or no opportunities for students to reflect deeply on their own desires to become leaders or to test their leadership abilities. Skills' building in these settings is limited because the development tools are often lectures and discussions, rather than experiential exercises.

Beyond university settings, there are several commercial leadership development programs whose orientations are strongly conceptual (Conger, 1992). These programs, usually based on a single model of leadership, often also make use of skills-building exercises and feedback material.

Conceptual training serves the function of expanding a participant's perceptions of the process and what it requires, as well as generating interest in becoming a leader (Conger, 1992).

# d) Feedback Approach to Leadership Development

Leadership training can be approached from the perspective that many already possess leadership skills in varying degrees and strengths. Through effective feedback processes, leaders can learn about their strengths and weaknesses in a number of leadership skills. The next logical step is to develop the weaker skills or to acquire those skills which are absent while continuing to optimise stronger skills. Programs, in which feedback is emphasized, often make use of learning methods such as feedback and experiential exercises.

In some programs, feedback constitutes a large portion of the program time and measures participants' skills in a wide range of behaviours (Center for Creative Leadership, 1998). A program that follows this approach is the Leadership Development Program offered by the Center for Creative Leadership in North Carolina. While this six-day leadership program involves experiential exercises and some conceptual material, its predominant feature is feedback (Center for Creative Leadership, 1998).



Before commencing the program, participants fill out feedback instruments such as the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, the Firo-B and the Management Skills Profile, along with other instruments designed by the Center for Creative Leadership. These instruments are also given to the participants' peers, supervisors and subordinates to assess the individual. Throughout the six days, participants receive bits and pieces of feedback, until the fifth day, which is devoted entirely to feedback. Armed with information on an array of dimensions, participants return home with insights into how their behaviour affects themselves and others. It is assumed that having completed the program, participants will have the personal motivation to improve (Center for Creative Leadership, 1998).

The value of the feedback-oriented approach to leadership development is in making participants aware of the areas where their competencies are weak and in building confidence through positive feedback on strengths (Center for Creative Leadership, 1998).

# e) Action Learning approach to Leadership Development

Action learning is a set of organization development practices in which important real-time organizational problems are tackled. Three kinds of objectives are sought: delivering measurable organizational results, communicating learning's specific to a particular context, and developing more general leadership skills and capabilities (Palus & Horth, 2003). Effective action learning may range from tacit, non-facilitated learning at work to focused and high-impact learning projects to transformations of people and organizations (Marisic, 2002).

Mumford (1995) believes that action learning is effective because it incorporates the following elements necessary for effectively training leaders:

- Learning for leaders should mean learning to take effective action and this is the focus of action learning;
- Taking effective action *necessarily* involves actually *taking action*, not recommending action or undertaking an analysis of someone else's problem;
- The best form of action for learning is to work on a specific project or on an ongoing problem of actual significance;



- Leaders learn best with and from each other;
- In action learning leaders can share problems on which to take action;
- Rather than being taught through case studies or simulations, participants in action learning learn from exposure to actual business problems and to each other's insights.

Action learning is so flexible and adaptive that it can be effective in developing leaders in all areas of business, in all cultures, and at all levels. The process leverages and builds upon each person's knowledge and experience.

Action learning is less structured because it has no syllabus of its own, no textbooks and very little classroom training. It is a self-guided course of learning that is unique to each leader and his or her problem (McNulty & Canty, 1995).

In action learning groups, the actions of leaders are evaluated by their colleagues. Through this process of continuous self-revelation, leaders are able to get in touch with why they say the things they say, do the things they do and value the things they value. Leaders also begin to transcend false self-images that are built on the assumption that their actions are entirely congruent with their espoused intentions.

As Revans (1983) notes, "action learning is the Aristotelian manifestation of all managers' jobs: they learn as they manage, and they manage because they have learned- and go on learning" (p.49).

Brooks (1998) notes that action learning builds leaders who "metaphorically speaking, (have) the capacity to find a new and better path through the jungle, rather than be the first one down a path that already exists" (p.53).

Learning how to conceptualize complex issues is a skill often developed through action learning. Creating visions, particularly shared visions, occurs frequently in action learning groups as the members develop system-oriented, holistic solutions to complex problems.



# 2.4.3 Other types of Development Action.

## a) Reading

There are hundreds of books, journals, magazines, and newspapers related to the field of management and leadership. Leaders should also keep in mind the value of reading on topics that are not directly related to business but may nonetheless provide valuable information on management and leadership issues. Books and articles on figures like General George Patton and Sir Winston Churchill can for instance be useful for understanding strategic and tactical thinking. Science fiction might inspire leaders to think creatively (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

### b) Self-monitoring

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002) a monitoring system helps leaders to monitor their progress. This approach does not require outside assistance. Firstly, leaders must decide which skill or behaviour they want to concentrate on. It is best to select a skill that is directly relevant to their jobs, but which they do not use very often. Examples of behaviours that are well suited to self-monitoring are informing, consulting, monitoring, recognizing, and supporting.

Secondly, leaders should select several concrete and relevant examples of this skill or behaviour. Most 360° assessment feedback reports include specific examples of behaviour. They may select all the examples from such a feedback report or, if they wish, identify other examples that are more relevant to their jobs and add them to the list. It is best to have between four and six examples of behaviour (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

At the end of the day, the leader should make a note of which behaviour he or she used during the day. Ideally, each behaviour should be used at least once per week, if appropriate. No behaviour should however be overused, or used for its own sake. At the end of each week, leaders should review their behaviour and determine how well they performed.

After a period, the leader will probably find that he or she is using the behaviour naturally, without conscious planning. When this happens, it is time to switch to another behaviour



requiring improvement, using the same process. Leaders can use self-monitoring for more than one leadership behaviour at a time. However, it may not be a good idea to work on more than three behaviours at a time since this can become confusing.

# c) Coaching, Consulting and Mentoring.

According to Hall (in Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004), developmental relationships primarily take two forms: coaching and mentoring. Coaching involves practical, goal-focused forms of one-on-one learning and, ideally, behavioural change. It can be a short-term intervention intended to develop specific leadership skills or a more extensive process involving a series of meetings over time. The most effective coaching allows for collaboration to assess and understand the developmental task to challenge current constraints while exploring new possibilities, and to ensure accountability and support for reaching goals and sustaining development. According to Ting and Hart (in Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004), mentoring is typically defined as a committed, long-term relationship in which a senior person supports the personal and professional development of a junior person.

In many organizations mentors are thought to enhance, if not ensure, the development and success of talented newcomers. Increasingly, mid-career leaders seek mentors and/or coaches when they wish to develop new levels of expertise and to advance in the organisation (Meyer and Fourie, 2004).

### d) Job Assignments.

Challenging job assignments are a potent form of leadership development and provides many of the developmental opportunities in organizations today. The level of organizational involvement in making job assignments part of their leadership development process varies from simply providing people with information about developmental opportunities in their current job to a systematic program of job rotation. Using job assignments for developmental purposes provides benefits that go beyond getting the job done and may even result in competitive advantages for the organizations (Ohlott, 2004).



Confirming the old principle that experience is the best teacher, research has shown that the most effective classroom is the job itself. In several studies conducted by the Center for Creative Leadership (1998), executives reported that almost half the events that had a lasting impact on their leadership abilities to manage were job assignments. Both new jobs and new challenges within current jobs are critical for continuous learning, growth and change.

The following are the valuable learning experiences identified from the research done by the Center for Creative Leadership:

- Challenging assignments include a considerable increase in responsibility, moving
  into an unfamiliar line of business, or being moved to a line management position
  from a specialist position. Leaders are faced with larger-scale, bottom-line
  accountability and the need to practise new skills or knowledge, such as managing
  direct reports and dealing with customers;
- Creative assignments include building something from nothing and taking action in the face of uncertainty. Leaders are challenged to stand alone, make quick decisions, and identify talented people for their teams;
- Problem-solving assignments focus on areas where an organization experiences
  difficulties and corrective actions must be taken. These complex situations require
  leaders to persevere, make tough decisions and manage staff;
- Project or task force assignments are short-term, highly visible and often require leaders to work in areas where they have limited or no experience or knowledge;
- Leaders are tested in areas such as decision-making, communicating and establishing relationships;
- A move from a line to a support function such as planning, finance and administration, requires leaders to learn new technical skills on the job, as well as appreciate the importance of influencing others in areas where they have no direct authority;
- Demotions, missed promotions and unchallenging jobs can also be learning experiences, although no one would intentionally seek them out. They teach humility and challenge leaders to persevere.



#### 2.5 GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Once leaders have a clear picture of what their development goals are, they must decide how they will attain them as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development as shown in Figure 5.1. How leaders are going to reach their development goals, will depend largely on the individual's personality and the specific competencies he or she wants to focus on. It may be useful, however, to consider the strategies for development that have been successful for other leaders in the past.

The first question to ask is, "How do I learn and grow?" We all have our own personal tactics for learning new behaviours that we have developed and became accustomed to over time. Therefore, each person must identify his or her own approach to learning prior to undertaking specific development action. Although these preferred learning methods will often be the main focus of the development plan, leaders must be open to other approaches that may be more effective for learning a particular skill or behaviour. For example, a person may prefer to read about a subject to become more familiar with it. This works very well for knowledge-based development targets, but it may not be quite as appropriate for developing negotiating skills. Reading can be helpful, but the best way to develop negotiating skills is through practice and to learn from experience.

The following list of development actions used by successful learners was compiled by the Center for Creative Leadership (1998):

- Building new strengths or testing current strengths in new situations;
- Teaching someone else how to do something;
- Compensating for a weakness by, for example, working with someone who is good with taking care of detail if one is poor at doing so oneself;
- Imagining certain situations by, for example, imagining what things could look like in the future, examining the past for similar events, planning a series of activities to try, mentally rehearsing how one will act before handling problem situations, asking what the ideal leader or professional would do;



- Practice action learning by taking action in order to solve real business problems,
   placing oneself in a situation where one must overcome or neutralize a weakness,
   emulating the behaviour of an admired person;
- Enhancing self-awareness by obtaining feedback on strengths, weaknesses and limitations;
- Making less obvious choices and trying new behaviour to overcome old habits;
- Regularly asking, "What lessons have I learned?";
- Developing many flexible rules of thumb that can be applied in different types of situations;
- Regularly analyzing successes as well as failures and mistakes in an effort to learn;
- Seeking help in structuring learning by looking for role models, keeping a learning diary, talking to others who have faced similar challenges, talking with previous job incumbents, attending courses and getting on-the-job coaching;
- Searching for examples that provide points of comparison, such as thinking of a good team builder with whom to compare oneself;
- Thinking about one's feelings and attitudes after a learning event;
- Asking oneself many questions and trying to answer them from different perspectives.

#### 2.6 LEADERSHIP CAPABILITIES

The enhancement of leadership capabilities is another key element of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 5.1). Boyatzis (1982) describes a competency as an underlying characteristic of an individual, which is causally related to effective or superior performance in a job. Boyatzis placed the concept of competency firmly in the context of effective performance. According to Boyatzis (1982), effective performance is the attainment of specific results (outcomes) through specific actions while maintaining policies, procedures and conditions of the organizational environment. A person's competencies enable the performance of these actions. A leader's capability is reflected by the total set of competencies of that leader.

Most leadership development interventions are focused on individuals, but when these interventions are attended by many individuals in the same organization, the capabilities of



whole groups may be positively influenced. Under these conditions, an assessment of impact might focus on both individual and group or organizational impact.

The objective of the Leadership Development Model and Process is to have a positive impact on the following areas of capability:

# 2.6.1 Knowledge Acquisition.

New knowledge can be acquired in almost any development intervention, such as feedback-intensive programs, skills-based training, or job assignments. According to Van Velsor (1998), one purpose of developmental experiences, for instance, could be to transmit knowledge. Multirator or 360° assessment questionnaires are often based on models of effective leadership or on skills that are linked to an organization's strategic direction. Those who use a 360° assessment instrum ent not only learn about themselves, but simultaneously learn what it takes to be an effective leader in their organization (Van Velsor, 1998).

According to Van Velsor (1998) the knowledge acquired through all these experiences takes various forms. Leaders gain new information about themselves or about how others perceive them, or they learn new concepts about leadership itself, such as the components of transformational leadership or the dimensions of personality that affect leadership style.

As might be expected, acquisition of new knowledge often triggers the development of a higher level of self-awareness (Van Velsor, 1998).

### 2.6.2 Self-awareness.

A leader's understanding of his/her own strengths and weaknesses, and the impact his/her behaviour and attitude have on other people, can be enhanced through experiences that are rich in feedback from others, such as participation in a 360° assessment and feedback process.



Increased awareness can be general such as "I am a reasonably good leader" or more specific, such as "I am not being seen as listening well to others". After participating in a 360° assessment and feedback process, some leaders report a higher level of awareness about how they see themselves such as "I judge myself too harshly" or about their own needs for inclusion, achievement, or acceptance such as "I want to be involved and sometimes my requests for involvement overload me" or "I need challenges to keep me driven" (Van Velsor, Ruderman & Phillips, 1989).

It makes sense to reason that a higher level of self-awareness must precede behaviour change. In addition, a higher level of self-awareness often motivates the development of new skills.

# 2.6.3 Perspective change.

According to Van Velsor (1998), perspective change is similar to building increased self-awareness in that it is a change in attitude rather than an observable behaviour. Perspective change however has a different focus; instead of a person's own strengths and weaknesses, attention is rather paid to insights about others and the environment in which the person lives and works. According to Von Velsor (1998), significant perspective change usually occurs more slowly than does new self-insight, but both can occur as a result of a single powerful event or experience.

Perspective change, like increased self-awareness, can be the result of knowledge acquisition (Van Velsor, 1998). For example, the realization that "it is possible to manage a team or division without becoming a technical expert", is a change in perspective. A leader may come to this understanding by acquiring more information about what leadership involves.

According to Van Velsor (1998), perspective change, like self-awareness change, can underlie a change in behaviour. Perspective changes are transformational since a person's views of certain aspects of reality are fundamentally changed and it is likely to facilitate and result in changed behaviour. The person who, for instance, recognizes that



being a leader is different from technical work, finds it easier from that point on to let go of the need to remain in hands-on mode with subordinates.

# 2.6.4 Skills Development.

Intentional skills development or improvement often begins after an assessment experience such as a feedback-intensive program or a 360° assessment and feedback has created awareness of the need for improvement (Van Velsor, 1998). Skills can, of course, be developed or improved without formal assessment, as often happens when one takes on a new assignment or challenge. Skills-based training and on-the-job learning are probably the two most frequently used methods for developing new skills (Van Velsor, 1998).

Mastering new skills often takes time and exposure to multiple experiences. This is particularly true for skills that involve significant personal change in perspective or self-understanding, such as empowerment. Skills that are dependent on learning a process, such as giving constructive feedback or conflict resolution, can be acquired more quickly.

# 2.6.5 Behaviour Change.

Behaviour change involves acting and reacting differently to situations and problems.

Behaviour change is like skills development in that both take great effort and practise. Similarly, both can be thought of as having simple and complex varieties. Simpler behaviour change may result from new awareness gained during assessment, or from learning new skills, for instance when a person decides to stop interrupting others, to schedule regular meetings with staff, or to spend more time with the family. More complex behaviour changes, such as collecting further data before making a decision or actually allowing the perspectives of others to influence one's own, are only achieved with more time, more effort and higher motivation (Van Velsor, 1998).

According to Van Velsor (1998), real behaviour change is not usually the result of any single development experience. It happens only over time, through repeated efforts, ongoing feedback and the use of multiple, preferably linked, development events.



## 2.7 MONITORING AND REVIEWING PROGRESS.

The monitoring and reviewing of progress is an important process in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development as indicated in Figure 5.1.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), leaders feel more motivated to persist in their efforts if they experience a series of successes. The process of development should therefore consist of a series of milestones. Development targets can therefore be pursued in manageable increments rather than asking leaders to take giant leaps. The milestones should be identified in terms of achieving goals, such as completing the study of management development literature, attending a seminar or completing a challenging assignment.

Monitoring performance data over a period of time to determine the impact of someone's behaviour on results and deliverables for which that individual is responsible, is the most powerful way to demonstrate the link between behaviour change and results. It is, however, only appropriate when there is a clear, definable connection between the behaviour of the individual and productivity measures. Given the complex nature of work processes and work relationships, it is not always easy to establish a clearly defined connection between the development of a leader and his or her work performance.

# 3. GROUP AND ORGANIZATIONAL IMPACT OF THE MODEL

According to Van Velsor (1998) organizations can use individual leadership development to foster change in groups. Usually, the expectation is that leaders who are given opportunities for development become more effective group leaders and enhanced leadership generates increased productivity in the workgroup. If leaders are sent to development events in large numbers, there is often a expectation that the impact will be felt throughout the organization. At this level, the desired impact can also be financial through improved organizational performance (Van Velsor, 1998).



One way of assessing change at the group level is to use climate surveys or other measures of group satisfaction. Another is to take advantage of measures of performance or group output that already exist in the organizations' financial systems. Although the main purpose of the Holistic Model for Leadership is to facilitate individual development, the fact that a large number of leaders participate in individual development may have an impact on workgroups and teams. The collective impact of the development of many individual leaders may also have a positive impact of the overall leadership capability of the organization as indicated by Van Velsor (1998).

### 4. LINKING THE MODEL TO HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS.

According to other Alldredge, Johnson, Stolzfus and Vicere (2003), leadership development interventions must be linked to other HR systems to enhance its effectiveness and business impact. This means incorporating the assessment feedback not only into training and development processes but also into performance management, succession planning and reward systems. If managers know that they will be measured and rewarded according to the progress they make toward reaching their development goals, they should be even more motivated to translate their feedback into action.

## 5. SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL

The following are seen by the researcher as critical factors for the successful implementation of the Leadership Model and Process described in this Chapter:

- Leadership development must be linked to the strategic objectives of the business so that the value of the development interventions in the business are clear;
- A clearly defined strategy is of critical importance. The desired results/outcomes of the development process should be clearly stated;
- The senior executives must support the process. They must demonstrate, through their attitude and behaviour, that development is important;
- The process must be tailored to meet the needs of the organization;



- Leadership development must be a holistic process that becomes part of the culture of the organization;
- Leadership development is a process; there must be a systematic process for development of which formal training is only one component;
- There must be a commitment by all leaders to development. They must be held accountable for the management of their own development.

The critical success factors listed above are based on research done by Chappelow (2004).

The Leadership Development Model and Process discussed in this Chapter is based on the following development philosophies and principles:

- This Leadership Development Model and Process is based on a long-term systems approach to development since development is viewed as a process that occurs over time. There is no such thing as a quick fix;
- Formal training is viewed as only one component of the development process.
   Effective development should consist of a range of development experiences and actions as described as part of this Leadership Development Model and Process;
- Development is seen as a complex multidimensional issue owing to an environment where organizations face continuous change, fierce competition and increasing globalisation. Developmental goals are continuously evolving and consist of a mix of clearly defined goals, ambitious, challenging goals and broad competencies;
- Employees at all levels individual employees, their managers, senior executives
  and the organization at large must be closely involved with all aspects of
  development, from planning to implementation, ongoing support and continuous
  evaluation of the impact of development processes.

# 6. THE FUTURE OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

According to Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) the following trends will have a major role in our future understanding and practice of leadership and leadership development:



- Leadership competencies still matter;
- Globalization/internationalization of leadership concepts, constructs, and development methods;
- The role of technology;
- Increasing interest in the integrity and character of leaders;
- Pressure to demonstrate return on investment;
- New ways of thinking about the nature of leadership and leadership development.

## 7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Leadership development is seen by the researcher as a process requiring both a variety of developmental experiences as well as the ability to learn from experience. The latter is the inherent element that the individual brings to the development process. The Holistic Model and Process for Leadership Development discussed in this Chapter, follows a systems approach and is based on the Social Learning Theory and High Performance Leadership Competencies underpinned by a learning organization philosophy as described in Chapter 1.

The researcher has endeavoured to capture the following key elements of effective leadership development and the different levels of learning into a Holistic Model for Leadership Development:

# Leadership Competencies

Leadership competencies (see Figure 5.1) forms the basis of the proposed leadership development model. One of the initial steps in leadership development is to create or select of a set of leadership competencies which are critical to being an effective, successful leader in a particular organization. The identified set of leadership competencies are graphically represented in the form of a Leadership Competency Model.

### Assessment and Feedback

Assessment and feedback is one of the key elements of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 2.1). What we call 360° as sessment and feedback can be described as a process in which one evaluates oneself on a set of behavioural criteria; the



manager/supervisor evaluates one, as well as one's peers and direct reports. The benefit of collecting data of this type is that the person gets to see different perceptions rather than only self-perception. This affords a more complete picture.

## Development Planning

A 360° feedback process should result in a focused development as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 3.1). Effective developmental planning is more than just an exercise in goal setting. It is a blueprint for achieving and sustaining behaviour change by using a variety of development strategies proven to enhance learning.

# Development Experiences/Actions

According to Van Velsor and Guthrie (1998), people learn from a variety of development experiences and development experiences enhance their ability to learn. The best approach in helping leaders to develop a wide range of leadership skills, is to combine multiple development experiences.

## Growth and Development

Growth and Development is an important process in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 2.1).

Once leaders have a clear picture of what their development goals are, they must decide how they will attain these.

The first question to ask is, "How do I learn and grow?" We all have our own personal tactics for learning new behaviours that we have developed and became accustomed to over time. Therefore, each person must identify his or her own approach to learning prior to undertaking specific development actions.

# Leadership Capabilities

The enhancement of overall Leadership Capability is another key element of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 2.1). Boyatzis (1982) describes a



competency as an underlying characteristic of an individual, which is causally related to the effective or superior performance in a job. A leader's total set of competencies reflect the leadership capability of that leader.

The objective of the proposed Leadership Model and Process is to have a positive impact on the following areas of capability:

- Knowledge acquisition;
- Self-awareness;
- Skills development;
- Behaviour change;
- Perspective change.

# Monitoring and Reviewing Progress

The monitoring and reviewing of progress is another important process in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development as indicated in Figure 2.1.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), leaders feel more motivated to persist in their efforts if they experience a series of successes. The process of development should therefore consist of a series of milestones along the way. In this way, development targets can be pursued in manageable increments rather than asking leaders to take giant leaps.

Performance data should be monitored over a period of time to determine the impact of someone's behaviour on the results and the deliverables for which that individual is responsible. This is the most powerful way to demonstrate the link between behaviour change and results.

Van Velsor, Moxley and McCauley (1998) describe leadership development as an ongoing process that happens over time, involving a variety of development experiences. According to Drath (1998), current leadership development practices seeking to create a framework for practising leadership development more systemically in organizations, are already pointing the way toward promising new directions. This is exactly what the



researcher endeavoured to do with the Holistic Model for Leadership Development as discussed in this Chapter.

In this Chapter, each of the elements in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development has been discussed from a theoretical perspective to reflect the approach that was followed with the implementation of the model in the organization where the research was conducted. In the next Chapter, the implementation of this model in the organization where the research was conducted will be discussed together with the utilisation of the 360° assessment research results in the context of this model.



## **CHAPTER 3**

# THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AS PART OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) as described in Chapter 5 has been implemented as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development in the organization under research. The annual results of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire over a period of 3 years has been utilised for this research. The research results are discussed in Chapter 6. In this Chapter, the implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development as part of this research project will be discussed.

# 2. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT.

The Holistic Model for Leadership Development (see Figure 2.1 in Chapter 2) has been implemented in the organization where the research was conducted based on the theoretical framework and guidelines as discussed in Chapter 2.

The following process was followed in the implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development:

## 2.1 LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

- The Leadership competencies regarded as critical for all leaders in the organization have been determined and validated by means of benchmarking and focus groups as described in Chapter 5 and graphically depicted in a Leadership Competency Model (see Figure 5.1).
- Each competency was described in terms of a general definition followed by a list of observable, measurable behaviours for each competency (see Appendix E).



## 2.2 ASSESSMENT AND FEEDBACK

- After the Leadership Competency Model had been approved by top management, a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) was developed to measure the competencies in the Leadership Competency Model. The development and validation of the 360° Leadership Assessment questi onnaire is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.
- Prior to the implementation of the Leadership Competency Model and 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire a half-day Leadership Assessment workshop was conducted with leaders on all levels in the organization to introduce them to the Leadership Competency Model and the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ). All leaders also received a 360° Leadership Assessment Guideline document at the workshop (see Appendix F).
- Subsequent to the workshops, the 360° Leadership A ssessment Questionnaire was implemented in the organization as described in Chapter 5. Leaders participated on a voluntary basis for development purposes only.

# 2.3 DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

• Every leader who participated received a confidential individual feedback report (see Appendix B). Leaders were also requested to draw up personal development plans based on the results of the LAQ feedback reports (see Appendix C). A two hour workshop was also conducted with groups of 12 - 15 leaders at a time to assist them with the interpretation of their 360° assessment results as well as to provide them with guidelines on how to compile a personal development plan (see Appendix G).

### 2.4 DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES/ACTIONS

 Leaders were encouraged to include a variety of development actions as described in Chapter 5 in their development plans, based on their individual development needs.



- Leaders were encouraged to include a combination of the following types of development experiences/actions as described in Chapter 2 into their personal development plans:
  - Formal training courses and/or workshops;
  - Reading:
  - Self-monitoring;
  - Coaching, consulting, mentoring;
  - Job assignments;
  - On the job development activities (see Appendix H).

### 2.5 GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Once leaders had a clear picture of their development goals, they were requested to decide how they would reach them. This largely depended on the individual's personality and the specific areas he or she wanted to develop.

The first question leaders should ask is, "How do I learn and grow?" All leaders have their own personal preferences for learning new behaviours that they have developed and become used to over time. Therefore, each leader needs to identify his or her own approach to learning before undertaking a specific action toward development. Although these preferred learning methods will often be the main focus of the development plan, leaders have been encouraged to be open to other approaches that may be more effective for learning a particular skill or behaviour. For example, we may prefer first to read about a subject to become more familiar with it. This works very well for knowledge-based development targets, but it may not be as appropriate for developing negotiating skills. Reading can be helpful, but the best way to develop this skill is to practise it and learn from experience. Every leader received a Self-development Guide with practical development actions that can be utilized by leaders to develop the leadership competencies in the Leadership Competency Model (see Appendix H).

The objective of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development is to have a positive impact on the following areas of capability as described in Chapter 2:

Knowledge acquisition



- Self-awareness
- Perspective change
- Skills development
- Behaviour change

In the organization where the research was conducted, the development of leadership capabilities were monitored by means of an overall 360° Leadership Assessment company report based on the average rating for each competency. The average rating for each competency was calculated annually over the three-year period of this research and the results are reflected in Table 6.1.

## 2.6 LEADERSHIP CAPABILITIES

The objective of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development is to have a positive impact on the following areas of capability as described in Chapter 2:

- Knowledge acquisition
- Self-awareness
- Perspective change
- Skills development
- Behaviour change

In the organization where the research was conducted, the development of leadership capabilities were monitored by means of an overall 360° Leadership Assessment company report based on the average rating for each competency. The average rating for each competency was calculated annually over the three-year period of this research and the results are reflected in Table 6.1.

# 2.7 MONITORING AND REVIEWING PROGRESS

The leadership behaviour of the leaders in the organization under research was measured annually over a period of 3 years by means of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire and analysed as described in Chapter 6.

In the organization where the research was conducted, the development of leadership capabilities were monitored on an individual level by means of the annual 360° leadership assessment reports distributed to each leader who participated. In order to enable leaders



to track the development of their leadership capabilities, each report also reflected the results of the previous assessment as discussed in Chapter 6.

At company level, the development of leadership capabilities was monitored by means of an overall 360°Leadership Assessment Company Report based on the average ratings for each competency, as discussed in Chapter 4.

# 3. ACTIONS TAKEN TO ENSURE THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL

The following actions were taken to ensure the successful implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development based on the best practice guidelines in Chapter 5:

- The leadership competencies that forms part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development has been identified by the top management team of the organization to support the strategic direction of the company. This ensured that the top management team supported the project and therefore encouraged the rest of the leaders in the company to participate;
- A comprehensive communication plan was drawn up to support the implementation of the model. This ensured that all leaders understood what was going to happen, why it was going to happen and when it was going to happen;
- Workshops were conducted with all leaders to explain the leadership model and competencies as well as the 360° assessment and fee dback process. These workshops provided leaders with the opportunity to ask questions and discuss their concerns;
- Copies were printed of the leadership model and each leader received a framed copy of the leadership model to hang in their office. In this way the leadership model and competencies became part of the work environment and culture of the organization;
- The 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire that was developed based on the identified leadership competencies were validated. This ensured that it was perceived as a credible and valid instrument to measure leadership behaviour by the leaders in the company;



- The 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire was computer based. This made
  it easy for leaders to participate and they were able to complete it at a time that was
  convenient for them and did not interfere with their work commitments;
- Confidentiality of the 360° assessment results wer e protected by only allowing two HR specialist's access to the data. This enhanced the credibility of the 360° assessment and feedback process;
- Feedback reports were distributed electronically. This allowed leaders to read their feedback reports and draw up their development plans at a time that was convenient for them;
- Leaders were provided with a set of personal development planning guidelines (see Appendix G) as well as a set of self-development guidelines (see Appendix H).
   This enabled leader to take responsibility for their own development which started to build a culture of self directed learning in the organization.
- Focus groups were conducted with leaders after each 360° assessment and feedback process to discuss the overall results and obtain feedback from them on what interventions are required. This established learning as a continuous process;
- Feedback were given to top management after every 360° assessment and feedback process on the overall results as well as the suggestions for possible interventions from the focus groups. Top management then evaluated the suggestions and decided which interventions will be implemented. This ensured that learning and decision-making became a participative process.

### 4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this study, leadership behaviour has been measured and monitored over a period of three years by means of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) as part of a Holistic Model for Leadership Development. The objective of this research was to measure and monitor leadership behaviour and to analyse the assessment results. Based on a study of the analyses of the assessment results, statistically significant trends and patterns were identified for different groups in terms of gender, race, age, job level and rater groups. The results of the analyses were then interpreted to determine what focused



development experiences and interventions are required for specific groups, e.g. middle managers, female leaders, etc. as part of a Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

The overall assessment results for the company were also analysed by calculating the average rating for each competency every year as reflected in Table 6.1. These results were used to monitor and track the development of the leadership capability of the organization. It was also used to determine what company-wide development interventions are required to enhance the overall leadership capability of the company as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

Measuring and monitoring leadership behaviour at individual level over time provides individual leaders with valuable feedback on how their efforts to change and improve their leadership behaviour are being perceived by others, as well as what else they have to focus on to improve their leadership capabilities.

Drath (1998, p.431) summarises the purpose and contribution of this research in the context of a holistic model and process for leadership development very well when writing:

Leadership development as a profession is being aced to play a vital role in bringing forth a new idea of leadership and in supporting the new idea as it emerges. Some current practices, especially those seeking to combine leadership development with ongoing work and those seeking to create a framework for practising leadership development more systemically in organizations, are already pointing the way toward promising new directions.



# 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 & Postner, 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

- Diaming and hudgating	- Creating vision and strategy		
Planning and budgeting	Creating vision and strategy		
Keeping eye on bottom line	Keeping eye on the horizon		
Organizing and staffing	Creating shared culture and values		
Directing and controlling	Helping others grow		
Create boundaries	Minimize boundaries		
Focuses on objects – producing/selling	Focuses on people – inspiring and		
goods and services	motivating followers		
Based on position power	Based on personal power		
Acting as boss	Acting as coach, facilitator, servant		
Emotional distance	Emotional connections (heart)		
Expert mind	Open mind (mindfulness)		
Talking	Listening (communication)		
Conformity	Non-conformity (courage)		
Insight into organization	Insight into self (integrity)		
Implementation of the leader's vision	Articulation of an organizational vision and		
and changes introduced by leaders, and	the introduction of major organizational		
the maintenance and administration of	change; provides inspiration and deals with		
organizational infrastructures.	highly stressful and troublesome aspects of		
	the external environments of organizations.		
Focuses on the tasks (things) when	Focuses on the interpersonal relationships		
performing the management functions of	(people).		
planning, organization, and controlling.			
Planning. Establishes detailed	• Establishes direction; develops a vision and		
objectives and plans for achieving them.	the strategies needed for its achievement.		
Organizing and staffing. Sets up	Innovates and allows employees to do the		
structure for employees to do the job the	job any way they want, as long as they get		
way the manager expects it to be done.	results that relate to the vision.		
, ,			

Controlling. Monitors results against	Motivates and inspires employees to	
plans and takes corrective action.	accomplish the vision in creative ways.	
Predictable. Plans, organizes, and	Makes innovative, quick changes that are	
controls with consistent behaviour.	not very predictable. Prefers change.	
Prefers stability.		
Managers do things right.	Leaders do the right things.	
Focus is on a short-term view, avoiding	The focus is on a long-term view, taking	
risks, maintaining and imitating.	risks, innovating, and originating.	
Maintains stability	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 meets 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 20<sup>th</sup> century, good management has often



been enough to keep organizations successful, but in the changing business environment of the 21<sup>st</sup> 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 of 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 McClellan 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).

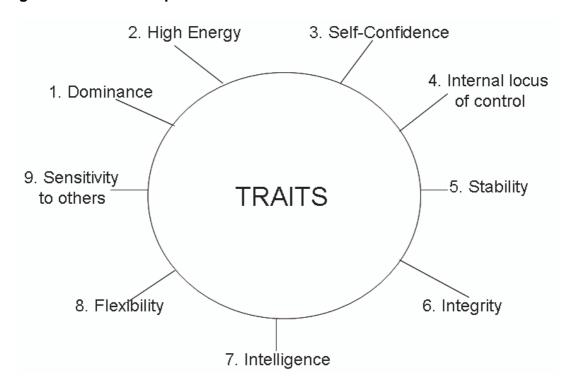
Despite the evidence that leaders tend to differ from non-leaders with respect to certain traits, Stogdill found that the results varied considerably from situation to situation. In several studies that measured situational factors, there was evidence that the relative importance of each trait depends 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	
Energy	Originality, creativity	cooperation	
Social background	Personal integrity, ethical conduct	Cooperativeness	
Mobility	Self-confidence	Popularity, prestige	
Intelligence and ability	Work-related characteristics	Sociability,	
Judgement, decisiveness	Achievement drive, desire to excel	interpersonal skills	
Knowledge	Drive for responsibility	Social participation	
Fluency of speech	Responsibility in pursuit of goals	Tact, diplomacy	
	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 lowa 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).

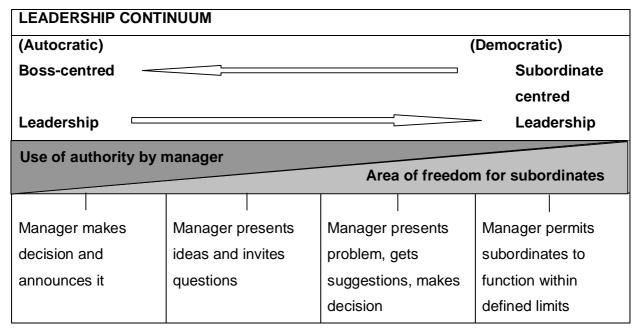
According to Likert (1967), the first studies on leadership behaviour conducted at Iowa State University by Kurt Lewin and his associates included groups of children, each with its own designated adult leader who was instructed to act in either an autocratic or democratic style. These experiments produced 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

High	9	1,9								9,9
		Countr	y Club M	anagement			Team	Managem	ent	
	8	Though	tful attent	tion to the			Interd	ependence	through a	
		needs of people leads to a					"common stake" in organization			tion
		comfortable, friendly work					purpose leads to relationships of			
	7	environ	ment.				trust a	and respect		
a)	6				5,	5				
Concern for People				Middle-c	of-the-road M	lanageme	nt			
				Adequate	e organization	n performa	nce is			
	5			possible	through balai	ncing the n	ecessity to			
				get work	done while m	naintaining	the morale			
				of people	e at a satisfac	tory level.				
) L	4									
ပိ							Authority-	compliance	e Manage	ment
	3	Impo	verished	l Manageme	nt		Efficiency	in operatior	s results fr	om
		Exert	ion of mir	nimum effort	to get		arranging (	conditions o	of work in s	uch a
		requi	red work	done as appi	ropriate		way that h	uman elem	ents interfe	re to
	2	to sustain organization membership.					a minimum	degree.		
		1,1								9.1
	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ow										
Low Concern for Res										High

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 manger 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

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

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.

#### <u>Leadership styles:</u>

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 (Al and All), two are consultative (Cl and Cll), and one is group-orientated (Gll).

#### 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 (T), 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) needshierarchy 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 selfawareness;



- 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 fourperson 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 though 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 21<sup>st</sup> 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.



# CHAPTER 5 LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES AND ASSESSMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The research in this study was conducted by means of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire referred to as the LAQ as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

Prior to the development of the LAQ, a benchmarking process was followed to determine the leadership competencies that will be relevant for the organization to be successful within a competitive environment. After extensive benchmarking, the top management team of the organization where the research was conducted decided to base the leadership model of the company on the High Performance Transformational Leadership Competencies as described by Schroder (1997), since these competencies were scientifically well researched and validated. These competencies supported the transformational strategy and business model of the organization.

The Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) used in this research has been developed and validated based on a customised version of the High Performance Transformational Leadership Competencies as described by Schroder (1997).

The Leadership Assessment Questionnaires were distributed electronically to 3000 managers in the organization once a year over a period of three years. Managers were given the option to participate on a voluntary basis. The managers who chose to participate, were rated by their subordinates, their peers, as well as their supervisors. The assessment results of the managers who participated were analysed for the purposes of this study.

In the first part of this Chapter, the background to the High Performance Transformational Leadership Competencies measured by the LAQ will be discussed. Thereafter the development and implementation of the LAQ will be discussed.



# 2. BACKGROUND TO THE HIGH PERFORMANCE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

According to Senge (1990b) hierarchically structured organizations cannot perform effectively in a changing environment. Leadership behaviours which are effective in stable environments become ineffective in dynamic environments. To perform effectively in a fast paced changing environment, the development of flatter more flexible structures is critical and these types of structures demand a different kind of leadership behaviour.

The term "dynamic" and "changing" in relation to the environment will be used interchangeably in this Chapter. Global competition as well as changes in technology, knowledge, availability of information, demographics of customers and the workforce as well as changes in consumer demand are all characteristics of a dynamic environment. These forces make the transformation of all organizations unavoidable and require leaders to fulfil a different role. To obtain and sustain a competitive advantage in an environment becoming more complex and dynamic, organizations are constantly challenged to develop new and improved processes, services and products as well as new channels of delivery (Senge, 1990b).

The role of managers changed from directive to facilitative, and the focus shifted from inward looking vertically integrated organizations to outward looking laterally integrated organizations. In order to be adaptable and innovative in complex fast changing environments, flatter, more flexible structures are required for superior performance. Effective leadership behaviour involves the ability to create a climate where change and innovation are considered to be routine and teamwork and learning occur through systems level thinking across boundaries and across all levels of the organization. Performance is no longer judged by how well a manager monitors standards, follows rules and regulations, or how well a manager manoeuvres to the top of an organization but rather on how well a manager is doing in terms of adding new or improved customer/user benefits (Senge, 1990b).



Few studies have established reliable evidence linking leadership behaviour and unit or organizational performance. Research by Boyatzis (1982), Streufert and Swezey (1986), Schroder (1989), Schroder (1975) and Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1993) indicates that each of the sets of leadership behaviour called High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLCs) is positively and significantly associated with superior organizational performance. The identification of the leadership dimensions will now be reviewed to show the link between these capabilities and business performance.

# 3. DEVELOPMENT OF THE HIGH PERFORMANCE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES (HPLCs)

The development of the competencies and their validation took place over a period of forty years. The High Performance Leadership Competencies are generic in the sense that each competency is consistently related to superior performance across different industries and in different countries where the business environment is changing constantly.

The early work by Professor Schroder at Princeton University was based on the extensive literature on cognition as well as on the Ohio State (Hemphill, 1950), Michigan (Likert, 1961) and Harvard (McClelland, 1961), studies of leadership behaviour.

# 3.1 The cognitive (or thinking) competencies

Professor Schroder (1975) based seven of the eleven HPLCs on the cognitive complexity studies conducted at the Princeton University and University of Southern Illinois.

Schroder and his colleagues conducted research at Princeton University, between 1960 and 1973. Their research focused on the impact of leadership capabilities and the environment on performance in complex dynamic business environments.

Professor Schroder translated the research findings from the laboratory simulations in these studies (Complexity Theory Studies) into measures of managerial capabilities and



then explored the relationship between the seven High Performance Leadership Competencies and performance. The seven High Performance Leadership Competencies and the leadership behaviour associated with these competencies can be described as follows:

### Information search

Information search is measured by the scope and abstractness of the search for information. Integrated, conceptual thinking leads to a very broad understanding of the internal and external forces impacting the organization. Information search is associated with broad, but relevant data gathering across many categories of information (Schreuder, 1989).

# Concept formation

At lower levels of concept formation, ideas, e.g. ideas for improvement, are implemented in response to a problem. These single ideas have little impact when implemented because they have not been integrated with other ideas and are directed at a symptom and not the real problem. For example, American manufacturers tried to improve competitiveness by increasing controls in departments such as inventory, production and distribution, for many years. The Japanese were the first to use higher levels of thinking; thinking across the departments. When representatives from different departments such as procurement, production, inventory and delivery worked together, they realised that the problems in each department were only symptoms of a more general systems problem between departments, such as delays. By the reduction of delays, the problems were overcome in all the departments and their effectiveness was improved (Schreuder, 1989).

### Conceptual complexity

Conceptual complexity can be described as the "how" of strategy formation. The same ideas are used to generate at least two equally commendable but different strategies. The positive and negative aspects of the alternative scenarios are identified, studied and used to develop the final strategy.

Conceptual flexibility, as Schroder (1989) calls it, is a process of learning about the future,



which is of critical importance in dynamic environments. One of the best ways to learn about the future is to compare the possible consequences for the organization of two or more different strategies.

# Understanding others

In his earlier work, Schroder (1989) referred to this competency as "Interpersonal Search" and later changed it to "Interpersonal Learning".

This competency enables leaders to understand how other people think and feel. Leaders with this competency validate their own understanding of other people's thoughts and feelings by asking questions such as: "Let me see if I understand, are you saying ...?" In this way the leader ensures that he/she has a clear understanding of the others' viewpoint and the reasons behind them. This kind of behaviour facilitates meaningful dialogue and the development of systems level ideas (Schreuder, 1989).

### Group interaction

Schroder and Harvey (1963), Schroder, Streufert and Weeden, D.C. (1964), Tuckman, B.W. (1965) and Stager D.P. (1967) investigated the impact of this competency on team performance. In these studies, team interaction that involved open dialogue between members as a means of making decisions, was associated with superior team performance in dynamic environments.

The understanding of the ways in which team interaction influences performance was greatly enhanced by a two-year study at the University of Southern Illinois (Schroder, 1975). This study confirmed the earlier work indicating that teams develop through a fixed sequence of stages (Tuckman, 1965). Each stage results from the development of a new competence in interaction behaviour and are associated with significantly higher levels of performance.

During the first stage team members act on their own behalf, gathering as much information from the team as they could for their own agenda. There is competition for control of what the team does. Learning focuses on external criteria, looking to the



instructor to tell them what they need to know. Given appropriate developmental conditions, some teams develop to stage two. They learn a new set of interaction behaviours associated with taking risks, challenging authority and an interest in understanding the ideas of others. During stage two, interaction is about understanding the thoughts and feelings of others in order to meet one's own goals. During stages three and four some teams progress to interaction about the relationship between the ideas of different team members and the development of system-level team ideas, as well as the use of alternative strategies in order to optimise their own and the teams performance.

The performance of teams who developed to stage four, as well as individual students in these teams, was significantly higher than the performance of students in teams which did not develop beyond stage one or two. Schroder first named this competency "Managing Interaction" in 1983 and in 1997 he changed the name of this competency to "Cross boundary Learning".

# • Concept development

In the Illinois study, Schroder (1975) compared the impact of a Concept Developing Environment (C.D.E.) with those of the traditional Concept Acquisition Environment (C.A.E.) in academic performance. In the Concept Developing Environment, the leader creates an environment which challenges followers to gather information, form their own concepts and use them to take calculated risks. This environment is almost the opposite of the Concept Acquisition Environment in which the leader exercises top-down control and demands conformity to given ideas. During this study, students in the Concept Developing Environment significantly outperformed students in the traditional Concept Acquisition Environment.

The results of these studies led to the identification of the competency called "Developmental Orientation" (Schroder, 1983).

# Optimal challenge

The results of the research done on this topic consistently demonstrated that performance was higher in a complex and challenging environment (Streufert and Swezey, 1986). Too



little or too much complexity such as too little or too much information decreases the integrating capability of an individual to integrate information. In all the studies there was an optimal level of challenge or complexity during which an individual performed at his/her highest level of cognitive capacity.

One of the competencies which leaders must develop is the ability to create a work environment which provides enough information, challenge or stimulation required to produce the highest level of thinking. Schroder (1989) called this competency "Achievement Orientation" and included it as a component of "Building Purpose" (Schroder, 1997).

In summary, seven of the High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLCs) were directly or indirectly identified, based on the Conceptual Complexity Theory Studies conducted by Schroder and his colleagues between 1960 and 1973 (Schroder, Harvey & Hunt, 1961; Schroder 1975).

# 3.2 Summary of Schroder's High Performance Leadership Competencies

Schroder (1983) analysed the behavioural indicators for each of the competencies found to be significantly related to unit performance in studies by Boyatzis (1982) and other researchers, such as Bray and Campbell (1974), Levinson (1980), Kotter (1979, 1982) and Stogdill (1974).

A brief description of Schroder's High Performance Leadership Competencies is provided in the Table 5.1.

### Table 5.1: The High Performance Leadership Competencies (Schroder, 1997)

#### Information Competency (IC)

Gathers information from a broad range of categories and sources as well as contextually more abstract information about forces within and outside the organization.

#### **Concept Competency (CC)**

Links different kinds of information and ideas to form diagnostic and system-level integrating concepts about a desired future.

### **Cross-boundary Learning Competency (CLC)**

Initiates dialogue to facilitate the development of integrating system-level group concepts, which are subordinate to and explain the concepts/causes of individual members.

#### **Developing Mental Competency (DC)**

Provides development resources and sets challenging tasks and competency feedback to enhance one's role as model or coach.

#### **Purpose Building Competency (PBC)**

Builds commitment to a shared purpose which is owned and used by team members to initiate new thinking and ideas.

#### **Confidence Building Competency (CBC)**

States and justifies own position on issues and builds high expectations of the success of unit or organizational programs.

# **Proactive Competency (PC)**

Takes action; reduces organizational constraints on members so that they can take broader responsibility and use discretion in the implementation of ideas.

#### **Achievement Competency (AC)**

Setting progressive measures to monitor the meeting of challenging objectives so that members can use performance feedback to learn and continuously improve performance.

# Conceptual Flexibility (CF)

Designing alternative routes to support learning about change and how to reach the desired future.

#### **Achievement Competency (AC)**

Facilitates the development of measurable objectives so that members can use performance feedback to continuously improve.



# 3.3 Validity of the High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLCs)

The HPLCs have been identified through a long history of research. A number of studies by researchers such as Boyatzis (1992), Bray and Campbell (1974), Levinson (1980), Kotter (1979, 1982) and Stogdill (1974) clearly demonstrate the validity of each of the High Performance Leadership Competencies. Each competency is significantly related to superior unit performance in dynamic environments. The correlation between the competencies of unit leaders and their unit's performance is .42, suggesting that the competence of a unit leader <u>alone</u> explains over 15% of unit performance (Schroder, Cockeril & Hunt, 1995).

The significance of the above finding is magnified when considering the context of an earlier study by Tuckman. Tuckman (1965) found that the greater the number of team members with a high level of conceptual ability, the higher the performance of that team. This means that the greater the number of competent leaders and other team members in a unit, the higher the performance of the unit.

Given this research result, it would appear that the HPLCs are generic competencies required for effective leadership in dynamic environments.

# 3.4 The High Performance Leadership Competencies in the South African context

In 1996 Professor Tobie DeConing, from the University of Stellenbosch, organised a study group facilitated by H.M. Schroder to identify competencies needed to produce high performance in organizations operating in dynamic competitive environments in the South African context. The study group comprised of representatives of various South African organizations and the university. After considerable study the group decided the following:

- To adopt the generic HPLCs as the basic leadership behaviours associated with superior performance because of their validity across different organizations in the USA and UK in dynamic environments and their similarity to the competencies which the study group members identified on the basis of their own experience;
- To introduce an additional competency which they called "Contextual Sensitivity";



- To modify the behavioural indicators for each of the ten HPLCs to fit the context of South African organizations. The South African behavioural indicators are based on the positive indicators found to underlie the HPLCs described in the book Managerial Competence (Schroder, 1989). Preliminary behavioural indicators for each of the South African HPLCs were developed (DeConing, 1996);
- The South African HPLCs could be used as a basis for organizations to build their competency models and measurement instruments.

# 4. APPLICATION OF THE HIGH PERFORMANCE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES IN THE ORGANIZATION WHERE THE RESEARCH WAS CONDUCTED

### 4.1 Introduction

In the organization where the research was conducted, the belief that the environment will become more dynamic in the future and the implications that this will have for the roles and competencies of leaders, led to a benchmarking exercise in 2000 to identify leadership behaviour which should result in outstanding organizational performance under these circumstances.

# 4.2 Customization of the High Performance Leadership Competencies

A thorough review of the literature on leadership competencies and of leadership development practices across the world revealed that very little work had been undertaken to prepare leaders for more dynamic business environments. However, one initiative did appear to be more progressive than the rest, namely the one led by Harry Schroder former professor of psychology at Princeton and later professor of management at the University of South Florida. He has drawn on several areas of research to identify and test the validity of ten high-performance leadership competencies. Subsequent research in NatWest to test his findings indicates that high levels of performance are achieved in changing circumstances when leaders use these competencies (Cockerill, 1989).

In the organization where the research was conducted, interviews were conducted with the entire top management team to obtain their inputs on the leadership competencies required to ensure the future success of the organization in a competitive environment.

The top management team also had a one-day workshop to discuss these competencies and to determine whether these were the leadership competencies that would enable the organization to be successful in a competitive environment. They customised the High Performance Leadership Competencies and added five other leadership competencies required by the organization. The customised set of competencies is the following:

## Integrity

To communicate and act consistently with integrity at all times, within the organization's values and code of business conduct:

- Ensure and maintain confidentiality where required;
- Keep promises and avoid lip service;
- Lead by example;
- Instil trust;
- Show consistency in words and actions;
- Portray the stated standards of ethical behaviour.

### Adaptability

To respond positively and effectively to the organization's fast changing environment and to understand the complexities of a competitive business environment:

- Respond positively to a changing environment;
- Be open to new ideas and ways of doing things;
- Help others to cope with or adapt to change in the team;
- Explain the need and reasons for changes in the team;
- Create an environment that motivates team members in changing circumstances.

### Self-responsibility

To accept responsibility and take ownership of one's own behaviour and accept accountability for the performance and behaviour of one's own functional team:

- Take responsibility for performing the tasks required in the job;
- Take ownership for problems without passing the buck;



- Demonstrate determination, loyalty, and commitment to achieve goals;
- Take ownership and accountability to learn from mistakes;
- Demonstrate personal commitment to tasks that have to be done.

# Leadership communication

To influence team members to enhance their performance by facilitating understanding and creating a shared vision of where the organization is heading and how the individual and group performance contribute to realising organizational objectives and strategies:

- Communicate clearly to individuals and teams what is expected of them, how they are doing and where they fit into the bigger picture;
- Take full ownership and responsibility for one's own communication role;
- Adapt one's communication such that it is appropriate to the requirements of specific persons or situations;
- Value two-way communication and listening;
- Understand and be able to effectively use interpersonal and group communication skills in different situations.

# Purpose building

Build commitment in the team by clearly communicating the team's role and purpose and how it fits in with the vision and strategic direction of the organization:

- Ensure that the organization's vision, purpose and values are internalised by the team:
- Communicate the advantages of the vision, purpose and direction in order to gain the support of team members;
- Ensure that strategies and plans are linked with those of other teams in order to ensure alignment;
- Build alliances with internal and external customers in order to create a shared purpose;
- Identify and establish external alliances required to meet the strategies, goals and objectives.



# Motivational capacity

To build confidence within the team to reach goals, to improve motivation and gain commitment by celebrating the team's success:

- Boost the self-confidence of team members;
- Recognise and reward individual team members for their successes;
- Create a culture in which team members have the confidence in each other to explore change, seek challenges and take risks;
- Clearly state own stand on issues or proposals of others in a persuasive and inspiring manner;
- Create an environment where the team is motivated to perform.

# Information capacity

To gather current and future strategic information form a wide spectrum of internal and external sources and share this with team members:

- Improve organizational competence by utilizing networking opportunities and survey information;
- Regularly gather information about the company and its operations (e.g. customers, competitors, markets, costs, sales, etc.);
- Gather information about the future (e.g. the changing organizational environment, new customer benefits, new products, future competition, changing technology);
- Evaluate and verify information gathered to ensure accuracy and quality;
- Create processes and opportunities to exchange relevant information (finger on the pulse).

# Conceptual ability

To link different kinds of information in order to form ideas (e.g. strategies) for the future:

- Understand how own tasks logically relate to other disciplines and functions;
- Identify links between problems in different divisions to establish the root causes of such problems;



- Integrate strategic, tactical, and practical information to solve problems and form solutions to problems;
- Demonstrate the capacity to conceptualise by identifying themes, trends and interrelationships as well as recognise the connections between them;
- Form integrated solutions which will solve more than one existing problem.

# Visionary thinking

Have a clear vision, which allows for the development of alternative ways of reaching future goals within a changing environment:

- Develop more than one alternative route to bring about desired change or achieve future strategic goals and objectives (futuristic);
- Encourage learning by exploring the relationships between alternative strategies;
- Compare the consequences (pro and cons) of pursuing alternative strategies to gain a deeper understanding of each strategy;
- Build a culture in which decision-making through analyses of alternative plans is actively encouraged in meeting the demands of a dynamic environment.

#### Business acumen

To understand and apply business principles in order to optimise service delivery and profit:

- Demonstrate a basic understanding of the environment in which the company operates;
- Demonstrate an understanding of the company's current and potential markets, competitors and strategy;
- Calculate the bottom-line implications of decisions and actions;
- Understand the industry and business environment in which the organization operates as well as the related market forces;
- Know how to meet the challenges of different business situations;
- Utilise business acumen in the interest of creating, recognising, and anticipating new business opportunities for the company.



# Diversity learning

To share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in an effort to understand and learn from diverse individuals:

- Assist diverse team members to participate in a multi-national and multicultural team and organization;
- Check and clarify own understanding of team members' diverse views, feelings, and cultures;
- Create opportunities for diverse team members to learn about, as well as from,
   each other:
- Treat others with respect and dignity by attempting to understand their ideas,
   views and feelings;
- Understand the impact of diversity on the business and use it as a learning opportunity.

#### Cross-functional teamwork

To facilitate ideas and solutions across functional teams to enhance company performance and mutual understanding:

- Encourage good inter-personal relationships, co-operation and participation between team members and other teams;
- Provide opportunities for the team members to interact and work across functional boundaries;
- Facilitate team dialogue to share ideas and to reach consensus on performance improvement and service delivery;
- Facilitate discussions to develop solutions based on two or more different ideas that will solve more than one problem;
- Integrate initiatives across functional teams to create a high level of understanding of various roles, responsibilities and activities.

### People development

To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching:



- Identify and address development areas and needs of subordinates;
- Provide on-the-job support and opportunities for training and development;
- Assist team members to make their jobs more meaningful and challenging;
- Develop subordinates to become multi-skilled;
- Provide feedback, coaching and mentoring to facilitate the personal development of team members.

#### Performance achievement

To continually communicate within the team what is expected of them as well as to guide them in developing and improving their performance through feedback:

- Assist team members to relate their performance objectives with team and organizational strategies;
- Regularly review performance of the team against strategies, goals and objectives and provide feedback;
- Set measurable targets and objectives which will facilitate the improvement of performance;
- Include meaningful, value-adding and challenging objectives and goals in the performance plan of the team;
- Support the development of new, improved measures of company, team and individual performance.

# Empowerment

To grant team members broad responsibility to take action as well as the freedom to move beyond the existing boundaries of their work in order to improve performance and service delivery:

- Redesign work processes and restructure the organization in order to empower team members to accept more responsibility and work across organizational boundaries;
- Be tolerant of mistakes and encourage calculated risk-taking;
- Overcome constraints, challenges and barriers;
- Reduce bureaucratic rules, procedures and actively stimulate action, teamwork, learning and initiative;



Actively encourage innovation and creative problem solving.

In the following table a comparison is made between the High Performance Leadership Competencies and the customised High Performance Leadership Competencies used in the company where the research was conducted.

**Table 5.2:** Comparison between the High Performance Leadership Competencies and the customised High Performance Leadership Competencies adopted by the research organization where the research was conducted.

High Performance Leadership Competencies	Organization Leadership Competencies
Information Competency (IC)	Information Capacity
The spectrum of current and future information	To gather and share current and future strategic
gathered and exchanged with regard to issues.	information from a wide spectrum of internal and
	external sources.
Conceptual Competency (CC)	Conceptual Ability
Linking different kinds of information and ideas to	To link different kinds of information to form ideas
form diagnostic and system-level concepts about	(about strategies) for the future.
a desired future.	
Conceptual Flexibility (CF)	Visionary Thinking
Designing alterative routes to support learning	To have a clear vision and develop alternative
about change and how to reach desired futures.	strategies for reaching future goals while taking the
	dynamic environment into account.
Developmental Competency (DC)	People Development
Developmental Competency (DC)  Providing challenging job opportunities and	People Development  To create and foster a climate for personal
Providing challenging job opportunities and	To create and foster a climate for personal
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.  Interpersonal Learning Competency (ILC)	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching  Diversity Learning
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.  Interpersonal Learning Competency (ILC) Sharing ideas in a non-evaluative setting to gain	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching  Diversity Learning Share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in an effort to
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.  Interpersonal Learning Competency (ILC) Sharing ideas in a non-evaluative setting to gain an understanding of the "other's" ideas from their	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching  Diversity Learning Share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in an effort to gain understanding from other diverse individuals and
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.  Interpersonal Learning Competency (ILC) Sharing ideas in a non-evaluative setting to gain an understanding of the "other's" ideas from their viewpoint.	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching  Diversity Learning Share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in an effort to gain understanding from other diverse individuals and learn from their ideas.
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.  Interpersonal Learning Competency (ILC) Sharing ideas in a non-evaluative setting to gain an understanding of the "other's" ideas from their viewpoint.  Cross-boundary Learning Competency (CLC)	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching  Diversity Learning Share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in an effort to gain understanding from other diverse individuals and learn from their ideas.  Cross-functional Teamwork
Providing challenging job opportunities and facilitating the generation of developmental feedback for leadership and competence development.  Interpersonal Learning Competency (ILC) Sharing ideas in a non-evaluative setting to gain an understanding of the "other's" ideas from their viewpoint.  Cross-boundary Learning Competency (CLC) Facilitating dialogue on shared ideas to form	To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching  Diversity Learning Share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in an effort to gain understanding from other diverse individuals and learn from their ideas.  Cross-functional Teamwork To facilitate ideas and solutions across functional

Purpose Building Competency (PBC)	Purpose Building
	_
Building commitment to shared purposes, which	To build commitment in the team by clearly
are owned and used by members to initiate new	communicating the team's role and purpose and how
thinking and ideas.	they are aligned with the vision and strategic direction
	of the organization.
Confidence Building Competency (CBC)	Motivational Capacity
Building unit/organization in which members value	To build confidence within the team to reach goals
the reactions of others to their ideas, feel confident	and to celebrate the successes which the team
that they will succeed and celebrate the successes	achieves to improve motivation and commitment.
they achieve.	
Proactive Competency (PC)	Empowerment
Reduces organizational constraints and controls	To grant team members broad responsibility to take
on members so that they can take broader	action, as well as the freedom to go beyond the
responsibility and use discretion in implementing	existing boundaries of their work in order to improve
ideas about direction/change.	performance and service delivery.
Achievement Competency (AC)	Performance Achievement
Setting progressive measures of challenging	To continually communicate within the team that
objectives so that members can use performance	which is expected of them and guide them in terms of
feedback to learn and continuously improve	development and improving performance outputs
performance.	through performance feedback.
	Integrity
	To communicate and act consistently with integrity
	within the organization's values and code of business
	conduct.
	Adaptability
	To respond positively and effectively to the
	organization's changing and challenging environment
	and to understand the complexities of a competitive
	business environment.
	Self-responsibility
	To accept responsibility and take ownership of one's
	behaviour and accept accountability for the
	performance and behaviour of one's team.
	•
	Leadership Communication
	To influence team members to enhance performance
	by creating understanding and shared vision of where
	the organization is going as well as how individual
	and group performance relates to organization
	objectives and strategies.
	Business Acumen
	To understand and apply business principles in order
	to optimise service and profit.



The identified leadership competencies for the organization where the research was conducted were graphically represented in the form of the following Leadership Model and communicated throughout the organization.

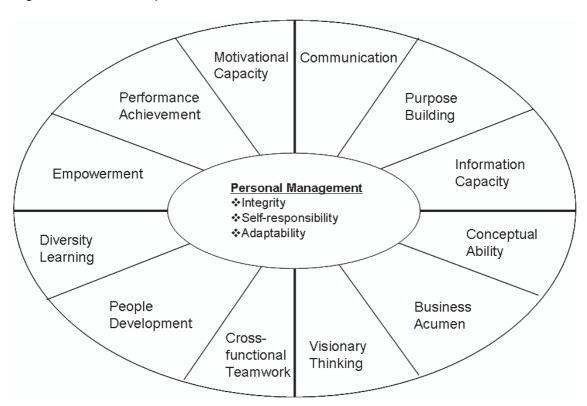


Figure 5.1: Leadership Model

# 5. LINK BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES AND THE TRANSFORMATIONAL AND SERVANT LEADERSHIP THEORIES

During the benchmarking that was conducted to determine if the leadership competencies identified by the organization where the research was conducted was in line with other leadership theories and models, similarities were identified with the Transformational and Servant Leadership theories. According to Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1998) the High Performance Leadership Competencies are transformation leadership competencies in the true sense of the word.



The similarities between the leadership competencies measured by the research instrument and the Transformational and Servant-Leadership Theories are reflected in table 4.3.

Table 5.3				
Similarities between the Leadership Competencies measured in this research and the Transformational and Servant Leadership Theories.				
Leadership Competencies measured by the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ)	Transformational and Servant-Leadership Theories			
Information Capacity	Transformational Leadership:			
	Intellectual stimulation			
Conceptual Ability	Transformational Leadership:			
	Strong cognitive skills			
Visionary Thinking	Transformational Leadership:			
	Developing a vision			
People Development	Transformational Leadership:			
	Individualized consideration			
	Facilitating organizational learning			
Diversity Learning	Servant-leadership:			
	Building a network			
Cross-functional Teamwork	Servant-leadership:			
	Strong teamwork orientation			
Purpose Building	Transformational Leadership:			
	Idealized Influence			
Motivational Capacity	Transformational Leadership:			
	Inspirational motivation			
	Developing commitment and trust			
Empowerment	Servant-leadership:			
	Decentralized decision-making and power			
Performance Achievement	Transformational Leadership:			
	Inspirational Motivation			
Integrity	Servant-leadership:			
	Awareness			
	Transformational Leadership:			
	Clear set of core values			
Adaptability	Transformational Leadership:			
	Flexibility			



Self-responsibility	Servant-leadership:
	Self-awareness
Leadership Communication	Servant-leadership:
	Listening
Business Acumen	Servant-leadership:
	Foresight
	Transformational Leadership:
	Risk-taking

# 6. DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ)

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to measure the current leadership behaviour and determine the development areas of the company leaders in terms of the identified leadership competencies, it was decided to make use of a 360° questionnaire. The L eadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) was developed, based on the fifteen leadership competencies as reflected in the leadership model (see Figure 5.1).

# 6.2 PROCESS FOLLOWED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ)

## Phase 1

Each of the fifteen leadership competencies was defined and behavioural indicators were developed. Based on the definitions and behavioural indicators one hundred and five questions were developed. During the development of the questions, it was noted that some of the dimensions overlapped to a large extent and that no clear distinction could be made between them.

## Phase 2

The one hundred and five item questionnaire was distributed within the organization amongst the relevant employees who were required to match each of the items with the correct dimensions. A total of thirty-seven questionnaires was returned by the respondents. A frequency analysis was performed in order to determine the extent to which the items were related to the correct dimensions. Those items which were



duplicated on different dimensions were either rewritten or excluded in the second draft which was distributed for assessment. This resulted in an eighty-one item questionnaire.

# Phase 3

The eighty-one item questionnaire was again distributed and a total of thirty-three managers participated. The sample consisted of 40.63% females and 59.37% males. In terms of ethnic distribution, the sample consisted of 59.37% Whites and 40.63% Blacks. The definition of Blacks in this report is consistent with the definition outlined in the Employment Equity act of 1998.

The raters who completed in the questionnaire are set out in Table 3.3.

TABLE 5.4 DISTRIBUTION OF RATERS			
RATER	N		
Supervisor	33		
Subordinate	65		
Peer	96		
Self	33		
Total	227		

The data was analysed for the total group as well as per rater. The descriptive statistics of the data in the form of frequencies, percentages and means were calculated.

Correlation coefficients were performed amongst the items of the questionnaire and Cronbach's measures of internal consistency, alpha, were calculated for each dimension.

The coefficient alphas for the eighty-one item questionnaire ranged from 0.57 to 0.92. The optimum alpha coefficients should lie in the range of 0.60 to 0.80, i.e. neither too high nor too low. If the coefficient is too low it suggests that the scale has mixed or ambiguous items; whereas too high a coefficient implies a very narrow factor, with items that repeat



essentially the same idea.

The inter-correlations between the items of the LAQ were also very high -0.20 to 0.72. Based on the coefficient alpha and inter-correlations, it can be concluded that there is no clear discrimination between the different dimensions of the LAQ. This is a result of the high overlap between the definitions of the dimensions. Since the dimensions of the LAQ are set, the final sixty items had to be selected in such a way that it provided broader scope to each dimension.

It was therefore decided that those items which had a correlation of higher than 0.60 with any other item, as well as with the total score, should be evaluated qualitatively in order to decide whether it should be excluded. The result was a fifty-eight item questionnaire (see Appendix A).

# Phase 4:

The results of the final questionnaire are presented below and entail descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients between the questionnaire items, as well as reliability scores.

### 6.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE LAQ

The means and standard deviations of the total group as well as per rater are presented in Tables 3.4 and 3.5.

Table 3.4: Means and standard deviations of the LAQ for the total group (n=227).

Table 3.5: Means and standard deviations of the LAQ by rater.

The mean scores compare well between the raters, as they differ less than one standard deviation from another.

The inter-correlations between the different items fall in the range of 0.30 - 0.50.



The coefficient alphas for each dimension are reflected in Table 4.6.

The coefficient alphas range from 0.58 to 0.92. The lower coefficients are found with the self and the supervisor. This may be ascribed to the small sample sizes (33) in those rater groups and would be higher if the sample sizes were increased. The final questionnaire consists of 58 items (see Addendum A) and is supported by strong reliabilities (Joubert & Kriek, 2000).

In Tables 3.4 and 3.5, the means and standard deviations of the total group as well as per rater are presented.

	TABLE 5.	5			
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LAQ FOR THE TOTAL					
GROUP AS WEI	LL AS PER RAT	ER ARE PRESENTED			
Dimension	Mean	SD			
Integrity	15.53	2.17			
Adaptability	14.54	2.16			
Self-responsibility	15.04	2.21			
Leadership Communication	14.40	2.45			
Purpose Building	14.35	2.38			
Motivational Capacity	13.86	2.69			
Information Capacity	14.24	2.40			
Conceptual Ability	14.78	2.38			
Visionary Thinking	13.85	2.50			
Business Acumen	11.08	1.82			
Diversity Learning	15.16	2.15			
Cross-functional Teamwork	13.97	2.32			
People Development	10.38	2.01			
Performance achievement	14.30	2.58			
Empowerment	14.22	2.23			

TABLE 5.6								
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE LAQ BY RATER								
	Self		Peer		Subordinate		Supervisor	
Dimension	(N=33)		(N=96)		(N=65)	(N=65)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Integrity	15.88	2.06	15.46	2.00	15.32	2.56	15.79	1.90
Adaptability	14.97	2.07	14.54	2.12	14.38	2.45	14.42	1.71
Self-	15.70	1.85	14.99	1.97	14.72	2.76	15.15	1.92
Responsibility								
Leadership	14.70	2.39	14.50	2.32	13.88	2.91	14.82	1.69
Communication								
Purpose	14.58	1.95	14.21	2.42	14.25	2.64	14.76	2.15
building								
Motivational	14.24	2.26	13.86	2.32	13.18	3.50	14.82	1.89
Capacity								
Information	14.09	1.93	14.30	2.29	14.12	2.80	14.45	2.37
Capacity								
Conceptual	15.09	1.99	14.86	2.39	14.42	2.63	14.97	2.21
Ability								
Visionary	13.88	1.95	13.94	2.41	13.52	2.91	14.21	2.43
Thinking								
Business	11.21	1.63	10.96	1.77	11.35	1.96	10.76	1.87
Acumen								
Diversity	15.33	1.90	15.13	1.94	14.89	2.68	15.64	1.78
Learning								
Cross-functional	13.64	1.82	14.03	2.39	13.75	2.60	14.55	1.92

Teamwork								
People	10.82	1.61	10.39	1.73	9.92	2.55	10.82	1.79
Development								
Performance	14.58	2.35	14.39	2.45	13.97	3.03	14.45	2.20
Achievement								
Empowerment	14.64	1.93	13.93	2.10	14.54	2.56	14.06	2.15

The mean scores compare well between the raters as they differ less than one standard deviation from each other.

The inter-correlations between the different items are presented in the technical document. With few exceptions, most of the correlations fall within the range of 0.30 - 0.50.

Table 3.6 contains the coefficient alphas for each dimension.

TABLE 5.7							
COEFFICIENT ALPHAS FOR EACH DIMENSION of the LAQ							
	Total	Self	Peer	Subordinate	Supervisor		
Dimension	(N=227)	(N=96)	(N=96	(N=65)	(N=33)		
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean		
Integrity	0.80	0.83	0.78	0.82	0.77		
Adaptability	0.81	0.75	0.83	0.86	0.65		
Self-responsibility	0.77	0.74	0.71	0.84	0.71		
Leadership	0.84	0.86	0.83	0.87	0.68		
Communication							
Purpose building	0.86	0.80	0.84	0.89	0.88		
Motivational Capacity	0.87	0.81	0.85	0.92	0.77		
Information Capacity	0.83	0.78	0.80	0.87	0.86		
Conceptual Ability	0.85	0.79	0.84	0.87	0.89		



Visionary Thinking	0.86	0.83	0.84	0.89	0.85
Business Acumen	0.76	0.68	0.75	0.82	0.76
Diversity Learning	0.78	0.70	0.74	0.86	0.69
Cross-functional Teamwork	0.83	0.67	0.86	0.86	0.75
People Development	0.83	0.75	0.79	0.89	0.74
Performance Achievement	0.83	0.78	0.83	0.87	0.80
Empowerment	0.72	0.58	0.72	0.80	0.66

# 7. REASONS FOR SELECTING A 360°LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE AS A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The use of multiple perspectives is clearly the strength of 360° assessment. London and Smither (1995) state that "in the socially constructed world in which employees work, others' judgements about them, no matter how biased they may be constitute an important reality" (p. 809).

According to Bernardin (1986), the different raters that form part of the 360° assessment process, such as peers and subordinates, introduce different perspectives to the rating process. This type of assessment therefore enhances self-awareness by encouraging better alignment of self-perception with the views of others. The manager is encouraged to rethink his or her behaviour and its impact on others and, as a consequence, attempt to behave differently.

Multi-rater or 360° assessment of managers is an assessment and development tool which has excellent potential and which deserves the same critical consideration which is given to highly publicized methods such as assessment centers, psychological testing as well as management development programs (Bernardin, 1986).

There are three main reasons for choosing a 360° le adership assessment questionnaire as a research instrument for this study. Firstly, subordinates and peers are valid sources



of information regarding the behaviour of their managers since they are often in a better observational position to evaluate certain managerial dimensions than is any other source of assessment. Secondly, since appraisals can be obtained from several subordinates and peers, the multiple assessments have potential for greater validity than that which is typically found in ratings by a single rater. Thirdly, a formal system of subordinate appraisal of managers fits very well into the employee engagement models which are adopted by most organizations (Walton, 1985).

Multirater or 360° assessment provides a valuable source of information on the extent to which managers are behaving in accordance with the new "employee engagement" philosophy of the organization. According to Walton,

The commitment model requires first-line supervisors to facilitate rather than direct the work force, to impart rather than merely practice their technical and administrative expertise, and to help workers develop the ability to manage themselves (Walton, 1985, p. 82).

The changing demographics of the workplace also supports the use of 360° assessment. Workers today are more educated and have greater expectations about participating in critical organizational decisions. There is also the prediction that a higher percentage of jobs in the future will be more knowledge-based and service-oriented. These trends reflect a need for greater employee input in critical organizational practices including leadership. (Walton, 1985).

Many academics have long recognised the value of multirater evaluations of managers and supervisors. According to Stogdill (1963), one of the most widely used and studied questionnaires on leadership style is the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The LBDQ requires subordinates to indicate the frequency with which the leader "lets group members know what is expected of them," "is friendly and approachable," "does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group," "looks out for personal welfare of the group," "maintains definite standards of performance" and ninety-five other behavioural items. These responses have yielded significant correlations with traditional



measures of managerial effectiveness such as supervisor ratings and productivity output measures for example, turnover, absenteeism and number of grievances (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977).

Likert's "Profile of Organization Characteristics" includes several key questions regarding subordinates' attitudes toward their managers (Likert, 1961). For example, subordinates are asked to indicate the extent to which managers "behave so that subordinates feel free to discuss important things about their jobs," "try to get subordinates' ideas and opinions and make constructive use of them," "willingly share information," "provide opportunities to influence goals, methods, and activity of their units," "know and understand problems faced by subordinates." Several studies have found positive correlations between these responses and hard criteria of organizational effectiveness (Campbell, Bownas, Peterson & Dunette 1974).

# 8. THE USE OF THE LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ) AS PART OF THIS STUDY

In this study copies of the LAQ have been electronically distributed annually to 3 000 managers who participated voluntarily. Subsequent to the 360° assessment questionnaires' completion, the participants who participated received a feedback report indicating their areas of strength as well as the areas which require development (see Appendix B).

After having received a feedback report, each participant has been requested to compile a personal development plan for the next year based on the results of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire has been used only in a development context in order to determine development areas in terms of leadership behaviour.

The same questionnaires have been distributed to the same participants for completion every year for a period of three years.



# 9. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Schroder's High Performance Leadership Competencies (1997) were customised by the organization where the research was conducted and the following competencies were included in the Leadership Competency Model of the organization;

- Information Capacity
- Conceptual Ability
- Visionary Thinking
- People Development
- Diversity Learning
- Cross-functional Teamwork
- Purpose Building
- Motivational Capacity
- Empowerment
- Performance Achievement

The following competencies were also included in the Leadership Competency Model of the organization where the research was conducted because they reflected the values of the organization and the type of culture the organization is striving to develop:

- Integrity
- Adaptability
- Self-responsibility
- Leadership Communication
- Business Acumen

A 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) was developed and validated to measure the leadership behaviour associated with the leadership competencies as listed above.

The leadership competencies based on Schroder's High Performance Leadership Competencies show a high level of similarity to transformational leadership behaviour as



described by Bass (see Chapter 4). The leadership competencies that were added to reflect the values of the organization where the research was conducted seem to be closely related to Greenleaf's servant leadership behaviour as discussed in Chapters 1 and 4.

It can therefore be concluded that the leadership competencies measured by the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire which was used to conduct this research are closely related to the Transformational Leadership Theory as well as the Servant-Leadership Theory.

Vermeulen (2004) summarises the reason why the organization where the research was conducted decided on a customised leadership model rather than a generic model very well when he states:

Although a multitude of leadership models exist in literature it is clear that no single generic model can be implemented in an organisation to guarantee success. Leadership models should be moulded to suit not only the organisation, but also the industry in which it functions (p.22)



# CHAPTER 6 RESEARCH METHOD, PROCEDURE AND RESULTS

## 1. INTRODUCTION

This research project took place over a period of five years, from 2000 until 2005 as part of the implementation of a Holistic Model for Leadership Development. The following process was followed:

- Design of a holistic model and process suitable for implementation in the organization where the research was conducted;
- Determine leadership competencies required to ensure the future success of the organization under research as described in Chapter 5;
- Design of a leadership model for the organization based on the identified leadership competencies as described in Chapter 5 and Appendix E;
- Design and validation of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) based on the identified leadership competencies as described in Chapter 5;
- The implementation of the 360°Leadership Assessme nt Questionnaire as part of a holistic model for leadership development as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3;
- The annual measurement of leadership behaviour in the research organization over a period of three years, by making use of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire as a research instrument;
- The statistical analysis and interpretation of the research results.

#### 2. RESEARCH METHOD

## 2.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this research, a survey has been used as the research method. A survey can be described as a method of collecting data from people about who they are, how they think and what they do (Balnaves and Caputi, 2007). The design of this research can be described as a longitudinal study, because the same instrument (Leadership Assessment Questionnaire) was administered three times over a period of three years. The type of



survey design used for this research is called a panel survey because the data were gathered at different times from the same respondents (Dooley, 1984). According to Dooley (1984), the major advantage of the longitudinal panel survey is that changes in particular individuals can be monitored over time. Since the objective of this study was to measure changes in leadership behaviour over time, the longitudinal panel survey design was chosen for this research to answer the research questions as discussed in Chapter 1.

The design for this research is an empirical study using primary numerical data gathered in a field setting with a medium level of control over factors that may influence the research participants.

This research design can be described as quantitative with the aim of providing a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population.

## 2.2 RESEARCH SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION

In this research, non probability purposive sampling was used because the subjects were chosen based on certain characteristics (Dooley, 1984). Only respondents who participated in all three assessments were included in the initial research sample for this research. In the profile analysis, only questionnaires on which all the items had been completed, were included. A total of 258 respondents met the criteria of having fully completed questionnaires and were included in the profile analysis.

In this research, the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) as described in Chapter 5 was sent electronically to all 3 000 managers (top, senior- and middle management) in the organization under research annually over a period of three years. Together with the questionnaire they received a 360° Leadership Assessment Guideline document to inform them that their participation in the 360° Leadership Assessment Process was voluntary and for development purposes only (see Appendix F).

The participants in the 360° Leadership Assessment were rated by themselves, their supervisors, their peers and their subordinates. During the first year, 1516 managers



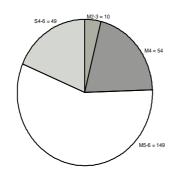
participated. During the second year, 1301 managers participated and during the third year, 1269 managers participated.

After each assessment, all participants received a feedback report based on the assessment results (see Appendix B) that indicated their areas of strength as well as their development areas. Together with the feedback report, participants received a development guideline, to compile a development plan for the next year based on the results of the questionnaire (see Appendix G)

The final sample of 258 respondents utilised for the profile analysis can be categorised as follows:

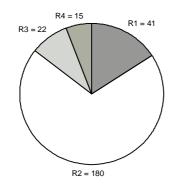
**Management Levels** 

M2-3	10
M4	54
M5-6	149
S4-6	49



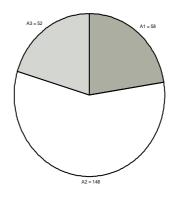
Race

R1: African	41
R2: White	180
R3 : Coloured	22
R4: Asian	15



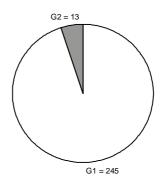
Age

A1: 20 - 40 years	58
A2: 41 - 50 years	148
A3: 51 and older	52



Gender

G1 : Male	245
G2: Female	13





### 2.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

In the research, a 360° Leadership Assessment Quest ionnaire (LAQ) was used to collect the research data. It was decided to make use of a multirater type questionnaire to collect the data for this research because the objective of this research was to measure leadership behaviour over a period of three years and this type of questionnaire was regarded as the most suitable for this type of research as discussed in Chapter 3.

The questionnaire used for this research has been developed specifically for this purpose because the leadership competencies and behaviour measured by this questionnaire are based on the customised leadership competency model developed specifically for the organization where this research was done. A generic existing questionnaire would therefore not have been suitable for this research. The development and validation of the questionnaire are described in detail in Chapter 3.

Before the analysis of the research results, it was decided to perform factor analysis on the different scales of the LAQ because of the bigger sample size involved in the research.

Based on the statistical analysis performed on the different scales of the research-instrument, the following results have been obtained:

Scale 1 – Integrity:

Year	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
1	2784	3.964	0.498	0.630
2	2784	3.962	0.459	0.630
3	2784	3.969	0.466	0.630

Scale 2 – Adaptability:

Year	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
1	2783	3.722	0.523	0.0025
2	2783	3.720	0.485	0.0025
3	2783	3.761	0.478	0.0025



# Scale 3 – Self-Responsibility:

Year N	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
	ivieari	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2783	3.899	0.492	0.750
2	2783	3.896	0.455	0.750
3	2783	3.895	0.464	0.750

# Scale 4 – Leadership Communication:

Year N	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
	lvieari	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2784	3.739	0.536	0.0007
2	2784	3.768	0.498	0.0007
3	2788	3.771	0.504	0.0007

# Scale 5 – Purpose Building:

Year N	[N	Mana	Standard	Cronbach
	Mean	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2385	3.764	0.518	0.0026
2	2385	3.768	0.474	0.0026
3	2385	3.793	0.479	0.0023

# Scale 6 - Motivational Capacity:

Year N	NI	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
	lvieari	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2383	3.641	0.560	0.0025
2	2383	3.652	0.527	0.0025
3	2383	3.648	0.546	0.0025



# Scale 7 – Information Capacity:

Year N	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
	Mean	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2784	3.724	0.527	0.016
2	2784	3.736	0.496	0.016
3	2784	3.751	0.492	0.016

# Scale 8 – Conceptual Ability:

Voor	Year N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
Teal			Deviation	Alpha
1	2783	3.784	0.523	0.001
2	2783	3.803	0.484	0.001
3	2783	3.820	0.475	0.001

# Scale 9 – Visionary Thinking:

Year N	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
	Mean	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2781	3.664	0.531	0.000
2	2781	3.691	0.492	0.000
3	2781	3.711	0.505	0.000

# Scale 10 - Business Acumen:

Year N	N	Moon	Standard	Cronbach
	Mean	Deviation	Alpha	
1	2784	3.811	0.552	0.014
2	2784	3.836	0.514	0.014
3	2784	3.840	0.510	0.014



# Scale 11 – Diversity Learning:

Year	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
			Deviation	Alpha
1	2784	3.821	0.504	0.022
2	2784	3.832	0.457	0.022
3	2784	3.843	0.465	0.022

# Scale 12 – Cross-functional Teamwork:

Year	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
			Deviation	Alpha
1	2784	3.675	0.545	0.000
2	2784	3.702	0.508	0.000
3	2784	3.738	0.501	0.000

# Scale 13 – People Development:

Year	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
	IN .	Mean	Deviation	Alpha
1	2368	3.654	0.561	0.000
2	2368	3.669	0.528	0.000
3	2368	3.706	0.523	0.000

## Scale 14 – Performance Achievement:

Year	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
			Deviation	Alpha
1	2784	3.732	0.527	0.000
2	2784	3.757	0.488	0.000
3	2784	3.789	0.501	0.000



Scale 15 – Empowerment:

Year	N	Mean	Standard	Cronbach
			Deviation	Alpha
1	2784	3.672	0.485	0.000
2	2784	3.694	0.462	0.000
3	2784	3.714	0.476	0.000

In the following section of this Chapter, the analysis of the research results obtained by means of the LAQ will be discussed.

#### 2.4 ANALYSIS OF THE 360°LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT RESULTS

The research data has first been analysed by means of factor analysis. The factors identified did not correspond well with the internal components of the instrument having too few or too many items on a factor. Because of the inconsistent results, it was therefore decided to use the original components of the instrument and make use of a profile analysis to compare groups and categories.

The research data has subsequently been analysed by making use of profile analysis, a special application of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), profile analysis is a special application of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to a situation where there are several dependent variables (DVs) that are all measured on the same scale. Profile analysis is commonly used in research of this nature, where subjects are measured repeatedly on the same dependent variable (DV). In this research, the dependent variables are the scores on the 360°Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ).

The major question asked in profile analysis is whether or not different groups (independent variables) have different profiles on the same set of measures. Profile analysis requires all measures to have the same range of possible scores, with the same score value having the same meaning on all the measures (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this research, the same scale has been used to measure all the dimensions of the



questionnaire. The main question in this research is therefore whether or not the different groups (race, age, gender, rater and management groups) have different profiles on the same set of measures (360°Leadership Assessment Qu estionnaire).

The primary question addressed by profile analysis is the following: "Do different independent variables (groups) have parallel profiles?" This is commonly known as the test of parallelism. The second question in profile analysis is whether one group, on average, scores higher on the collected set of measures than another. In profile analysis, this is called the "levels" hypothesis. The third question addressed by profile analysis concerns the similarity of the responses to all dependent variables, independent of the different groups. Do all the DVs elicit the same average response? In profile analysis, this tests the "flatness" hypothesis. This question is typically only relevant if the profiles are parallel. If the profiles are not parallel, then at least one of them is not flat. Although it is conceivable that non-flat profiles from two or more groups could cancel each other out to produce, on average, a flat profile, this result is often not of research interest (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

If statistically significant differences are found between groups or measures, it can be represented as profiles in which the means for each of the dependent variables (360° scores) are plotted for each of the independent variables (groups, e.g. age, gender, race, year and level).

Profile analysis is a special application of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to a situation where there are several dependent variables that have been measured on the same scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this research the dependent variables are the scores on the different dimensions of the questionnaire as reflected in Appendix C. The independent variables (IVs), are age group, race group, gender group, management level, year and person. It can be expected that the dependent variables, in this research the scores on the 360° Assessment Questionnaire, will be impacted by the independent variables (IVs) as described below. The analysis for this research data was done for each scale of the questionnaire in terms of the following:



Age: Level:

A1 = 20 - 40 years M2-3 = Top Management

A2 = 41 - 50 years M4 =Senior Management

A3 = 51 and older M5-6 = Middle and Junior Managers

S4-6 - Specialists

Race: <u>Person (Raters):</u>

R1 = African E1 = Male r = supervisors

R2 = White E2 = Female e = subordinates

R3 = Coloured p = peers

R4 = Asian s = self

## Year:

r0 = Year 1

r1 = Year 2

r2 = Year 3

The statistical analysis was conducted for each of the 15 scales in the questionnaire namely:

Scale 1 - Integrity

Scale 2 - Adaptability

Scale 3 - Self-responsibility

Scale 4 - Leadership communication

Scale 5 - Purpose building

Scale 6 - Motivational capacity



Scale 7 - Information capacity
Scale 8 - Conceptual ability
Scale 9 - Visionary thinking
Scale 10 - Business acumen
Scale 11 - Diversity learning
Scale 12 - Cross-functional teamwork

Scale 13 - People development

Scale 14 - Performance achievement

Scale 15 - Empowerment

The results are presented by providing the actual scores as a table. Thereafter, the plotted profiles are presented, followed by the analysis that was done in the framework of profile analysis as described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), namely:

- Parallelism (Do different groups have different profiles?);
- Levels (Does one group score higher on the collected set of measures than another?);
- Flatness (Does behaviour change over time?).

Statistically significant differences were identified on the following scales that will be represented in this section:

Scale 1 - Integrity (Person x Level) Scale 5 - Purpose building (Level x Year) Scale 7 - Information capacity (Level x Person) Scale 7 - Information capacity (Year x Gender) Scale 8 - Conceptual ability (Level x Year) Scale 8 - Conceptual ability (Person x Age) Scale 9 - Visionary thinking (Race x Year) Scale 9 - Visionary thinking (Person x Age) Scale 10 - Business acumen (Person x Age) Scale 10 - Business acumen (Person x Level)



Scale 13 - People development (Person x Gender)

Scale 14 - Performance achievement (Person x Race)

Scale 15 - Empowerment (Person x Level)

Scale 15 - Empowerment (Person x Gender)

The following statistical information is given for each of the scales since it is regarded as important for the meaningful interpretation of the research results:

- Parallel profiles (Are the profiles parallel?);
   Wilks Lamda is the particular test that was done and the score had to be equal to or smaller than 0.05 to be regarded as significant;
- Equal levels (Are the levels equal?);
   An F-value with its corresponding degrees of freedom and a significance level which must be equal to or lower than 0.05;
- Flat profiles (Are the profiles flat?);
   Hotteling which is the particular test that was done and the score must be equal or smaller than 0.05 to be regarded as significant.

The analysis was done by making use of a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analysing the data by comparing the following:

- Level x Year
- Level x Person
- Age x Year
- Age x Person
- Race x Year
- Race x Person
- Gender x Year
- Gender x Person

The average rating per scale has also been calculated for year one, two and three to indicate overall trends in assessment results and will be reflected at the end of this section.



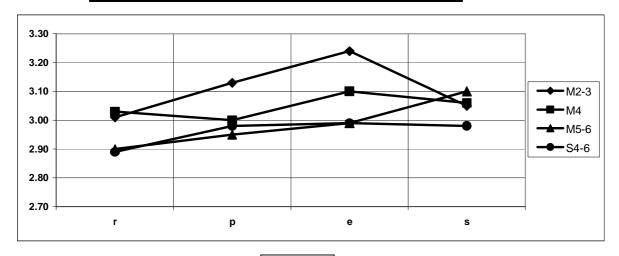
#### 3. RESEARCH RESULTS

In the following section the research results are presented. Only those scales with significant statistical differences are shown in this section. The full results for all the scales can be found in Appendix C.

## 3.1 Scale 1: Integrity

Person x Level

Person р е s M2-3 3.01 3.24 3.13 3.05 М4 3.03 3.10 3.00 3.06 M5-6 2.90 2.95 2.99 3.10 2.89 2.99 **S4-6** 2.98 2.98



Person
--------

Ре	Person:			
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
s	=	Self		

Level:		
M2-3	=	Top Management
M4	=	Senior Managers
M5-6	=	Middle and Junior Manager
S4-6	=	Specialists

Are the profiles parallel?

• No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.918, F (9.598.85) = 2.36, p = 0.01;



• The fact that the profiles are not parallel may be owing to the self-ratings of the M5-6 group. The self ratings of the M5-6 level are higher than the self-ratings of the other groups.

#### Are the levels equal?

- No, because F (3.248) = 3.47 p = 0.02;
- The levels are also not equal, which means that the scores between the different management levels differ significantly.

#### Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = 0.01, F (3.246) = 1.18, p = 0.32:
- The profiles are flat which means that within one profile, e.g. M2-3, the scores do not differ widely from each other.

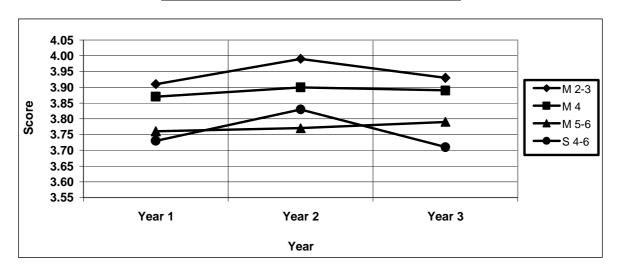
- Top management and senior managers are rated consistently higher than the other levels. An interesting trend is that the self-ratings of the managers (M5-6) are higher than all the other levels.
- Middle managers and specialists are rated lower by their supervisors, peers and subordinates than senior and top management.



# 3.2 Scale 5: Purpose Building

Level x Year

	Year				
	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3		
_ M 2-3	3.91	3.99	3.93		
M 2-3 M 4	3.87	3.90	3.89		
<sup>⊥</sup> M 5-6	3.76	3.77	3.79		
S 4-6	3.73	3.83	3.71		



Level:		
M2-3	=	Top Management
M4	=	Senior Managers
M5-6	=	Middle and Junior Manager
S4-6	=	Specialists

# Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = <u>0.933</u>, F (<u>6.482</u>) = <u>2.82</u>, p = <u>0.01</u>;
- The profiles are not parallel because the ratings of the S4-6 group are lower than the ratings of the other management levels in year one and three.



#### Are the levels equal?

- No, because F (3.242) = 3.70 p = 0.01;
- The levels are not equal, probably owing to the significant differences in the rating for the different levels in year three.

# Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = <u>0.01</u>, F (<u>3.246</u>) = <u>1.18</u>, p = <u>0.32</u>;
- The profiles are flat which means that within one profile, e.g. M2-3, the scores do not differ widely from each other.

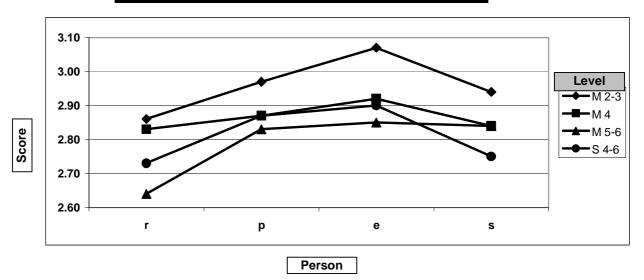
- The top management level (M2-3) received the highest ratings in year one, two and three. The specialist level (S4-6) received the lowest ratings in year one and three.
- In year two, the middle management level (M5-6) received the lowest ratings.



# 3.3 Scale 7: Information Capacity

Level x Person

	Person					
		r	р	е	S	
<u> </u>	M 2-3	2.86	2.97	3.07	2.94	
ě	M 4	2.83	2.87	2.92	2.84	
_	M 5-6	2.64	2.83	2.85	2.84	
	S 4-6	2.73	2.87	2.90	2.75	



Level	•	
M2-3	=	Top Management
M4	=	Senior Managers
M5-6	=	Middle and Junior Managers
S4-6	=	Specialists

Person:				
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
S	=	Self		

## Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.93, F (9.598) = 1.86, p = 0.05;
- The profiles are not parallel, because the middle management (M5-6) level received significantly lower ratings than the other levels..

# Are the levels equal?

• No, because F (3.248) = 3.54 p = 0.02;



• The levels are not equal, because the ratings given by subordinates were significantly higher than the ratings given by supervisors. This seems to be a consistent trend in the research results.

## Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = 0.02, F (3.246) = 1.51, p = 0.21;
- The profiles are flat, which means that within one profile, e.g. M2-3, the scores do not differ significantly from each other.

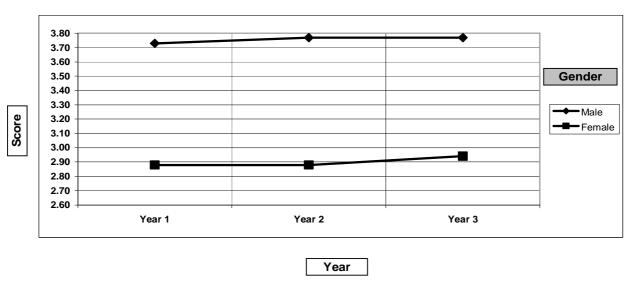
- The top management (M2-3) level was rated the highest by all the rater-groups;
- The middle management (M5-6) level received the lowest ratings.



# 3.4 Scale 7: Information Capacity

Year x Gender

		Υe	ear	
Ä		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
enc	Male	3.73	3.77	3.77
Ğ	Female	2.88	2.88	2.94



Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.9744, F (2.247) = 3.28, p = 0.04;
- The profiles are not parallel, probably because the ratings of gender group one (males) improved in year two, whilst the ratings of gender group two (females) remained the same in year two, but improved in year three.

#### Are the levels equal?

- No, because F (1.248) = 4.54 p = 0.03;
- The profiles are not equal because the ratings for the two gender groups differ significantly.

#### Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = 0.03, F (2.247) = 3.28, p = 0.04;
- The profiles are flat because the ratings within the gender groups do not differ significantly.

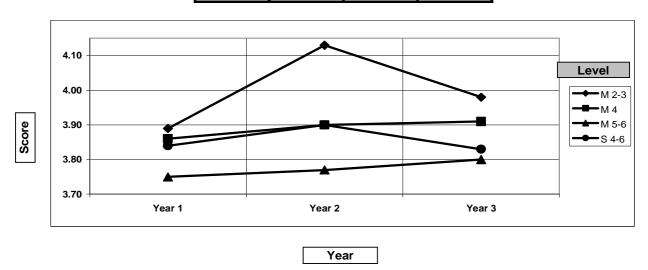


- The male group received the highest ratings in year one, two and three;
- The ratings of the female group improved in year three, whilst the ratings of the male group remained the same.

# 3.5 Scale 8: Conceptual Ability

Level x Year

	Year				
	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3		
M 2-3	3.89	4.13	3.98		
<b>⊚</b> M 4	3.86	3.90	3.91		
∯ <b>M</b> 5-6	3.75	3.77	3.80		
S 4-6	3.84	3.90	3.83		



Level:		
M2-3	=	Top Management
M4	=	Senior Managers
M5-6	=	Middle- and Junior Manager
S4-6	=	Specialists

## Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.93, F (6.494) = 2.97, p = 0.01;
- The profiles are not parallel, probably owing to the ratings of the S4-6 level which went up in year two but dropped again in year three. It may also be due to the rating of the M2-3 level, which is higher than the ratings for the other levels, especially in year two.



## Are the levels equal?

- No, because F (3.248) = 3.86 p = 0.02;
- The levels are not equal, probably because the ratings of the M2-3 level were significantly higher than the ratings of the other levels.

# Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = 0.02, F (2.247) = 2.92, p = 0.06;
- The profiles are quite flat, which means that within one profile, e.g. M2-3, the scores do not differ significantly from each other.

#### Trends and Patterns

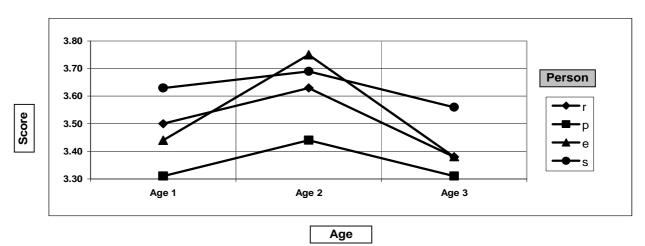
• The top management (M2-3) level received the highest ratings while the middle management (M5-6) level received the lowest ratings.



# 3.6 Scale 8: Conceptual Ability

Person x Age

	Age				
		Age 1	Age 2	Age 3	
С	r	3.50	3.63	3.38	
Person	р	3.31	3.44	3.31	
	е	3.44	3.75	3.38	
	s	3.63	3.69	3.56	



Ре	Person:			
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
s	=	Self		

Age:		
1	=	25 – 40 years
2	=	41 – 50 years
3	=	51 and older

## Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.9508, F (6.492) = 2.09, p = 0.05:
- The profiles are not parallel, probably because the subordinates (e) rated age group two significantly higher than all the other rater groups.

## Are the levels equal?

- Yes, because F (2.248) = 1.56 p = 0.21;
- The levels are also not equal, which means that the scores between the different age groups differ significantly.



# Are the profiles flat?

- No, because Hotteling = 0.01, F (3.246) = 0.85, p = 0.47;
- The profiles are flat because the ratings within the age groups do not differ significantly.

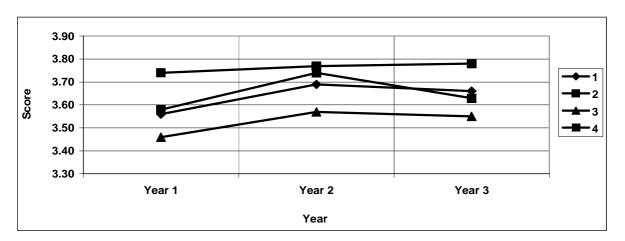
- The age group 51 years and older were rated the lowest by all the rater groups and their self-rating was also the lowest;
- The age group 41 50 were rated the highest by all the rater groups and their self-ratings, were also the highest;
- The peer rater group (p) gave the lowest ratings.



# 3.7 Scale 9: Visionary Thinking

Race x Year

	Year				
		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	
Race	1	3.56	3.69	3.66	
	2	3.74	3.77	3.78	
	3	3.46	3.57	3.55	
	4	3.58	3.74	3.63	



#### Race:

1 = African

2 = White

3 = Coloured

4 = Asian

## Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.95, F (6.492) = 2.15, p = 0.05;
- The profiles are not parallel because the ratings for race group four (Asians) were significantly higher in year two than in year one and three.

#### Are the levels equal?

- No, because F (3.247) = 6.02 p = 0.05;
- The levels are not equal, because the ratings of group three (Coloureds) are lower than the ratings of the other groups.



# Are the profiles flat?

- No, because Hotteling = 0.04, F (2.246) = 4.91, p = 0.01;
- The profiles are not flat, because the ratings within group four (Asians) differ significantly between year one and two.

#### Trends and Patterns

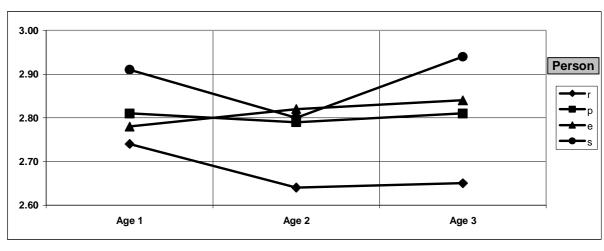
 Race group two (Africans) received the highest ratings in year one, two and three, while race group three (Coloureds) received the lowest ratings in year one, two and three.



# 3.8 Scale 9: Visionary Thinking

# Person x Age

		A	ge	
		Age 1	Age 2	Age 3
Person	r	2.74	2.64	2.65
	р	2.81	2.79	2.81
	е	2.78	2.82	2.84
	S	2.91	2.8	2.94



Year

Age :		
1	=	25 – 40 years
2	=	41 – 50 years
3	=	51 and older

Person:				
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
S	=	Self		

# Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.95, F (6.490) = 2.32, p = 0.03;
- The profiles are not parallel because the rating patterns of the subordinates differ from the rating patterns of the other groups. All the other groups gave lower ratings in year two than in year one.



## Are the levels equal?

- Yes, because F (3.247) = 1.93 p = 0.14;
- The levels are equal because ratings of the different age groups do not differ significantly.

## Are the profiles flat?

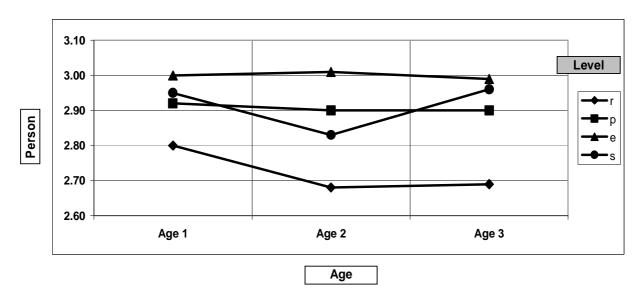
- No, because Hotteling = <u>0.02</u>, F (<u>3.245</u>) = <u>1.53</u>, p = <u>0.21</u>;
- The profiles are not flat because the self-ratings of age group two are lower than the self-ratings of age groups one and three.

- The age group 41 50 years received the lowest ratings, while the age group 25 –
   40 received the highest ratings;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings of all the rater groups.

## 3.9 Scale 10: Business Acumen

Person x Age

_	Age					
		Age 1	Age 2	Age 3		
on	r	2.80	2.68	2.69		
ပ	р	2.92	2.90	2.90		
Pe	е	3.00	3.01	2.99		
	S	2.95	2.83	2.96		



Age :		
1	=	25 – 40 years
2	=	41 – 50 years
3	=	51 and older

Person:				
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
S	=	Self		

# Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = <u>0.93</u>, F (<u>6.492</u>) = <u>2.81</u>, p = <u>0.01</u>;
- The levels are not parallel because the self-ratings of age group two are lower than the self-ratings of the other age groups.



## Are the levels equal?

- Yes, because F (2.248) = 2.89 p = 0.06;
- The levels are equal because the scores between the different age groups do not differ significantly.

# Are the profiles flat?

- No, because Hotteling = 0.05, F (3.246) = 3.96, p = 0.01;
- The profiles are not flat because the ratings within age group two and three differ significantly.

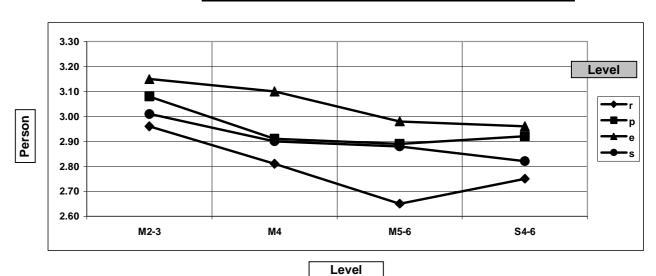
- The age group one (25 40 years) received the highest ratings;
- The supervisors group (r) gave the lowest ratings while the subordinates (e) group gave the highest ratings.



## 3.10 Scale 10: Business Acumen

Person x Level

			Level		
		M2-3	M4	M5-6	S4-6
on	r	2.96	2.81	2.65	2.75
ers	р	3.08	2.91	2.89	2.92
A.	е	3.15	3.10	2.98	2.96
	S	3.01	2.90	2.88	2.82



Level:

M2-3 = Top Management

M4 = Senior Managers

M5-6 = Middle and Junior Managers

S4-6 = Specialists

Person:			
r	=	Supervisor	
р	=	Peers	
е	=	Subordinate	
S	=	Self	

# Are the profiles parallel?

- Yes, because Wilks Lamda = 0.94, F (9.598) = 1.84, p = 0.06;
- The profiles are parallel because the ratings of the different rater groups and levels do not differ significantly.

## Are the levels equal?

• No, because F (3.248) = 4.04 p = 0.00;



• The levels are not equal because the scores between the different management levels differ.

## Are the profiles flat?

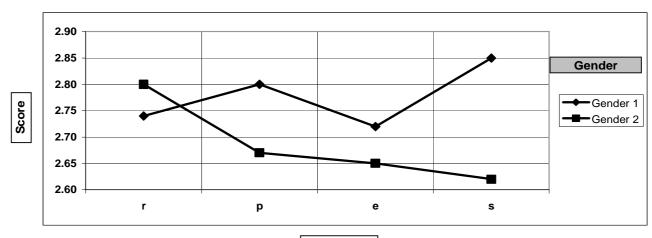
- No, because Hotteling = 0.05, F (3.246) = 3.96, p = 0.01;
- The profiles are not flat because the scores within the M5-6 management level differ significantly.

- The supervisors (r) tend to give the lowest rating, while the subordinates (e) gave the highest ratings;
- The middle management level (M5-6) received the lowest ratings from all the rater groups;
- The top management level (M2-3) received the highest ratings from all the rater groups.

# 3.11 Scale 13: People Development

Person x Gender

			Gender		
Ы		r	р	е	S
ers	Gender 1	2.74	2.8	2.72	2.85
ፈ	Gender 2	2.8	2.67	2.65	2.62



Person

Person:				
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
s	=	Self		

Gend	er:		
1	=	Male	
2	=	Female	

# Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.9634, F (3.239) = 3.03, p = 0.03;
- The profiles are not parallel because the ratings given by the supervisor rater group
   (r) differ from the ratings of the other rater groups.

## Are the levels equal?

- No, because F (1.241) = 3.83 p = 0.05;
- The levels are not equal because the scores of the gender groups differ significantly.



# Are the profiles flat?

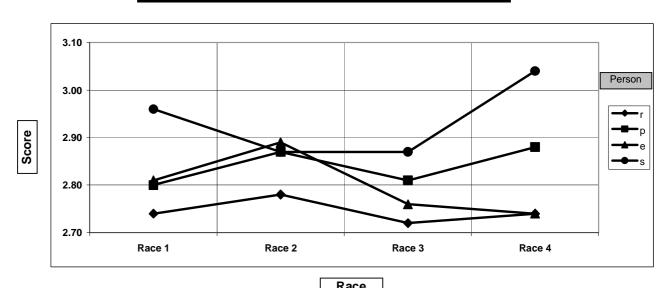
- Yes, because Hotteling = 0.0249, F (3.239) = 1.99, p = 0.12;
- The profiles are flat because the scores within the different gender groups do not differ significantly.

- The supervisors (r) gave gender two (females) a higher rating than gender one (males), while all the other rater groups gave gender two (females) a lower rating than gender one (males);
- The self-rating of gender two (females) is lower than that of gender one (males).

## 3.12 Scale 14: Performance Achievement

Person x Race

			Race		
		Race 1	Race 2	Race 3	Race 4
on	r	2.74	2.78	2.72	2.74
ers	р	2.8	2.87	2.81	2.88
Pe	е	2.81	2.89	2.76	2.74
	S	2.96	2.87	2.87	3.04



Ra	ce:	
1		White
2		African
3		Coloured
4	=	Asian

Person:				
r	=	Supervisor		
р	=	Peers		
е	=	Subordinate		
s	=	Self		

## Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.93, F (9.598) = 1.93, p = 0.05;
- The profiles are not parallel because the ratings given by the subordinates (e) differ from the ratings of the other rater groups.

# Are the levels equal?

• Yes, because F (3.248) = 2.33 p = 0.47;



• The levels are equal because the scores of the different race groups do not differ significantly.

# Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = <u>0.01</u>, F (<u>3.246</u>) = <u>0.65</u>, p = <u>0.58</u>;
- The profiles are flat because the scores within the different race groups do not differ significantly.

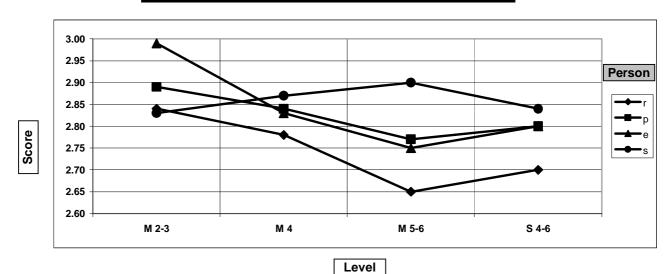
- The self-rating for all the race groups were higher than their ratings by other rater groups, except for race two (Whites), who was rated the highest by their subordinates;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings.



# 3.13 Scale 15: Empowerment

Person x Level

			Level		
		M 2-3	M 4	M 5-6	S 4-6
_ r		2.84	2.78	2.65	2.7
SQ <b>p</b>	)	2.89	2.84	2.77	2.8
e G	)	2.99	2.83	2.75	2.8
s	;	2.83	2.87	2.9	2.84



Level		
M2-3	=	Top Management
M4	=	Senior Managers
M5-6	=	Middle and Junior Managers
S4-6	=	Specialists

Pers	son :	
r	=	Supervisor
р	=	Peers
е	=	Subordinate
S	=	Self

# Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.94, F (9.603) = 1.88, p = 0.05;
- The profiles are not parallel because the self-ratings of the M5-6 management level are significantly higher than the ratings they received from the other groups.



## Are the levels equal?

- Yes, because F (3.25) = 2.51 p = 0.06;
- The profiles are equal because the scores between the different management levels do not differ significantly.

# Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = 0.01, F (3.248) = 0.99, p = 0.40;
- The profiles are flat because the scores within the different race groups do not differ significantly.

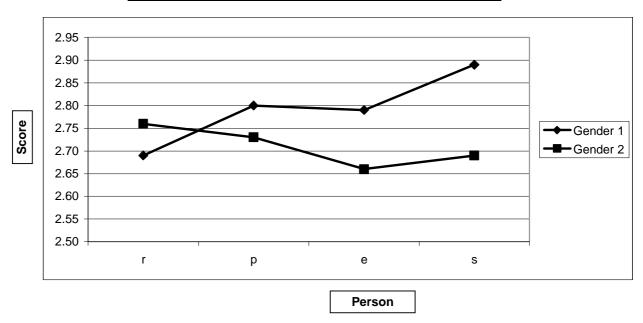
- The middle management M5-6 level received the lowest ratings, but their self-ratings are the highest of all the levels;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings of all the rater groups.



## 3.14 Scale 15: Empowerment

Person x Gender

	Person											
ē		r	р	е	S							
enc	Gender 1	2.69	2.80	2.79	2.89							
	Gender 2	2.76	2.73	2.66	2.69							



Person:							
r	=	Supervisor					
р	=	Peers					
е	=	Subordinate					
S	=	Self					

(	Gender	:	
1		=	Male
2	2	=	Female

## Are the profiles parallel?

- No, because Wilks Lamda = 0.97, F (3.248) = 2.73, p = 0.04;
- No, because the supervisors (r) gave lower ratings to gender group one (males) than to gender group two (females), while all the other groups rated gender group one (males) higher than gender group two (females).



#### Are the levels equal?

- Yes, because F (1.250) = 4.60 p = 0.03;
- The levels are not equal because the ratings between the gender groups differ significantly.

#### Are the profiles flat?

- Yes, because Hotteling = <u>0.01</u>, F (<u>3.248</u>) = <u>0.99</u>, p = <u>0.40</u>;
- The profiles are flat which means that the ratings within the gender groups do not differ significantly.

#### Trends and Patterns

- The supervisors(r) rated gender group two (females) higher than gender group one (males);
- The self-ratings of gender group two is lower than the self-ratings of gender group one.

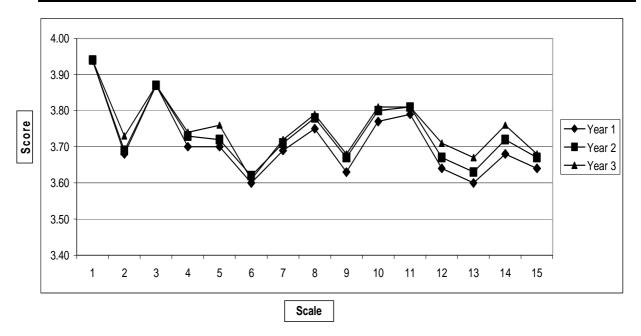
#### Overall results

The average rating per annum for every scale in the questionnaire has also been calculated per year to give an indication of overall trends and patterns.

The average rating per scale per year is graphically represented below:



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Year 1	3.94	3.68	3.87	3.70	3.70	3.60	3.69	3.75	3.63	3.77	3.79	3.64	3.60	3.68	3.64
Year 2	3.94	3.69	3.87	3.73	3.72	3.62	3.71	3.78	3.67	3.80	3.81	3.67	3.63	3.72	3.67
Year 3	3.94	3.73	3.87	3.74	3.76	3.61	3.72	3.79	3.68	3.81	3.81	3.71	3.67	3.76	3.68



## 4. SUMMARY OF TRENDS AND PATTERNS IDENTIFIED IN THE RESEARCH

## Scale 1 – Integrity (Person x Level)

- The ratings for top management (M2–3) and senior managers (M4) are consistently higher than the other levels. An interesting trend is that the self-ratings of the managers (M5-6) are higher than all the other levels;
- Middle managers and specialists are rated lower by their supervisors, peers and subordinates than senior and top management.

## Scale 5 – Purpose Building (Level x Year)

• The top management level (M2-3) received the highest ratings in year one, two and three. The specialist level (S4-6) received the lowest ratings in year one and three. In year two, the middle management level (M5-6) received the lowest ratings.



#### Scale 7 – Information Capacity (Level x Person)

- The top management (M2-3) level was rated the highest by all the rater-groups;
- The middle management (M5-6) group received the lowest ratings.

## <u>Scale 7 – Information Capacity</u> (Year x Gender)

- The male group received the highest ratings in year one, two and three;
- The ratings of the female group improved in year three, whilst the ratings of the male group remained the same.

#### <u>Scale 8 – Conceptual Ability</u> (Level x Year)

- The top management (M2-3) level received the highest ratings while the middle management (M5-6) level received the lowest ratings;
- The ratings for all the management levels increased in year two and declined in year three, except for the middle management level whose ratings increased in year two and three.

## <u>Scale 8 – Conceptual Ability</u> (Person x Age)

- The age group 51 years and older was rated the lowest by all the rater groups and their self-rating was also the lowest;
- The age group 41 50 was rated the highest by all the rater groups and their self-rating was also the highest;
- The peer rater group (p) gave the lowest ratings.

#### <u>Scale 9 – Visionary Thinking</u> (Race x Year)

- Race group two (Africans) received the highest ratings in years one, two and three, while race group three (Coloureds) received the lowest ratings in years one, two and three;
- The rating for all the race groups increased in year two and decreased in year three, except for race group two (Whites) whose rating increased in years two and three.



# Scale 9 – Visionary Thinking (Person x Age)

- The age group 41 50 years received the lowest ratings, while the age group 25 –
   40 received the highest ratings;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings of all the rater groups.

# <u>Scale 10 – Business Acumen</u> (Person x Age)

- The age group one (25 40 years) received the highest ratings;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings while the subordinates (e) gave the highest ratings.

# <u>Scale 10 – Business Acumen (Person x Level)</u>

- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest rating, while the subordinates (e) gave the highest ratings;
- The middle management group (M5 6) received the lowest ratings from all the rater groups;
- The top management group (M2 − 3) received the highest ratings from all the rater groups.

#### Scale 13 – People Development (Person x Gender)

- The supervisors (r) gave gender two (females) higher ratings than gender one (males), while all the other rater groups gave gender two (females) a lower rating than gender one (males);
- The self-ratings of gender two (females) was lower than that of gender one (males).

#### Scale 14 – Performance Achievement (Person x Race)

- The self-rating for all the race groups were higher than their ratings by other rater groups, except for race two (Whites), who was rated the highest by their subordinates;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings.



# Scale 15 - Empowerment (Person x Level)

- The middle management (M5 6) level received the lowest ratings, but their self-ratings are the highest of all the levels;
- The supervisors (r) gave the lowest ratings of all the rater groups.

# <u>Scale 15 – Empowerment</u> (Person x Gender)

- The supervisors (r) rated gender group two (females) higher than gender group one (males), while all the other rater groups rated gender group one (males) higher than gender group two (females);
- The self-ratings of gender group two are also lower than the self-ratings of gender group one.

# Average rating per scale per year

- There is an improvement in the ratings on all the scales year-on-year, except for motivational capacity, integrity and self-responsibility;
- The scales showing the most improvement is adaptability, purpose building, crossfunctional teamwork, people development and performance achievement.

#### 5. INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The main trends that were identified in the analysis of the 360° LAQ results are the following:

- No statistically significant results were obtained in the detailed analysis on scale 2 (Adaptability), scale 3 (Self-responsibility), scale 4 (Leadership Communication), scale 6 (Motivational Capacity), scale11 (Diversity Learning) and scale 12 (Crossfunctional Teamwork). This indicates that there were no statistically significant differences in the ratings on these scales. All groups were therefore rated equally good or bad in terms of the competencies measured on these scales;
- The top management level (M2-3) consistently received the highest rating from all the management levels;



- The supervisors (r) consistently gave the lowest ratings of all the rater groups. This
  may indicate that they were more critical than the other rater groups;
- Middle managers (M5-6) received significantly lower ratings than the other management levels in terms of integrity, purpose building, information capacity, conceptual ability, business acumen and empowerment;
- Female leaders received significantly lower ratings than male leaders in terms of information capacity, people development and empowerment. Although females were rated higher than their male counterparts by their supervisors, all the other rater groups rated female leaders lower than male leaders on these competencies. The self-ratings of female leaders were also significantly lower than the self-rating of male leaders. This may indicate that female leaders are not well accepted by their peers and subordinates;
- Leaders in the age group 25 40 years received the highest ratings of all the age groups on business acumen and visionary thinking;
- Leaders in the age group 41 50 years were rated the highest by all the rater groups on conceptual ability but received the lowest ratings of all the age groups on visionary thinking;
- African (Black) leaders were rated significantly higher on visionary thinking in all three years, than leaders from other race groups;
- The average rating for each of the scales shows a year-on-year improvement, except for motivational capacity. Since no statistically significant results were obtained for this scale in the detailed profile analysis, it may indicate that all groups were rated equally bad on this scale and it can therefore be regarded as a general development area for the leaders of the organization where the research was conducted.



# 6. UTILISATION OF THE 360° LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT RESULTS IN THE HOLISTIC MODEL FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT.

The trends and patterns identified in this research can be utilized in the Holistic Model for Leadership Development to determine the type and content of focused training interventions and programmes which are needed by specific groups to facilitate ongoing leadership development.

#### 6.1 ASSESSMENT RESULTS OF DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP GROUPS

The main trends that were identified in the analysis of the 360° LAQ results are the following:

- Top Management (M2-3) received higher ratings than the other management levels;
- Middle managers (M5-6) received significantly lower ratings than the other management levels in terms of integrity, purpose building, information capacity, conceptual ability, business acumen and empowerment;
- Female leaders received significantly lower ratings than male leaders in terms of
  information capacity, people development and empowerment. Although females
  were rated higher than their male counterparts by their supervisors, all the other
  rater groups rated female leaders lower than male leaders on these competencies.
  The self-ratings of female leaders were also significantly lower than the self-ratings
  of male leaders;
- Leaders in the age group 25-40 years received the highest ratings on business acumen and visionary thinking;
- Leaders in the age group 41-50 years were rated the highest by all the rater groups on conceptual ability but received the lowest ratings of all the age groups on visionary thinking;
- African (Black) leaders were rated significantly higher on visionary thinking in year one, two and three than leaders from other race groups.



#### 6.2 INTERPRETATION OF ASSESSMENT RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The interpretation of the assessment results is based on the statistical analyses as described in this Chapter as well as the feedback from eight focus groups with one hundred managers who participated in the 360° assessment. The focus groups consisted of between ten and fifteen managers at different management levels as well as different race-, age- and gender groups. The focus groups was facilitated by a Human Resource Specialist. The trends and patterns identified through the statistical analyses of the assessment results were shared with the focus group by the facilitator and group members were then requested to discuss possible reasons and solutions for each of the identified trends1.

The following recommendations were formulated, based on the analysis of the research results and the feedback from the focus groups:

# Top Management (M2-3)

The top management level (M2-3) consistently received the highest rating from all the management levels. The feedback from the focus groups indicates this may be due to the high regard for positional power in the organization. Some of the feedback also indicated that there is still a fear amongst some participants regarding the confidentiality of the assessment information.

It is recommended that a lot of emphasis be placed on the confidentiality of assessment during the communication prior to the start of the next 360° assessment and feedback process. The ways in which the confidentiality of the 360° assessment results are protected must be clearly explained to all leaders.

#### Middle Managers (M5-6)

According to the statistical analyses of the research results, middle managers (M5-6) received significantly lower ratings than the other management levels in terms of integrity, purpose building, information capacity, conceptual ability, business acumen and empowerment.



The feedback from the focus groups indicated that most middle managers had a technical background and do not have "natural" people skills or business acumen. Most of them were technical specialists before being promoted to a management level. The focus group participants who were on a middle management level indicated that they preferred skills based and action learning type of development.

Based on the analyses of the assessment results as well as the feedback from the focus groups, it is recommended that a development programme for all middle managers be implemented with special focus on the development of integrity, purpose building, information capacity, conceptual ability, business acumen and empowerment.

The programme for middle management should include elements of the skills based approach to leadership development, e.g. lectures, case studies and role-plays as well as elements of the action learning approach such as business impact project teams to solve actual business problems, as discussed in Chapter 2.

#### Female leaders

According to the statistical analysis of the research results, female leaders received significantly lower ratings than male leaders in terms of information capacity, people development and empowerment. Although females were rated higher than their male counterparts by their supervisors, all the other rater groups rated female leaders lower than male leaders on these competencies. The self-ratings of female leaders were also significantly lower than the self-ratings of male leaders.

Most female leaders in the organization where the research was conducted had been in a management position for less than three years since the organization had only recently started to appoint females in management positions. The feedback from the focus groups indicated that although female leaders received good support from their supervisors, their peers and subordinates often showed resistance to accepting a female in a management position, since this had always been a male dominated culture owing to the technical nature of the business. Most female leaders also have a sales and marketing or human



resources background without a technical qualification, which makes it even more difficult for them to be accepted as business leaders. Female leaders who participated in the focus groups indicated that they often felt inferior to their male counterparts owing to their lack of technical and business knowledge. They also indicated that they preferred the skills development and feedback approach to leadership development. They also indicated that they could benefit from mentorship and coaching to enhance their business knowledge and skills. Since they were trying so hard to prove themselves and get the job done, they often found it difficult to empower and develop those reporting to them. Since there were only a few women in management positions, they often felt alone with very little or no support.

Based on the assessment results and the feedback from the focus groups, it is recommended that a customised and focused development programme for female leaders be implemented to enhance their business knowledge as well as their ability to gather and share information as well as to empower and develop employees in a technical business environment.

The female leaders in the focus groups indicated that the programme for female leaders should preferably be a combination of the skills based and feedback approach to leadership development. It should also preferably include mentorship, i.e. each female leader participating in the programme should be given a mentor to act as a role-model and a coach to assist with the practical implementation of newly acquired knowledge and skills in the work situation such as the empowerment and development of others, as discussed in Chapter 2. A mentor will also provide them with the necessary support as well as practical advice on how to deal with resistance from team members.

Leaders in the age group 25 – 40 years.

According to the statistical analyses of the research results, leaders in the age group 25-40 years received the highest ratings on business acumen and visionary thinking.

According to the feedback from the focus groups, the majority of leaders in this age group have only been in a management position for less than five years. Since they had not



been in a management position for an extended period, they are regarded by many of the focus group participants as open-minded and future focused with a good understanding of the future business challenges.

Since business acumen and visionary thinking seem to be particularly strong in this age group, they should capitalize on their strengths and not only focus on their development areas. This means that leaders must take something that they do well and become more visible in their approach to it. They may teach it to someone else or, when appropriate, do it more often (Chappelow, 1998).

Based on the above, it is recommended that leaders in this age group participate in a visionary thinking and scenario planning workshop with leaders from the other age groups. In this way their strengths can become more visible to others and they can also transfer their skills to the other leaders during the group exercises. The workshop should preferably be based on the action learning approach to leadership development as discussed in Chapter 2 because in action learning, leaders learn with and from each other (Mumford, 1995).

# Leaders in the age group 41-50 years.

According to the statistical analyses of the research results, leaders in the age group 41-50 years were rated the highest by all rater groups on conceptual ability but received the lowest ratings of all the age groups on visionary thinking.

Most leaders in this age group had been in a management position for more than 5 years. According to the feedback from the focus groups, leaders in this age group had much knowledge and experience, but they tended to be less open to new ideas and less future focused than younger leaders.

It is recommended that the leaders in this age group attend the visionary thinking and scenario planning workshops together with leaders in the age group 25-40 years as recommended in the previous point. In this way, they can learn from each other. The older leaders can share their knowledge and experience with the younger leaders while



the younger leaders can share their new ideas and futuristic thinking with the older leaders since all these factors are important in visionary thinking and scenario planning.

#### African Leaders

According to the statistical analyses of the research results, African (Black) leaders were rated significantly higher on visionary thinking in year one, two and three than leaders from other race groups.

Most African leaders in the research are in the age group 25-40 years and it is therefore not surprising that they received a high rating on visionary thinking. According to feedback from the focus groups, they received a high rating on this competency for the same reasons as did the leaders in the age group 25-40 years.

The same recommendation applies to African leaders that apply to leaders in the age group 25-40 years.

#### 6.3 OVERALL COMPANY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

The overall company results are based on the average rating for each competency (see Table 6.1).



Table 6.1 : Average rating per year of each leadership competency

Overall Company Report

Competencies	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Integrity	3.94	3.94	3.94
Adaptability	3.68	3.69	3.73
Self-responsibility	3.87	3.87	3.87
Leadership Communication	3.70	3.73	3.74
Purpose Building	3.70	3.72	3.76
Motivational Capacity	3.60	3.62	3.61
Information Capacity	3.69	3.71	3.72
Conceptual Ability	3.75	3.78	3.79
Visionary Thinking	3.63	3.67	3.68
Business Acumen	3.77	3.80	3.81
Diversity Learning	3.79	3.81	3.81
Cross-functional Teamwork	3.64	3.67	3.71
People Development	3.60	3.63	3.67
Performance Achievement	3.68	3.72	3.76
Empowerment	3.64	3.67	3.68

The competencies in the shaded blocks are regarded as development areas for the company since they received an overall rating of less than 3.65.

The company overall results indicate an improvement in most of the competencies, except for integrity and self-responsibility, which remained unchanged. Motivational capacity is the only competency where there has been an improvement in year two and a decline in year three.



The competencies on which leaders received the lowest ratings are motivational capacity, people development, visionary thinking and empowerment.

Although there was no improvement in terms of integrity and self-responsibility, it must be taken into consideration that the average scores for these two competencies are also the highest of all those reflected in Table 6.1. Motivational capacity is the only competency where there was an improvement in year two and a decline in year three. It is also the competency with the lowest average score, which indicates that motivational capacity may be an organization-wide area of development in terms of leadership capabilities.

The overall trend of the company-wide 360° Leadership Assessment results clearly indicates an improvement in twelve of the fifteen competencies, since the implementation of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire.

# 6.4 INTERPRETATION OF OVERALL COMPANY ASSESSMENT RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

The overall company results are based on the average rating per competency and can be used to determine company-wide weaknesses/development areas. The overall company results can be utilised to determine what company-wide interventions are required to develop the overall leadership capability of the company.

The fact that motivational capacity received the lowest rating in terms of the overall company results, but has not been indicated as an area of development in the analyses of the group ratings in terms of age, level, gender, race or rater group as discussed in Chapter 4, may indicate that it is a general development area across all groups of leaders and not only a development area of a particular group, e.g. female leaders. Further research may, however, be required to establish whether this is true or not, since it falls outside the scope of this research as described in Chapter 1.

The overall company results were shared with executives and teams and their feedback was requested on the possible reasons for the identified trends as well as recommendations for improvement.



The following possible reasons were identified by the executives and their teams:

- The majority of managers in the company had a technical background and qualifications. They therefore tended to place a higher value on technical skills than people skills such as motivational capacity;
- Most managers were appointed in management positions because of their high technical expertise and not because of their people skills;
- Managers were measured only on their actual business results in performance management, but not on their leadership behaviour;
- No measurement of employee satisfaction and engagement existed to indicate the impact of leadership behaviour on employee satisfaction and engagement.

The following recommendations were made by executives and their teams:

- In order to optimise the impact of the 360° assessment and feedback, it was recommended that 360° Leadership Assessment be linked not only to training and development as is currently the case, but also integrated with the performance management, succession planning and reward systems. If managers know that they will be rewarded according to the progress they make towards reaching their development goals, they will be even more motivated to translate their feedback into action;
- It was recommended that special attention be paid to assess the people skills of job applicants for management positions before their being appointed in order to ensure that they meet the minimum requirements set by the company;
- Since motivational capacity seems to be a persistent development area of leaders in the organization under research, it was recommended that special attention be paid to the development of this competency in all new leadership development interventions offered by the company.



#### 7. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER ENHANCEMENTS AND RESEARCH

Further research will have to be done after the implementation of the recommended interventions, to determine their impact on the enhancement of the leadership capabilities of the company.

One of the objectives of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development is to have an impact on the level of self-awareness of leaders as well as bring about a change in perspective as discussed in Chapter 2. The 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) that was used in this research does not measure self-awareness or perspective change. The Holistic Model for Leadership Development can therefore be enhanced by adding an assessment instrument to measure self-awareness and perspective change.

The Holistic Model for Leadership Development can be integrated with other HR systems and processes to enhance the impact and effectiveness of the model by for instance linking the leadership competencies to outputs as part of the performance management process.

Further research can be done to determine the return on investment (ROI) for the organisation of the implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development since it has already been proven in this research that the implementation of the model had a positive impact on the development of the leadership capability of the organization.

# 8. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The intention of this research was not to control all the possible factors that may have had an impact on the behaviour of leaders since the research design has been non-experimental and longitudinal in nature. The main purpose of this research has been to measure changes in leadership behaviour as part of a holistic model for leadership development.



The purpose of this research has also not been to prove or support any existing theory or hypothesis. The purpose of this research has been exploratory – to measure and monitor changes in leadership behaviour over time in order to utilise the information to identify suitable development actions as part of a holistic model for leadership development as well as to determine if the implementation of a holistic model for leadership development will lead to an improvement of the overall leadership capability of the organization.

In this study, leadership behaviour has been measured and monitored over a period of three years by means of a 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) as part of a Holistic Model for Leadership Development. The objective of this research was to measure and monitor leadership behaviour and to analyse the assessment results. Based on a study of the analyses of the assessment results, statistically significant trends and patterns were identified for different groups in terms of gender, race, age, job level and rater groups. The results of the analyses were then interpreted to determine what focused development experiences and interventions are required for specific groups, e.g. middle managers, female leaders, etc. as part of a Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

The overall assessment results for the company were also analysed by calculating the average rating for each competency every year as reflected in Table 6.1. These results were used to determine what company-wide development interventions are required to enhance the overall leadership capability of the company as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development.

The overall trend of the company-wide 360° Leadership Assessment results clearly indicates an improvement in twelve of the fifteen competencies since the implementation of the 360° Leadership Assessment Questionnaire as part of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development. Based on this, it can be concluded that the implementation of the Holistic Model for Leadership Development contributed to an improvement of the leadership capability of the organisation over an extended period of time.

Measuring and monitoring leadership behaviour at individual and company level over time provides individual leaders with valuable feedback on how their efforts to change and



improve their leadership behaviour are being perceived by others, as well as what else they have to focus on to improve their leadership capabilities.

Drath (1998, p.431) summarises the purpose and contribution of this research in the context of a holistic model and process for leadership development very well when writing:

Leadership development as a profession is being aced to play a vital role in bringing forth a new idea of leadership and in supporting the new idea as it emerges. Some current practices, especially those seeking to combine leadership development with ongoing work and those seeking to create a framework for practising leadership development more systemically in organizations, are already pointing the way toward promising new directions.



#### **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Albenese, R. & Van Fleet, D.D. (1983). *Organizational Behaviour: A Managerial viewpoint*. Hinsdale: The Dryden Press.

Alden J. & Kirkhorn, J. (1996). Case studies. In R.L. Craig (ed.), *The ASTD training and development handbook* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Alldredge, M., Johnson, C., Stoltzfus, J., & Vicere, A. (2003). "Leadership Development at 3M: New Processes, New Techniques, New Growth." *Human Resource Planning*, **26** (3), 45-55

Atwater, L., Rousch, P. & Fishtal, A. (1995). The influence of upward feedback on self and follower ratings of leadership. *Personnel Psychology*, **48**, 35 – 59.

Atwater, L. & Wahlman. D. (1998). 360 Degree feedback and Leadership Development. *Leadership guarterly*, **9**, 423-426.

Avolio, B.J. & Howell, J.M. (1992). The Impact of Leadership Behaviour and Leader Follower Personality Match on Satisfaction and Unit Performance. In K. Clark (ed.), *Impact of Leadership* 225-235. Greensboro: Center for Creative Leadership.

Balnaves, M. & Caputi, P. (2001). *Introduction to Quantitative Research Methods*. London: SAGE Publications

Bandura, A. (1977). Social Learning theory. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1978). The self-system in reciprocal determinism. *American Psychologist*, **33**, 344 – 358.

Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.



Bartlett, C.A. & Ghoshal, S. (1997). The myth of the generic manager: New personal competencies for new management roles. *California Management Review*, **40** (1), 92 – 93.

Barret, A. & Beeson, J. (2002). *Developing Business Leaders for 2010.* New York: Conference Board.

Bartram, D. (2002). The SHL Corporate Leadership Model. Thames Ditton: SHL Group.

Bass, B.M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1996). A new paradigm of leadership: An inquiry into transformational leadership. Alexandria: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioural and Social Sciences.

Bass, B.M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, **52**, 130 – 193.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1990). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, **14**, 21 – 27.

Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge.* New York: Harper & Row.

Bernadin, H.J. (1986). Subordinate appraisal: A valuable source of information about managers. *Human Resource Management*, **25** (3), 421–431.

Bernadin, H.J., Dahmus, S.A. & Redmonn G. (1993). Attitudes of first-line supervisors toward subordinate appraisals. *Human Resource Management*, 32, Summer/Fall.



Blake, R. & McCanse, A.A. (1991). Leadership Dilemmas - Grid Solutions. Houston: Gulf.

Blake, R. & Mouton, J. (1978). The New Managerial Grid. Houston: Gulf.

Blake, R. & Mouton, J. (1985). *The Managerial Grid III: Key to Leadership Excellence*. Houston: Gulf.

Boyatzis, R.E. (1982). The Competent Manager. New York: Wiley & Sons.

Bowers, D.G. & Seashore S.E. (1996). Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, **11**, 238 – 263.

Brache, A (1983). Seven prevailing myths about leadership. *Training and Development Journal*, 120-126.

Bracken, D.W. (1994). Straight talk about multi-rater feedback. *Training and Development*, September, 44-49.

Bray, D.W. and Campbell, R.J. (1974). Formative Years in Business: A long-term study of Managerial Lives. New York: Wiley.

Brooks, A. (1998). Educating human resource development leaders at the University of Texas, Austin: The use of action learning to facilitate university/workplace collaboration. *Performance Improvement Quarterly,* **11** *(*2), 48–58.

Burns, J.M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.

Burke, M.J. & Day, R.R. (1986). A cumulative study of the effectiveness of managerial training. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **71** (2), 232 – 245.



Campbell, J.P., Bownas, D., Peterson, N. & Dunette, M. (1974). *The measurement of organizational effectiveness: A review of relevant research and opinion.* San Diego: NPRDC.

Campbell, J.R. (1977). The Cutting edge of leadership: An overview. In Hunt J.G. & Larson L.L. (Eds), *Leadership: The cutting edge*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Center for Creative Leadership. (1998). *Reflections*. Greensboro, N.C.: Center for Creative Leadership.

Chappelow, C.T. (2004). 360-degree feedback. In McCauley, CD. Van Velsor, E. (Eds) Handbook of Leadership Development (pp. 58-84). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 58-84.

Cockerill, T. (1989). The kind of competence for rapid change. *Personal Management,* **12** *(9), 52-56.* 

Cockerill, T., Shroder, H.M. & Hunt, J. (1993). *Validation Study into the High Performing Managerial Competencies*. London Business School Report.

Collins, J. (2001). Good to Great, Harper Business: New York.

Conger, J.A. (1994). The Charismatic Leader. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R. (1987). Toward a Behavioural Theory of Charismatic Leadership in Organizational Settings. *Academy of Management Review*, **12**, 637-647.

Conger, J.A. (1992). Learning to lead: The art of transforming managers into leaders. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cox C.J. & Cooper, C.L. (1989). *High Flyers: An Anatomy of Managerial Success* Oxford: Blackwell.



Dalton, M.A. & Hollenbeck, G.P. (1997). *Best practices in 360-degree feedback processes*. In Tools for Developing Successful Executives, Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro.

Daniels, A. (1989). *Performance management*. Tucker: Performance Management Publications.

DeConing, T. (1996). Behavioural *Indicators of the South African Competencies*. Business School: University of Stellenbosch.

De Vries, K. (2001). Leadership Mystique. London: Prentice Hall.

Dilworth, R.L. (1998). Action learning in a nutshell. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, **11** (1), 28–43.

Dixon, N.M. (1998). Acting learning: More than just a task force. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, **11** (1), 44-58.

Doodley, D. (1984). Social Research Methods. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

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

Drath, W. H. & Palus, C.J. (1994). *Making common sense: Leadership as meaning-making in a community of practice.* Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.

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

Dumaine, B. (1993). The new non-manager manager's. Fortune, 80-84.

Edwards, M.R. & Ewen, A.J. (1996). 360° Feedback: The powerful new model for employee assessment & performance improvement. New York: AMACOM.



Ellis, L. & Pennington, S. (2004). Should leaders have fangs or tusks? *Management Today*, **20** (9), 32-34.

Fiedler, F.E. & Garcia, J.E. (1987). New Approaches to Effective Leadership: Cognitive Resources and Organizational Performance. New York: Wiley.

Fiedler, F.E. (1996). Research on leadership selection and training: One view of the future. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, **41**, 241-250.

Fisher, B.M. & Edwards, J.E. (1988). Consideration and initiating structure and their relationship with leader effectiveness: A Meta-analysis. *Academy of Management*, 201-205.

Fleishman; E.A. & Harris, E.F. (1962). Patterns of leadership behaviour related to employee grievances and turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, **15**, 43-56

Gratton, L. (2007). The leadership challenge. Management Today, 23 (7), 10-12.

Friedland, W.H. (1964). For a sociological concept of charisma. *Social Forces*, **43** (1), 18-26.

Galagan, P. (1987) "Between Two Trapezes," *Training and Development Journal*, **41**, 40–50.

Garavan, T.N., Morley, M. & Flynn, M., 360 Degree Feedback: its role in employee development. *Journal of Management Development*, **16** (2), 134-147.

Geddes & Grosset (2002) English Dictionary. New Lanark: David Dale House

Ghorpade, J. (2000) Managing five paradoxes of 360-degree feedback. *Academy of Management Executive*, **14** (1), 140-150.



Goldstein, A.P. & Sorcher, M. (1974). *Changing supervisor behaviour.* New York: Pergamon Press.

Graeff, C. (1983). The Situational Leadership Theory: A Critical Review. *Academy of Management Review*, **8**, 285 – 296.

Greenleaf, R. (1977). Servant leadership. New York: Paulist Press.

Greenleaf, R.K. (1997). Servant Leadership: A Journey into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness. Mahwah: Paulist Press.

Hall, J., & Donnell, S.M. (1979). Managerial Achievement: The Personal Side of Behavioural Theory. *Human Relations*, **32**, 77–101.

Hazucha, J.F., Hezlett, S.A. & Schneider, R.J. (1993). The impact of 360-degree feedback on management skills development. *Human Resource Management*, **32** (2), 325–351.

Heller, F. & Yukl, G. (1969). Participation, managerial decision making and situational variables. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, **4**, 227-241.

Hernez-Broom, G. & Hughes, R.L. (2004). Leadership Development: Past, Present and Future. *Human Resource Planning*, March, 24-31.

Hemphill, J.K. (1950). *Leader behaviour description*. Ohio State University: Columbus Ohio.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.M. (1969). Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. *Training and Development Journal*, **23**, 26-34.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.M. (1977). *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing Human Resources* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Englewood-Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.



Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.M. (1982). *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing Human Resources* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Englewood-Cliffs: Prentice-Hall

Hiemstra, R. (1994). Self-directed learning. In T. Husen & T.N. Postlethwaite (Eds), *The International Encyclopedia of Education* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Hirschfield, PIJ. (1991). How employee's feedback can boost organizational performance, *Employment Relations Today*.

Hoffman, R. (1995). Ten reasons you should be using 360-degree feedback. *Human Resource Management Magazine*, **40** (4) April 1995.

Hosmer, L.T. (1995). Trust: The Connecting Link between Organizational Theory and Philosophical Ethics. *Academy of Management Review*, **201**, 379-403.

House, R.J. & Aditya, R.N. (1997). The Social Scientific Study of Leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management*, **23**, 409-474.

House, R.J. & Baetz M.L. (1979). Leadership – Some Empirical Generalizations and New Research Directions. In B. Staw (Ed.) Research in Organizational Behaviour, (Vol 1). Greenwich: JAI Press.

House, R.J. & Mitchell, T.R. (1974). Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. *Contemporary Business*, 81-98.

House, R.J. (1971). A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, **16** (2), 321-329.

House, R.S. (1996). Classroom instruction. In R.L. Craig (ed.), *The ASTD training and development handbook.* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.



Howell, J.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated business unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **78**, 891 – 902.

Howell, J.M. & Grost, P. (1998). A Laboratory Study of Charismatic Leadership. Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, **43**, 243-69.

Hughes, R.J., Ginnett, R.C. & Curphy, G.J. (1999). *Leadership: Enhancing the Lessons of Experience*, (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Burr Ridge: Irwin/McGraw-Hill, 70.

Hunt, J.G. (1991). Leadership: A new synthesis. Newbury Park: Sage.

Isaacs, W. (1993). Taking flight: Dialogue, collective thinking, and organizational learning. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24-39

Intagliata, J., Ulrich, D. & Smallwood, N. (2000). Leveraging Leadership Competencies to Produce Leadership Brand: Creating Distinctiveness by Focusing on Strategy and Results. *Human Resource Planning*, **23** (3), 1-6.

Jacobs, T.O. (1970). *Leadership and Exchange in formal organizations*. Alexandria: Human Research Organization.

Janda, K.F. (1960). Towards the explication of the concept of leadership in terms of the concept of power. *Human Relations*, **13**, 345 – 363.

Jones, J.E. (1980). Developing theoretical models. In J.E. Jones & J.W. Pfeiffer (Eds), *The 1980 annual handbook for group facilitators.* San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Jones, M. (1990). Action learning as a new idea. *Journal of Management Development* **9** (5): 29-34.



Jones, J.E. & Bearley, W.L. (1995). *Surveying employees: A practical guidebook.* Amherst, MA: HRD Press.

Joubert, T and Kriek, H. (2000). Leadership Assessment Questionnaire.

Jung, D.J. & Avolio, B.J. (1999). Effects of leadership style and followers' cultural orientation on performance in individual task conditions. *Academy of Management Journal*, **42**, 208-218.

Kanter, R. (1985). The change masters. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Kanter, R. (1997). Rosabeth Moss Kanter on the frontiers of management. Campbridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Kaplan, R., Drath, W. & Kofodimos, J. (1985). *High hurdles: The challenge of executive self-development*. Greensboro, N.C.: Center for Creative Leadership.

Kaplan, R.E. (1993). 360 degree feedback plus: boosts the power of co-worker ratings for executives. *Human Resource Management*, **32**, 299-314.

Karmel, B. (1978). Leadership: A challenge to traditional research methods and assumptions. *Academy of Management Review, 3*, 475 – 482.

Katz, D. & Khan, R.L. (1952). Some recent findings in human-relations research in industry. In E. Swanson, T. Newcomb & E. Hartley (Eds), *Readings in social psychology* 650 – 665.

Katz, D. & Khan, R.L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: John Wiley.

Katz, D., Maccoby, N., Gurin, G. & Floor, L. (1951). *Productivity, supervision, and morale among railroad workers*. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.



Katz, D., Maccoby, N. & Morse, N. (1950). *Productivity, supervision, and morale in an office situation*. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research.

Kiechel, W. (1994). A manager's career in the new economy. *Fortune*, **129** (7), 68–70.

Kincaid, S.B. & Gordick, D. (2003). The Return on Investment of Leadership Development: Differentiating Our Discipline. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research.* **55** (1), 47-57.

Korman, A.K. & Tanofsky, R. (1975). Statistical problems of contingency models in organizational behaviour. *Academy of Management Journal*, **18**, 393-397.

Kotter, J.P. (1979). Power in Management. New York: AMACOM.

Kotter, J.P. (1982). The General Manager. New York: Free Press.

Kotter, J.P. (1995). *Leading change*: Why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard Business Review*, **73** (3), 59–67.

Kotter, J.P. (1996). Leading Change. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kotter, J.P. (1998). 21<sup>st</sup> Century leadership. *Executive excellence*, **15** (5) 5–6.

Kotter, J.P. (1990). A force for change: How leadership differs from management. New York: Free Press.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.M. (2002). *The Leadership Challenge*. New York: Jossey – Bass.



Levinson, H. (1980). Power, leadership, and the management of stress. *Professional Psychology*, **11**, 497 – 508.

Lewin, K., Lippett, R. & White, R.K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behaviour in experimentally created social climates: *Journal of Social Psychology*, **10** (1), 271-301.

Likert, R. (1961). New patterns of management. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Likert. R. (1967). *The human organization: Its management and value.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

London, M. and Beatty, R. (1993). 360-degree feedback as a competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management*, **32** (2), 357–372.

London, M., Wojhlers, A.J. & Gallagher, P. (1990), A feedback approach to management development. *Journal of Management Development*, **9**.

Lord, R.G., De Vader, C.L. & Alliger, G.M. (1988). A meta-analysis of the relationship between personality traits and leadership perception: An application of validity generalisations procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **71**, 402-410

Mann, R.D. (1959). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, **56**, 241 - 270

Marcus, J.T. (1961). Transcendence and charisma. *The Western Political Quarterly*, **14**, 236 – 241.

Marquardt, M.J. (1996). Building the learning organization. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Marquardt, M.J. (1997). Action learning. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.



Marsick, V.J. (1988). Learning in the workplace: The case for critical reflectivity. *Adult Education Quarterly*, **38** (4) 187-198.

Marsick, V.J., & Neaman, P.G. (1997). Individuals who learn create organizations that learn. In R. Rowden (Ed.), *Workplace learning: Debating five critical questions of theory and practice, New directions for adult and continuing education* (pp. 97-104). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Marsick, V.J. (2002). Exploring the Many Meanings of Action Learning and ARL. In L. Rohlin, K. Billing, A. Lindberg and M. Wickelgren (Eds), *Earning While Learning in Global Leadership: The Volvo-Mil Partnership.* Vasbyholm, Sweden: MiL.

Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper & Row.

McCall, M.W. (1997). *High flyers: Developing the next generation of leaders.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

McGregor, D. (1966). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill.

McNulty, N. & G.R. Canty. (1995). Proof of the pudding. *Journal of Management Development* **14** (1) 53-66.

Meyer, M. & Fourie, L. (2004). Coaching and Mentoring: business tool of the 21<sup>st</sup> centurty. **Management Today**, **20** (9), 48-52.

Mezirow, J. 1991. *Transformative dimensions of adult learning.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Morris, M. (1979). Follow my Leader: Measurable Leadership. *People and Profits*, 4 – 12.

Moses, J., Hollenback, G.P. and Scorcher, M. (1993). Other people's expectations, Human *Resource Management*, 32.



Moxley, R.S. & Wilson, P. (1998). A Systems approach to leadership development. In C.D. McCuley, R.S. Moxley, & E. Van Velsor (Eds), *Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development*, (pp. 217-241). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mumford, A. (1995). Manager developing others through action learning. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, **27** (2) 19-27.

Mumford, M.D. (1986). Leadership in the organizational context: Some empirical and theoretical considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **16**, 508-531.

Nel, C. (2007). Leadership: The primary driver in high performance organizations. *Management Today*, **23** (9), 24-26.

Nowack, K. 360 Degree Feedback – the whole story. *Training and Development*, **47** (1), 69-72.

Nystrom, P. (1978). Managers and the Hi-Hi Leader Myth. *Academy of Management Journal*, **21**, 325-331.

Ohlott, P.J. (2004). Job Assignments. In C.D. McCauley & E. Van Velsor (Eds), *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development (pp. 151-182)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

O'Reilly, B. (1994). 360 Feedback can change your life. Fortune Magazine, **130** (8), 93-100.

Owen, H. (1991). Riding the tiger. Potomac, MD: Abbott.

Palus, C.J. & Horth, D.M. (2004). "Exploration for Development." In C.D. MdCauley & Van Velsor (Eds), *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development (pp. 438-464)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.



Pawar, B.S. & Eastman, K.K. (1997). The nature and implications of contextual influences on transformational leadership: A conceptual examination. *Academy of Management Review*, **22**, 80 – 109.

Pettigrew, A.M. (1988). Context and action in the transformation of firms. *Journal of Management Studies*, **24**, 649 – 670.

Pillai, R. (1996). Crisis and the emergence of charismatic leadership in groups: An experimental investigation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, **26**, 143-163.

Pillai, R. & Meindl, J.R. (1998). Context and charisma: A "meso" level examination of the relationship of organic structure, collectivism, and crisis to charismatic leadership. *Journal of Management*, **24**, 643-671.

Podsakoff, P.M, Dorfman, P.W., Howell, J.P. & Todor, W.D. (1986). Leader reward and punishment behaviours: A preliminary test of a culture-free style of leadership effectiveness. In Framer R.N. (Ed.). *Advances in International comparative management* (pp. 95-138). Greenwich: JAI press.

Rauch, C.F. & Behling, O. (1984). Functionalism: Basis for an alternate approach to the study of leadership. In Hunt, J.G., Hosking, D.M., Schriesheim, C.A. & Stewart, R. (Eds), Leaders and managers: International perspectives on managerial behaviour and leadership, 45-62. Elmsford: Pergamon Press.

Revans, R.W. (1983). The ABC of action learning. Bromley: Chartwell-Brat.

Rhinesmith, S. 1996. *A manager's guide to globalization* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.



Roberts, N.C. & Bradley, R.T. (1988). Limits of charisma. In Conger J.A. & R.N. Kanungo (Eds), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organisational effectiveness* 253-275. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Romano, C. (1994). Conquering the fear of feedback. HR Focus, 71 (3), 327-341.

Rooke, D. & Torbert, W.R. (2005). Transformations of Leadership. *Harvard Business Review*, April, 67-76.

Rost, J.C. (1993). Leadership for the Twenty-first Century. Wesport: Preager.

Schepard, S. (2007). The Leader: trial-blazer through the competitive wilderness *Managment Today*, October, 12-15.

Schriesheim, C. & Kerr, S. (1977). Theories and measures of leadership: A critical appraisal of present and future directions. In Hunt J.C. & Larson L.L. (Eds), *Leadership: The Cutting Edge*, 9-44. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Schroder, H.M. with Harvey O.J. & Hunt, D.E. (1961). *Conceptual systems and personality organization*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Schroder, H.M. & Harvey O.J. (1963). Conceptual organization and group structrue. In O.J. Harvey (Ed.), *Motivation and Social interaction – Cognitive Determinates.*, New York: Ronald Press.

Schroder, H.M., Streufert, S.S. & Weeden, D.C. (1964). *The effect of structural abstractness in interpersonal stimuli or leadership role*. Office of Naval Research Report #3.

Schroder, H.M. (1975). The Development of Information Processing Capability. In H.W. Krohne (Ed.), *Advances in Educational Psychology*. Munchen: Ernst Reinhardt.



Schroder, H.M. (1983). *Managerial Competences and the Reliability of Assessment Center Ratings of Performance*. State of Florida Education Department: Florida.

Schroder, H.M. (1989). *Managerial Competence*. Debuque, Iowa: Kendall Hunt Publishing Co.

Schroder, H.M. with Cockerill A.P. and Hunt, J. (1995). *Managerial Competence: Fact or Fiction*? London Business School Report.

Schroder, H.M. & Clemens, J. (1997). *The 1997 synergistic leadership capabilities*. Unpublished paper.

Senge, P. (1990a). The Fifth Discipline. New York: Doubleday.

Senge, P. (1990b). The Leaders New Work: Building Learning Organizations. *Harvard Business Review*, **32** (1).

Skinner, B.F. (1971). Beyond Freedom and dignity. New York: Alfred A. Knorf.

Smith, J.E., Carson, K.P. & Alexander, R.A. (1984). Leadership: It can make a difference. *Academy of Management Journal*, **27**, 765 – 776.

Smither, J.W., London, M. & Vasilopoulos, N.L. (1995). An Examination of the effects of an upward feedback program over time. *Personnel Psychology*, **48**, 1-34.

Spears, L. (2002). Reflections on leadership. New York: Wiley & Sons.

Stager, D.P. (1967). Conceptual level as a team composition variable in small group decision making. *Journal of Social and Personality Psychology*, **5**, 152 – 161.

Stogdill, R.M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, **25**, 35-71.



Stogdill, R.M. (1963). *Manual for the leader behaviour description questionnaire – Form XII.* Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.

Stogdill, R.M. (1974). *Handbook of Leadership: A survey of the literature*. New York: Free Press.

Streufert, S.S. & Swezey, R.W. (1986). *Complexity, Managers and Organizations*. Academic Press: New York.

Strube, M.J. & Garcia, J.E. (1981). A meta-analytical investigation of Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. *Psychology Bulletin*, **90**, 307-321.

Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, I.S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I.R. & Massarik, F. (1961). *Leadership and organization*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tannenbaum, R. & Schmidt, W.H. (1958). How to Choose a Leadership Pattern. *Harvard Business Review*, **95**, 101.

Terry, G.R. (1977). *Principles of Management* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Homewood: Irwin.

Thiagarajan, S. (1996). Instructional games, simulations, and role-plays. In R.L. Craig (ed.). *The ASTD training and development handbook* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tichy, N.M. & Devanna, M.A. (1986). *The transformational leader.* New York: Wiley & Sons.

Tietjen, M. & Myers R. (1998). Motivation and Job Satisfaction. *Management Decisions*, 226-232.



Tornow, W.W. (1993). Perceptions of Reality: Is multiple-perspective measurement a means or an end? *Human Resource Management*, **32**.

Tuckman, B.W. (1965). Development sequences in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, **63**, 36-38.

Ulrich, D. (2000). "New Economy ..." CUPA-HR News, 27 (23).

Van Velsor, E. & Guthrie, V. (1998). Enhancing the ability to learn more from experience. In C.D. McCauley, R.S. Moxley & E. Van Velsor (Eds) *Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development* (pp. 242-261). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Van Velsor, E., Moxley, R.S. & McCauley, C.D. (2004). Our view of leadership development. In C.D. McCauley, R.S. Moxley & E. Van Velsor (Eds), *Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development*, (pp. 1-26). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Van Velsor, E., Ruderman, M.N. & Phillips, D. (1989). The lessons of the looking glass: Management simulations and the real world of action. Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 10 (6), 27-31.

Van Velsor, E., Taylor, S. & Leslie, J.B. (1993). An examination of the relationships among self-perception accuracy, self-awareness gender and leader's effectiveness. *Human Resource Management*, **32** (2), 20-25.

Van Velsor, E. & Leslie, J.B. (1995). Why executives derail: Perspective across time and cultures. *Academy of Management Executive*, **9** (4), 62-72.

Van Velsor, E. & McCauley, C.d. (2004). "Our View of Leadership Development." In C.D. McCauley and E. Van Velsor (eds.), *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1-22.



Vecchio, R.P. (1987). Situational Leadership Theory: An examination of a Prescriptive Theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **72**, 444 – 451.

Vermeulen, J. (2004). Making sene of leadership. Management Today, 20 (9), 22-24.

Vroom, J.H. & Vetton, P.W. (1973). *Leadership and Decision Making*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Walton, R.E. (1998). From control to commitment in the workplace. *Harvard Business Review*, 77 – 84.

Weber, M. (1947). *The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations*. New York: Free Press.

Weiner, N. & Mahoney, T.A. (1981). A model of corporate performance as a function of the environmental organizational, and leadership influences. *Academy of Management Journal*, **24**, 453 – 470.

Weinstein, K. (1995). *Action learning: A journey in discovery and development*. London: Harper Collins.

Wheatley, M.J. (1992). Leadership and the new science. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Wilcox, M. & Rush, S. (Eds) (2004). *The CCL Guide to Leadership in Action*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wiley, R.B., (1993). The Handbook of Business Strategy. Hay Group.

Willner, A.R. (1984). *The spellbinders: Charismatic political leadership.* New Haven: Yale University Press.



Yukl, G. (1995). Compass. Stanford, CT: Manus.

Yukl, G. (1998). Leadership in Organizations. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Zaccaro, S.J. Foti, R.J. & Kenny, D.A. (1991). Self-monitor and Trait-based Variance in Leadership: An Investigation of Leader Flexibility across Multiple Group Situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **76**, 308-315.

Zuboff, S. (1988). *In the age of the smart machine: The future of work and power.* New York: Basic Books.



# APPENDIX A LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (LAQ)



#### Appendix A - Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ)

In this questionnaire you will be rating <u>how things are done in a manager's division</u>. A <u>"division consists of all the people who report to a manager and the manager self."</u>

## Name of person to be assessed: Reference number:

You are his/her:

The purpose of the questionnaire is to provide useful feedback to the manager. This feedback will enable the manager to become more aware of his/her leadership strengths as well as key development needs. You are required to rate yourself/manager on a

number of statements relating to certain behaviours that are critical to his/her job performance.

Use the scale outlined below as a guide or norm to indicate to what extent the statements describe your/manager's work performance. Please study the descriptions carefully before giving a rating.

#### **Rating Scale**

1	Immediate development is essential	Development is needed. Doubt if the person is capable of meeting expectations
2	Development is needed	Development is needed. Dedication and effort are necessary if the person is to be successful
3	Adequate but could improve	The performance of the person is acceptable, but there is room for improvement
4	Fully meets expectations	Development is not essential, although ongoing development is desirable
5	Superior to others	Superior to others in meeting expectations. Widely recognised throughout the organization as superior to others



Please answer all relevant questions. It will take approximately 15 min. to complete the questionnaire.

Please follow the following guidelines in answering the questions.

- Leave any question that you cannot answer <u>blank</u> do not indicate 'N/A' or anything else between the brackets.
- A minimum of 41 questions need to be answered.
- Do not change the colour of the fonts of the questionnaire. Keep it as is and complete the questionnaire in <u>black</u>.
- Questions should be answered in whole numbers <u>only</u>. Percentages of decimals should not be used.

Your information will be treated confidential and will be processed with the other raters' ratings in a report to the assessee.

It is crucial for the success of the assessment that you complete the questionnaire promptly. Please complete it within one week and send it back to the email address indicated.

Rating		Question
	1.	Displays commitment towards company values
	2.	Demonstrate the capacity to see the connections between different parts
	3.	Successfully assists team members to adapt to a multi- cultural organization
	4.	Appropriately displays tolerance for mistakes
	5.	Inspires trust in subordinates
1	1	

6.	Adapts communication style to suit the requirements of the receiver
7.	Keeps up to date with new developments in the field of business
8.	Successfully creates an environment conducive to change
9.	Demonstrates an understanding of the ideas, views and feelings of others.
10.	Successfully links performance objectives with the strategy of the company
11.	Effectively assists others to adapt to changing circumstances
12.	Takes responsibility for own development
13.	Successfully anticipates potential problems
14.	Applies business principles in performing duties
15.	Adheres to organization standards of ethical behaviour
16.	Displays an openness for constructive criticism
17.	Gathers information about the future (e.g.) changing technology, future competition
18.	Understands how own tasks logically impact on other disciplines and functions.
19.	Facilitates the formation of a network of cross-functional teams

20.	Encourages calculated risk taking
21.	Responds positively to a changing environment
22.	Takes ownership for solving problems
23	Easily adapts between different roles and situations.
24.	Facilitates inputs from different teams to enhance customer service.
25.	Is results and action orientated
26.	Leads by example
27.	Facilitates regular analysis of alternative plans to meet objectives
28.	Fully understands the principles of business environment
29.	Fully understands the impact of diversity on business
30.	Accepts accountability for own behaviour
31.	Efficiently practices two-way communication
32.	Gathers information on the current operations of the company
33.	Treats others with respect and dignity

34.	Forms integrated solutions that will solve more than one existing problem
35.	Integrates initiatives across functional teams
36.	Creates opportunities for people to think from different perspectives
37.	Establishes systems for the gathering of important information
38.	Effectively integrates different kinds of information.
39.	Facilitates interaction between teams for the formation of new ideas
40.	Develops possible future scenarios
41.	Provides people with relevant and updated information.
42.	Clarify the role and function of all team members
43.	Ensures that the company vision and values are owned by the team
44.	Provides opportunities for personal development of employees
45.	Develops mechanisms for team members to continuously measure performance
46.	Utilises reward systems in motivating team members.
47.	Removes performance barriers and constraints
48.	Creates an environment where team members are



		motivated to perform
	49.	Takes ownership for efficient communication to team members.
	50.	Successfully influence others in accepting the team purpose
	51.	Stimulates a desire within team members to succeed.
	52.	Utilises the performance management system to enhance the performance of subordinates
	53.	Clearly explains the role of the team in reaching company goals
	54.	Promotes self confidence of team members
	55.	Effectively provides continuous on-the-job coaching
	56.	Takes effective action to determine the purpose of the team
	57.	Implements appropriate employee development actions
	58.	Enables the team to schedule own work



# APPENDIX B 360°LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT FEEDBACK REPORT



## Appendix B - 360°Leadership Assessment Feedback Report

## 1. Integrity

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary			
a)	Displays commitment towards								
	company values								
b)	Inspires trust in subordinates								
c)	Adheres to company's standards of ethical behaviour								
d)	Leads by example								
Overa	Overall Mark								

Comments:									
2	2. Adaptability								
No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater			
						Summary			
a)	Effectively assist others to adapt to								
	changing circumstances								
b)	Responds positively to a changing								
	environment								
c)	Successfully creates an environment								
	conducive to change								
d)	Easily adapts between different roles								
	and situations								
Overa	all Mark			1	ı				
Com	nments:								
1									

## 3. Self-responsibility

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Accepts accountability for own					
	behaviour					
b)	Takes responsibility for own					
	development					
c)	Displays an openness for constructive					
	criticism					
d)	Takes ownership for solving problems					
Overa	ll Mark		•	•		
<u></u>						

Comments:			

## 4. Leadership Communication

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater
						Summary
a)	Clarify the role and function of all team					
	members					
b)	Adapts communication style to suit the					
	requirements of the receiver					
c)	Efficiently practices two-way					
	communication					
d)	Takes ownership for efficient					
	communication to team members					
Overa	ll Mark					

Comments:			

## 5. Purpose Building

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Takes effective action to determine					
	the purpose of the team					
b)	Successfully influence others in					
	accepting the team purpose					
c)	Clearly explains the role of the team in					
	reaching company goals					
d)	Ensures that the company vision and					
	values are owned by the team					
Overa	ill Mark		•	•		

Comments:			

## 6. Motivational Capacity

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater
						Summary
a)	Promotes self confidence of team					
	members					
b)	Creates an environment where team					
	members are motivated to perform					
c)	Stimulates a desire within team					
	members to succeed					
d)	Utilises reward systems in motivating					
	team members					
Overa	II Mark					

Comments:		

## 7. Information Capacity

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Establishes systems for the gathering of important information					
b)	Gathers information on the current operations of the company					
c)	Gathers information about the future (e.g. changing technology, future competitions)					
d)	Provides people with relevant and updated information					
Overa	III Mark			•		

Comments:			

## 8. Conceptual Ability

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Demonstrates the capacity to see the					
	connections between different parts					
b)	Effectively integrates different kinds of					
	information					
c)	Forms integrated solutions that will					
	solve more than one existing problem					
d)	Understands how own tasks logically					
	impact on other disciplines and					
	functions					
Overa	II Mark					

Comments:		

## 9. Visionary Thinking

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Develops possible future scenarios					
b)	Facilitates regular analysis of alternative plans to meet objectives					
c)	Successfully anticipates potential problems					
d)	Creates opportunities for people to think form different perspectives					
Overa	ill Mark					

Comments:			

## 10. Business Acumen

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater
						Summary
a)	Fully understands the principles of the					
	business environment					
b)	Applies business principles in					
	performing duties					
c)	Keeps up to date with new					
	developments in the field of business					
Overal	l Mark					

Comments:			

## 11. Diversity Learning

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Successfully assists team members to					
	adapt to a multicultural organization					
b)	Treats others with respect and dignity					
c)	Demonstrates an understanding of the					
	ideas, views and feelings of others					
d)	Fully understands the impact of					
	diversity on business					
Overa	ill Mark	-			•	

Comments:			

## 12. Cross-functional Teamwork

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Facilitates inputs form different teams					
	to enhance customer service					
b)	Integrates initiatives across functional					
	teams					
c)	Facilitates the formation of a network					
	of cross-functional teams					
d)	Facilitates interaction between teams					
	for the formation of new ideas					
Overa	ll Mark					

Comments:		

## 13. People Development

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater
						Summary
a)	Provides opportunities for personal					
	development of employees					
b)	Implements appropriate employee					
	development actions					
c)	Effectively provides continuous on-					
	the-job coaching					
Overa	ill Mark	•	•	•	1	

Comments:			

## 14. Performance Achievement

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater
						Summary
a)	Is results and action orientated					
b)	Utilises the performance					
	management system to enhance the					
	performance of subordinates					
c)	Develops mechanisms for team					
	members to continuously measure					
	performance					
d)	Successfully links performance					
	objectives with the strategy of the					
	company					
Overa	II Mark					

Comments:		

### 15. Empowerment

No	Behaviour Indicators	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a)	Enables the team to schedule own work					
b)	Appropriately displays tolerance for mistakes					
c)	Encourages calculated risk taking					
d)	Removes performance barriers and constraints					
Overa	Overall Mark					

Comments:			

## **SUMMARY TABLE FOR ALL COMPETENCIES**

No	Competency	Self	Promoter	Peers	Subordinates	Rater Summary
a.	Integrity					
b.	Adaptability					
C.	Self-responsibility					
d.	Leadership communication					
e.	Purpose building					
f.	Motivational capacity					
g.	Information capacity					
h.	Conceptual ability					
i.	Visionary thinking					
j.	Business acumen					
k.	Diversity learning					
I.	Cross-functional teamwork					
m.	People development					
n.	Performance achievement					
0.	Empowering					
Overa	II Mark			1	<u> </u>	

## **Rater Summary**

The rater summary mark is calculated as follows:

Promoter 20% Promoter 50%
Peers (average) 20% or Peers (average) 50%
Subordinates (average) 60% (if no subordinates)

## **Rating Scale:**

1	Immediate development is essential	Development is needed. Doubt if the person is capable of meeting expectations
2	Development is needed	Development is needed. Dedication and effort are necessary if the person is to be successful
3	Adequate but could improve	The performance of the person is acceptable, but there is room for improvement
4	Fully meets expectations	Development is not essential, although ongoing development is desirable
5	Superior to others	Superior to others in meeting expectations. Widely recognised throughout the organization as superior to others



# APPENDIX C STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF ASSESSMENT RESULTS



## Appendix C – Statistical analysis of assessment results per competency

## SCALE 1 – INTEGRITY

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.87	3.92	3.93	4.04	4.08	3.98	3.98	3.98	3.98	4.10	4.078	4.11
		(0.53)	(0.45)	(0.44)	(0.59)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.36)	(0.36)	(0.34)	(0.43)	(0.45)	(0.42)
Female	13	3.97	4.11	3.83	3.94	3.96	3.90	3.81	3.90	3.87	3.96	3.96	3.94
		0.52	(0.38)	(0.34)	(0.48)	(0.68)	(0.60)	(0.25)	(0.46)	(0.24)	(0.53)	(0.50)	(0.59)
	•		Supervisor		Su	bordinate	, ,	, í	Peer	, ,		Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.7	3.91	3.94	4.01	4.06	3.88	3.88	3.93	3.91	4.15	4.07	4.15
		(0.58)	(0.51)	(0.43)	(0.60)	(0.58)	(0.68)	(0.36)	(0.36)	(0.29)	(0.44)	(0.38)	(0.36)
White	180	3.93	3.96	3.93	4.09	4.08	4.01	3.98	3.99	4.00	4.077	4.05	4.10
		(0.51)	(0.42)	(0.42)	(0.54)	(0.45)	(0.57)	(0.35)	(0.35)	(0.32)	(0.42)	(0.45)	(0.44)
Coloured	22	3.84	3.85	3.89	3.76	4.00	3.90	3.92	3.86	3.84	3.98	4.06	4.09
		(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.87)	(0.42)	(0.55)	(0.27)	(0.37)	(0.36)	(0.44)	(0.52)	(0.33)
Asian	15	3.8	3.82	3.83	3.9	4.10	3.97	4.07	3.98	3.90	4.27	4.30	4.15
		(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.37)	(0.43)	(0.54)	(0.40)	(0.37)	(0.49)	(0.44)	(0.51)	(0.50)	(0.56)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.90	3.97	3.92	3.95	4.10	4.01	3.97	3.97	3.93	4.20	4.10	4.09
		(0.49)	(0.41)	(0.422)	(0.54)	(0.52)	(0.59)	(0.38)	(0.38)	(0.31)	(0.47)	(0.48)	(0.45)
41-50	148	3.84	3.92	3.91	4.01	4.07	4.00	3.97	3.96	3.94	4.01	4.02	4.09
		(0.51)	(0.46)	(0.45)	(0.62)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.34)	(0.34)	(0.33)	(0.40)	(0.45)	(0.42)
51-60	52	3.93											
	~-	3.93	3.92	3.98	4.18	4.05	4.02	3.96	3.99	4.08	4.21	4.20	4.17
		(0.61)	3.92 (0.45)	3.98 (0.41)	4.18 (0.48)	4.05 (0.47)	4.02 (0.56)	3.96 (0.36)	3.99 (0.43)	4.08 (0.34)	4.21 (0.44)	4.20 (0.42)	4.17 (0.42)
					(0.48)		_					_	
Level	N	(0.61) <b>0</b>	(0.45)		(0.48)	(0.47)	_		(0.43)			(0.42)	(0.42) <b>2</b>
Level M2-3		(0.61)	(0.45) Supervisor	(0.41)	(0.48) <b>Su</b>	(0.47) bordinate	(0.56)	(0.36)	(0.43)	(0.34)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.42)
	N	(0.61) 0 3.93	(0.45) Supervisor	(0.41)	(0.48) Su	(0.47) bordinate	(0.56)	(0.36) <b>0</b>	(0.43) Peer 1	(0.34)	(0.44) <b>0</b>	(0.42) Self 1	(0.42) <b>2</b>
	N	(0.61) <b>0</b>	(0.45) Supervisor 1 4.10	(0.41) <b>2</b> 4.03	(0.48) Su 0 4.28	(0.47) bordinate 1 4.4	(0.56) <b>2</b> 4.35	(0.36) <b>0</b> 4.10	(0.43) Peer 1 4.20	(0.34) <b>2</b> 4.23	(0.44) 0 3.98	(0.42) Self 1 4.08	(0.42) <b>2</b> 4.15
M2-3	N 10	(0.61) 0 3.93 (0.53)	(0.45) Supervisor  1 4.10 (0.50)	(0.41) <b>2</b> 4.03 (0.46)	(0.48) Su 0 4.28 (0.51)	(0.47) bordinate 1 4.4 (0.46)	(0.56) <b>2</b> 4.35 (0.53)	(0.36) 0 4.10 (0.29)	(0.43) Peer 1 4.20 (0.26)	(0.34) <b>2</b> 4.23 (0.34)	(0.44) 0 3.98 (0.48)	(0.42) Self 1 4.08 (0.41)	(0.42) <b>2</b> 4.15 (0.52)
M2-3	N 10	(0.61) 0 3.93 (0.53) 3.97	(0.45) Supervisor  1 4.10 (0.50) 4.08	(0.41)  2  4.03 (0.46) 4.06	(0.48) Su 0 4.28 (0.51) 4.16	(0.47) bordinate 1 4.4 (0.46) 4.16	(0.56) <b>2</b> 4.35 (0.53) 4.06	(0.36) 0 4.10 (0.29) 3.99	(0.43) Peer 1 4.20 (0.26) 4.00	(0.34) 2 4.23 (0.34) 4.00	(0.44) 0 3.98 (0.48) 4.10	(0.42) Self 1 4.08 (0.41) 4.05	(0.42) 2 4.15 (0.52) 4.08
M2-3 M4	N 10 54	(0.61) 0 3.93 (0.53) 3.97 (0.40)	(0.45) Supervisor 1 4.10 (0.50) 4.08 (0.40)	(0.41)  2  4.03 (0.46) 4.06 (0.42)	(0.48)  0  4.28 (0.51) 4.16 (0.58)	(0.47) bordinate 1 4.4 (0.46) 4.16 (0.45)	(0.56)  2  4.35 (0.53)  4.06 (0.55)	(0.36) 0 4.10 (0.29) 3.99 (0.34)	(0.43) Peer 1 4.20 (0.26) 4.00 (0.32)	(0.34) 2 4.23 (0.34) 4.00 (0.32)	(0.44) 0 3.98 (0.48) 4.10 (0.44)	(0.42) Self 1 4.08 (0.41) 4.05 (0.40)	(0.42) 2 4.15 (0.52) 4.08 (0.39)
M2-3 M4	N 10 54	(0.61)  0  3.93 (0.53) 3.97 (0.40) 3.86	(0.45) Supervisor 1 4.10 (0.50) 4.08 (0.40) 3.87	(0.41)  2  4.03 (0.46)  4.06 (0.42) 3.89	(0.48)  0 4.28 (0.51) 4.16 (0.58) 3.99	(0.47) bordinate  1 4.4 (0.46) 4.16 (0.45) 4.00	(0.56)  2  4.35 (0.53) 4.06 (0.55) 3.97	(0.36) 0 4.10 (0.29) 3.99 (0.34) 3.94	(0.43) Peer 1 4.20 (0.26) 4.00 (0.32) 3.93	(0.34)  2  4.23 (0.34)  4.00 (0.32)  3.95	(0.44)  0 3.98 (0.48) 4.10 (0.44) 4.12	(0.42) Self 1 4.08 (0.41) 4.05 (0.40) 4.12	(0.42)  2  4.15 (0.52) 4.08 (0.39) 4.15



## **SCALE 2 – ADAPTABILITY**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.53	3.67	3.68	3.79	3.85	3.78	3.72	3.73	3.78	3.86	3.88	3.93
		(0.54)	(0.47)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.44)	(0.54)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.37)	(0.47)	(0.44)	(0.44)
Female	13	3.75	3.65	3.60	3.65	3.65	3.77	3.67	3.77	3.71	3.96	3.65	3.73
		0.50	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.55)	(0.57)	(0.67)	(0.37)	(0.46)	(0.32)	(0.36)	(0.46)	(0.47)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.43	3.66	3.61	3.75	3.81	3.70	3.65	3.66	3.79	3.87	3.91	3.99
		(0.58)	(0.54)	(0.48)	(0.57)	(0.59)	(0.65)	(0.44)	(0.39)	(0.35)	(0.55)	(0.45)	(0.40)
White	180	3.56	3.68	3.70	3.82	3.87	3.81	3.73	3.75	3.78	3.86	3.86	3.92
		(0.55)	(0.46)	(0.45)	(0.59)	(0.43)	(0.54)	(0.39)	(0.38)	(0.37)	(0.45)	(0.43)	(0.46)
Coloured	22	3.61	3.68	3.62	3.65	3.75	3.65	3.66	3.78	3.73	3.77	3.80	3.83
		(0.38)	(0.36)	(0.48)	(0.54)	(0.39)	(0.49)	(0.35)	(0.31)	(0.33)	(0.39)	(0.46)	(0.40)
Asian	15	3.58	3.65	3.63	3.55	3.78	3.75	3.77	3.68	3.77	3.85	3.97	3.98
		(0.51)	(0.63)	(0.48)	(0.46)	(0.34)	(0.39)	(0.31)	(0.60)	(0.41)	(0.57)	(0.63)	(0.39)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.61	3.74	3.75	3.70	3.81	3.80	3.75	3.79	3.75	3.95	3.900	3.95
		(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.42)	(0.57)	(0.50)	(0.56)	(0.39)	(0.39)	(0.38)	(0.49)	(0.50)	(0.40)
41-50	148	3.55	3.66	3.64	3.78	3.85	3.78	3.71	3.73	3.78	3.78	3.80	3.089
		(0.52)	(0.46)	(0.46)	(0.60)	(0.44)	(0.58)	(0.39)	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.44)	(0.45)	(0.45)
51-60	52	3.47	3.65	3.69	3.88	3.85	3.75	3.69	3.70	3.82	3.96	4.01	4.00
		(0.64)	(0.50)	(0.48)	(0.51)	(0.44)	(0.43)	(0.42)	(0.45)	(0.36)	(0.51)	(0.35)	(0.45)
			Supervisor			bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.60	3.95	3.76	4.05	4.18	4.08	3.85	3.90	3.80	3.75	3.88	3.88
		(0.73)	(0.54)	(0.48)	(0.37)	(0.24)	(0.46)	(0.17)	(0.39)	(0.50)	(0.59)	(0.58)	(0.65)
M4	54	3.68	3.78	3.78	3.87	3.85	3.87	3.74	3.80	3.81	3.88	3.88	3.93
		(0.52)	(0.45)	(0.42)	(0.53)	(0.38)	(0.48)	(0.40)	(0.29)	(0.32)	(0.44)	(0.34)	(0.42)
M5-6	149	3.49	3.62	3.63	3.74	3.81	3.76	3.71	3.69	3.78	3.87	3.91	3.97
		(0.54)	(0.45)	(0.46)	(0.61)	(0.47)	(0.55)	(0.39)	(0.43)	(0.35)	(0.48)	(0.49)	(0.44)
S4-6	45	3.58	3.67	3.68	3.72	3.88	3.67	3.69	3.78	3.74	3.81	3.72	3.78
		(0.54)	(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.54)	(0.47)	(0.58)	(0.43)	(0.36)	(0.44)	(0.46)	(0.39)	(0.38)



## **SCALE 3 – SELF-RESPONSIBILITY**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.75	3.83	3.76	3.94	4.01	3.87	3.93	3.90	3.92	3.99	3.96	4.04
		(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.47)	(0.55)	(0.44)	(0.53)	(0.36)	(0.37)	(0.30)	(0.45)	(0.46)	(0.43)
Female	13	3.88	3.88	3.71	3.83	3.81	3.87	3.81	3.79	3.87	3.71	3.88	3.81
		(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.42)	(0.45)	(0.72)	(0.63)	(0.33)	(0.32)	(0.35)	(0.51)	(0.46)	(0.67)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.64	3.85	3.81	3.84	3.97	3.67	3.86	3.85	3.88	3.92	3.91	4.04
		(0.52)	(0.56)	(0.48)	(0.57)	(0.54)	(0.65)	(0.38)	(0.33)	(0.27)	(0.54)	(0.46)	(0.53)
White	180	3.79	3.83	3.80	3.99	4.02	3.94	3.94	3.82	3.94	3.97	3.96	4.03
		(0.52)	(0.45)	(0.45)	(0.53)	(0.46)	(0.51)	(0.37)	(0.36)	(0.30)	(0.44)	(0.46)	(0.43)
Coloured	22	3.80	3.84	3.64	3.75	3.97	3.74	3.85	3.83	3.78	4.02	3.94	4.01
		(0.49)	(0.40)	(0.54)	(0.66)	(0.40)	(0.57)	(0.24)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.39)	(0.43)	(0.45)
Asian	15	3.67	3.77	3.53	3.73	3.92	3.70	3.98	3.82	3.88	4.02	4.12	4.00
		(0.49)	(0.54)	(0.48)	(0.44)	(0.40)	(0.33)	(0.27)	(0.51)	(0.35)	(0.50)	(0.51)	(0.48)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.80	3.93	3.78	3.85	4.03	3.89	3.88	3.91	3.90	4.08	3.99	4.06
		(0.50)	(0.52)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.49)	(0.54)	(0.39)	(0.31)	(0.35)	(0.49)	(0.54)	(0.46)
41-50	148	3.74	3.80	3.74	3.94	4.00	3.85	3.93	3.88	3.90	3.90	3.90	4.00
		(0.50)	(0.46)	(0.48)	(0.55)	(0.46)	(0.56)	(0.33)	(0.37)	(0.30)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.44)
51-60	52	3.78	3.80	3.86	4.01	3.97	3.88	3.97	3.92	3.97	4.07	4.10	4.08
		(0.59)	(0.44)	(0.45)	(0.49)	(0.44)	(0.48)	(0.39)	(0.40)	(0.27)	(0.43)	(0.44)	(0.44)
			Supervisor			bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.78	4.03	3.83	4.08	4.13	4.18	4.05	4.13	4.10	3.88	3.88	4.00
		(0.52)	(0.64)	(0.57)	(0.39)	(0.40)	(0.26)	(0.23)	(0.36)	(0.32)	(0.43)	(0.52)	(0.49)
M4	54	3.86	3.93	3.94	4.01	4.02	3.93	3.97	3.92	3.96	3.99	3.97	3.96
		(0.47)	(0.43)	(0.36)	(0.46)	(0.45)	(0.51)	(0.35)	(0.310)	(0.26)	(0.46)	(0.38)	(0.44)
M5-6	149	3.95	3.84	3.90	3.85	3.88	3.99	3.98	4.09	3.88	3.99	3.98	4.09
		(0.47)	(0.56)	(0.33)	(0.37)	(0.30)	(0.46)	(0.48)	(0.45)	(0.30)	(0.46)	(0.48)	(0.45)
S4-6	45	3.75	3.83	3.78	3.93	4.09	3.81	3.94	3.95	3.93	3.91	3.89	3.91
		(0.46)	(0.49)	(0.43)	(0.47)	(0.46)	(0.52)	(0.45)	(0.38)	(0.34)	(0.43)	(0.48)	(0.41)



## **SCALE 4 – LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.55	3.72	3.71	3.76	3.84	3.72	3.76	3.83	3.81	3.88	3.89	3.92
		(0.52)	(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.61)	(0.49)	(0.57)	(0.40)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.50)	(0.45)	(0.47)
Female	13	3.87	3.81	3.75	3.69	3.63	3.65	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.81	3.79	3.77
		(0.72)	(0.52)	(0.46)	(0.72)	(0.76)	(0.75)	(0.27)	(0.43)	(0.31)	(0.58)	(0.52)	(0.53)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.43	3.66	3.68	3.63	3.74	3.66	3.70	3.77	3.74	3.93	3.96	4.01
		(0.54)	(0.55)	(0.41)	(0.63)	(0.64)	(0.67)	(0.46)	(0.39)	(0.36)	(0.54)	(0.40)	(0.48)
White	180	3.59	3.73	3.74	3.80	3.86	3.74	3.78	3.84	3.83	3.85	3.87	3.88
		(0.53)	(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.62)	(0.49)	(0.56)	(0.39)	(0.38)	(0.33)	(0.50)	(0.46)	(0.47)
Coloured	22	3.58	3.80	3.60	3.69	3.80	3.61	3.77	3.81	3.78	3.81	3.78	3.91
		(0.53)	(0.50)	(0.53)	(0.60)	(0.41)	(0.62)	(0.37)	(0.30)	(0.35)	(0.38)	(0.45)	(0.35)
Asian	15	3.58	3.67	3.65	3.65	3.78	3.70	3.80	3.80	3.73	4.05	4.03	4.02
		(0.51)	(0.51)	(0.46)	(0.52)	(0.40)	(0.49)	(0.42)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.58)	(0.61)	(0.64)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.62	3.79	3.72	3.655	3.88	3.75	3.77	3.84	3.78	4.00	3.94	3.96
		(0.52)	(0.57)	(0.41)	(0.63)	(0.52)	(0.61)	(0.41)	(0.38)	(0.33)	(0.47)	(0.48)	(0.49)
41-50	148	3.54	3.71	3.69	3.78	3.82	3.72	3.77	3.81	3.78	3.80	3.82	3.89
		(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.48)	(0.64)	(0.51)	(0.59)	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.35)	(0.49)	(0.45)	(0.49)
51-60	52	3.55	3.68	3.77	3.81	3.81	3.68	3.75	3.85	3.90	3.94	4.01	3.94
		(0.61)	(0.51)	(0.50)	(0.54)	(0.48)	(0.50)	(0.46)	(0.40)	(0.31)	(0.53)	(0.42)	(0.41)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.70	3.95	3.83	3.88	4.03	.938	3.85	4.05	3.95	3.78	3.83	3.95
		(0.54)	(0.44)	(0.64)	(0.40)	(0.32)	(0.43)	(0.32)	(0.26)	(0.35)	(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.57)
M4	54	3.61	3.88	3.83	3.81	3.85	3.72	3.80	3.82	3.87	3.87	3.89	3.89
		(0.45)	(0.44)	(0.30)	(0.64)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.42)	(0.32)	(0.32)	(0.48)	(0.35)	(0.39)
M5-6	149	3.54	3.66	3.68	3.75	3.77	3.72	3.76	3.79	3.79	3.91	3.94	3.98
		(0.55)	(0.48)	(0.47)	(0.64)	(0.51)	(0.58)	(0.39)	(0.40)	(0.32)	(0.51)	(0.48)	(0.49)
S4-6	45	3.56	3.69	3.65	3.68	3.96	3.67	3.73	3.88	3.73	3.77	3.74	3.71
		(0.58)	(0.66)	(0.55)	(0.56)	(0.56)	(0.59)	(0.43)	(0.36)	(0.40)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.45)



## **SCALE 5 – PURPOSE BUILDING**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.61	3.73	3.75	3.85	3.88	3.76	3.79	3.82	3.83	3.89	3.85	3.91
		(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.43)	(0.59)	(0.46)	(0.55)	(0.38)	(0.36)	(0.33)	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.50)
Female	13	3.79	3.83	3.73	3.81	3.69	3.71	3.77	3.67	3.71	3.71	3.71	3.71
		(0.42)	(0.40)	(0.37)	(0.55)	(0.52)	(0.61)	(0.24)	(0.43)	(0.32)	(0.62)	(0.56)	(0.51)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.56	3.78	3.74	3.86	3.90	3.69	3.75	3.79	3.81	3.95	3.93	3.994
		(0.52)	(0.53)	(0.42)	(0.59)	(0.54)	(0.68)	(0.39)	(0.37)	(0.30)	(0.53)	(0.46)	(0.42)
White	180	3.64	3.73	3.76	3.88	3.88	3.79	3.80	3.83	3.84	3.87	3.82	3.88
		(0.51)	(0.45)	(0.43)	(0.58)	(0.46)	(0.52)	(0.38)	(0.35)	(0.33)	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.49)
Coloured	22	3.59	3.68	3.69	3.78	3.85	3.64	3.72	3.72	3.75	3.81	3.78	3.75
		(0.46)	(0.47)	(0.47)	(0.69)	(0.44)	(0.55)	(0.36)	(0.36)	(0.38)	(0.40)	(0.45)	(0.53)
Asian	15	3.60	3.64	3.70	3.61	3.77	3.63	3.83	3.80	3.73	4.02	3.97	4.03
		(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.41)	(0.45)	(0.37)	(0.46)	(0.28)	(0.46)	(0.39)	(0.62)	(0.65)	(0.66)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.65	3.83	3.75	3.80	3.84	3.79	3.82	3.86	3.80	3.92	3.81	3.89
		(0.50)	(0.45)	(0.39)	(0.58)	(0.53)	(0.59)	(0.38)	(0.33)	(0.27)	(0.50)	(0.51)	(0.45)
41-50	148	3.60	3.69	3.72	3.86	3.88	3.74	3.76	3.79	3.80	3.85	3.81	3.86
		(0.50)	(0.48)	(0.44)	(0.62)	(0.44)	(0.55)	(0.39)	(0.36)	(0.35)	(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.53)
51-60	52	3.63	3.73	3.81	3.89	3.92	3.77	3.83	3.82	3.90	3.93	3.98	3.99
		(0.55)	(0.45)	(0.44)	(0.48)	(0.46)	(0.49)	(0.33)	(0.40)	(0.32)	(0.54)	(0.43)	(0.46)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.80	3.95	3.88	4.03	4.08	3.95	3.95	4.10	3.95	3.86	3.83	3.93
		(0.40)	(0.50)	(0.46)	(0.40)	(0.29)	(0.37)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.11)	(0.53)	(0.57)	(0.68)
M4	54	3.75	3.88	3.84	3.98	3.93	3.89	3.84	3.87	3.86	3.90	3.90	3.96
		(0.42)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.52)	(0.39)	(0.49)	(0.35)	(0.34)	(0.31)	(0.50)	(0.38)	(0.41)
M5-6	149	3.56	3.65	3.71	3.81	3.82	3.73	3.78	3.77	3.80	3.90	3.85	3.92
		(0.54)	(0.47)	(0.45)	(0.63)	(0.46)	(0.51)	(0.36)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.51)	(0.54)	(0.52)
S4-6	45	3.61	3.79	3.70	3.80	3.94	3.61	3.71	3.85	3.80	3.80	3.73	3.71
		(0.49)	(0.51)	(0.40)	(0.53)	(0.57)	(0.56)	(0.47)	(0.34)	(0.38)	(0.52)	(0.45)	(0.48)



## **SCALE 6 – MOTIVATIONAL CAPACITY**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.60	3.72	3.65	3.61	3.62	3.48	3.71	3.73	3.74	3.81	3.79	3.83
		(0.55)	(0.51)	(0.48)	(0.66)	(0.54)	(0.66)	(0.41)	(0.41)	(0.38)	(0.47)	(0.51)	(0.48)
Female	13	3.77	3.83	3.56	3.50	3.33	3.46	3.60	3.73	3.58	3.63	3.54	3.50
		(0.53)	(0.47)	(0.48)	(0.65)	(0.50)	(0.69)	(0.30)	(0.45)	(0.37)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.67)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	39	3.49	3.72	3.62	3.58	3.58	3.36	3.64	3.67	3.67	3.88	3.87	3.88
		(0.61)	(0.57)	(0.39)	(0.70)	(0.59)	(0.71)	(0.40)	(0.37)	(0.38)	(0.55)	(0.53)	(0.47)
White	177	3.63	3.74	3.67	3.65	3.61	3.54	3.72	3.74	3.75	3.79	3.76	3.80
		(0.53)	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.64)	(0.55)	(0.65)	(0.41)	(0.41)	(0.37)	(0.47)	(0.52)	(0.52)
Coloured	22	3.73	3.73	3.59	3.42	3.55	3.39	3.65	3.70	3.77	3.73	3.68	3.81
		(0.51)	(0.48)	(0.48)	(0.75)	(0.44)	(0.64)	(0.40)	(0.34)	(0.37)	(0.41)	(0.43)	(0.34)
Asian	15	3.53	3.62	3.45	3.33	3.65	3.25	3.78	3.70	3.67	3.80	3.88	3.82
		(0.63)	(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.54)	(0.44)	(0.64)	(0.36)	(0.59)	(0.51)	(0.46)	(0.57)	(0.50)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	57	3.67	3.77	3.64	3.51	3.56	3.44	3.72	3.77	3.66	3.88	3.80	3.85
		(0.50)	(0.52)	(0.41)	(0.65)	(0.59)	(0.67)	(0.40)	(0.38)	(0.36)	(0.46)	(0.55)	(0.51)
41-50	147	3.60	3.71	3.62	3.58	3.61	3.47	3.69	3.70	3.72	3.74	3.71	3.78
		(0.54)	(0.51)	(0.50)	(0.69)	(0.54)	(0.69)	(0.42)	(0.41)	(0.40)	(0.47)	(0.50)	(0.51)
51-60	49	3.57	3.72	3.71	3.77	3.63	3.55	3.73	3.74	3.87	3.87	3.94	3.87
		(0.62)	(0.47)	(0.46)	(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.55)	(0.37)	(0.44)	(0.30)	(0.48)	(0.50)	(0.45)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.73	4.05	3.78	3.83	3.95	3.85	3.83	3.98	3.88	3.75	3.60	3.88
		(0.51)	(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.51)	(0.28)	(0.32)	(0.21)	(0.25)	(0.18)	(0.50)	(0.59	(0.71)
M4	54	3.73	3.92	3.77	3.68	3.64	3.64	3.74	3.77	3.81	3.78	3.81	3.83
		(0.45)	(0.44)	(0.44)	(0.59)	(0.51)	(0.59)	(0.38)	(0.35)	(0.41)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.47)
M5-6	147	3.56	3.66	3.62	3.55	3.56	3.45	3.70	3.68	3.71	3.81	3.80	3.86
		(0.59)	(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.68)	(0.54)	(0.69)	(0.41)	(0.43)	(0.37)	(0.48)	(0.55)	(0.49)
S4-6	42	3.61	3.65	3.53	3.63	3.63	3.30	3.65	3.76	3.71	3.77	3.70	3.63
		(0.50)	(0.53)	(0.52)	(0.70)	(0.61)	(0.64)	(0.46)	(0.39)	(0.40)	(0.55)	(0.53)	(0.48)



## **SCALE 7 – INFORMATION CAPACITY**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.56	3.64	3.64	3.82	3.89	3.87	3.79	3.79	3.82	3.76	3.77	3.81
		(0.56)	(0.53)	(0.49)	(0.60)	(0.49)	(0.54)	(0.41)	(0.41)	(0.36)	(0.53)	(0.49)	(0.49)
Female	13	3.62	3.74	3.31	3.81	3.81	3.65	3.69	3.71	3.69	3.62	3.69	3.54
		(0.40)	(0.53)	(0.50)	(0.48)	(0.57)	(0.72)	(0.29)	(0.39)	(0.34)	(0.39)	(0.43)	(0.48)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.42	3.57	3.60	3.74	3.84	3.72	3.66	3.68	3.75	3.73	3.79	3.84
		(0.52)	(0.57)	(0.46)	(0.62)	(0.60)	(0.70)	(0.41)	(0.46)	(0.46)	(0.55)	(0.46)	(0.48)
White	180	3.62	3.69	3.64	3.88	3.93	3.88	3.84	3.83	3.84	3.77	3.76	3.79
		(0.53)	(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.58)	(0.47)	(0.52)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.33)	(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.49)
Coloured	22	3.43	3.44	3.47	3.61	3.67	3.66	3.61	3.65	3.70	3.65	3.63	3.61
		(0.54)	(0.49)	(0.54)	(0.71)	(0.48)	(0.51)	(0.38)	(0.34)	(0.34)	(0.60)	(0.51)	(0.43)
Asian	15	3.47	3.60	3.65	3.63	3.82	3.73	3.78	3.78	3.82	3.78	3.90	3.92
		(0.77)	(0.72)	(0.60)	(0.45)	(0.35)	(0.45)	(0.34)	(0.54)	(0.38)	(0.49)	(0.65)	(0.51)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.68	3.81	3.68	3.70	3.943	3.91	3.81	3.84	3.83	3.92	3.78	3.846
		(0.48)	(0.44)	(0.51)	(0.65)	(0.54)	(0.58)	(0.40)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.51)	(0.51)	(0.51)
41-50	148	3.51	3.58	3.60	3.85	3.87	3.82	3.74	3.76	3.82	3.66	3.71	3.75
		(0.55)	(0.55)	(0.50)	(0.59)	(0.48)	(0.55)	(0.39)	(0.42)	(0.37)	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.50)
51-60	52	3.60	3.63	3.62	3.87	3.86	3.76	3.89	3.79	3.80	3.82	3.89	3.86
		(0.59)	(0.54)	(0.47)	(0.53)	(0.47)	(0.51)	(0.43)	(0.41)	(0.37)	(0.56)	(0.46)	(0.43)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.73	4.00	3.73	4.13	4.03	4.13	3.90	3.95	4.03	3.93	3.85	3.98
		(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.46)	(0.48)	(0.34)	(0.48)	(0.17)	(0.28)	(0.22)	(0.46)	(0.34)	(0.59)
M4	54	3.71	3.79	3.81	4.88	3.95	3.85	3.81	3.84	3.82	3.81	3.79	3.78
		(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.51)	(0.38)	(0.35)	(0.37)	(0.51)	(0.38)	(0.47)
M5-6	149	3.49	3.54	3.53	3.79	3.82	3.81	3.77	3.73	3.80	3.75	3.78	3.82
		(0.55)	(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.62)	(0.48)	(0.58)	(0.41)	(0.42)	(0.33)	(0.54)	(0.54)	(0.48)
S4-6	45	3.58	3.71	3.66	3.81	3.98	3.81	3.79	3.86	3.81	3.66	3.66	3.69
		(0.56)	(0.59)	(0.55)	(0.56)	(0.52)	(0.51)	(0.43)	(0.42)	(0.44)	(0.49)	(0.48)	(0.49)



## **SCALE 8 – CONCEPTUAL ABILITY**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.63	3.73	3.74	3.86	3.92	3.82	3.81	3.82	3.85	3.89	3.87	3.94
		(0.55)	(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.57)	(0.48)	(0.54)	(0.40)	(0.38)	(0.34)	(0.48)	(0.45)	(0.42)
Female	13	3.79	3.79	3.65	3.79	3.71	3.71	3.81	3.67	3.71	3.77	3.83	3.83
		(0.41)	(0.45)	(0.45)	(0.60)	(0.59)	(0.58)	(0.34)	(0.47)	(0.34)	(0.36)	(0.36)	(0.47)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.43	3.62	3.64	3.74	3.88	3.65	3.68	3.76	3.76	3.86	3.87	3.96
		(0.61)	(0.53)	(0.47)	(0.63)	(0.59)	(0.61)	(0.47)	(0.43)	(0.36)	(0.50)	(0.45)	(0.39)
White	180	3.72	3.80	3.79	3.94	3.96	3.91	3.86	3.86	3.88	3.91	3.89	3.96
		(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.55)	(0.46)	(0.52)	(0.37)	(0.36)	(0.32)	(0.47)	(0.42)	(0.43)
Coloured	22	3.43	3.45	3.52	3.58	3.74	3.57	3.63	3.68	3.73	3.66	3.74	3.74
		(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.53)	(0.68)	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.39)	(0.35)	(0.38)	(0.40)	(0.48)	(0.28)
Asian	15	3.55	3.67	3.68	3.63	3.68	3.55	3.82	3.70	3.87	3.88	3.87	3.80
		(0.64)	(0.57)	(0.62)	(0.33)	(0.44)	(0.40)	(0.26)	(0.61)	(0.39)	(0.51)	(0.63)	(0.47)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.71	3.79	3.81	3.76	3.91	3.84	3.78	3.86	3.84	3.98	3.93	4.01
		(0.47)	(0.47)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.53)	(0.55)	(0.46)	(0.35)	(0.31)	(0.44)	(0.44)	(0.37)
41-50	148	3.62	3.70	3.70	3.86	3.92	3.81	3.82	3.80	3.85	3.79	3.80	3.89
		(0.56)	(0.51)	(0.51)	(0.60)	(0.47)	(0.52)	(0.36)	(0.41)	(0.35)	(0.46)	(0.46)	(0.43)
51-60	52	3.63	3.75	3.76	3.96	3.91	3.80	3.82	3.80	3.86	4.01	4.00	3.97
		(0.58)	(0.54)	(0.46)	(0.48)	(0.51)	(0.46)	(0.41)	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.52)	(0.40)	(0.44)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.73	4.18	3.78	4.13	4.30	4.15	3.95	4.18	4.00	3.78	3.88	3.98
		(0.68)	(0.47)	(0.40)	(0.48)	(0.35)	(0.52)	(0.26)	(0.39)	(0.24)	(0.46)	(0.36)	(0.65)
M4	54	3.69	3.83	3.87	3.93	4.04	3.94	3.86	3.85	3.88	3.95	3.89	3.94
		(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.45)	(0.52)	(0.45)	(0.45)	(0.42)	(0.33)	(0.28)	(0.45	(0.35)	(0.41)
M5-6	149	3.59	3.63	3.66	3.82	3.81	3.77	3.76	3.76	3.82	3.85	3.87	3.95
		(0.53)	(0.47)	(0.48)	(0.60)	(0.47)	(0.56)	(0.37)	(0.40)	(0.34)	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.41)
S4-6	45	3.72	3.85	3.83	3.86	4.01	3.77	3.87	3.88	3.86	3.92	3.85	3.87
		(0.59)	(0.58)	(0.54)	(0.55)	(0.55)	(0.54)	(0.45)	(0.37)	(0.42)	(0.46)	(0.43)	(0.42)



## **SCALE 9 – VISIONARY THINKING**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	244	3.45	3.62	3.60	3.77	3.80	3.72	3.72	3.75	3.76	3.79	3.80	3.86
		(0.55)	(0.51)	(0.52)	(0.58)	(0.50)	(0.57)	(0.43)	(0.41)	(0.37)	(0.52)	(0.47)	(0.47)
Female	13	3.67	3.50	3.42	3.54	3.65	3.71	3.65	3.63	3.58	3.60	3.63	3.62
		0.34	(0.60)	(0.52)	(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.67)	(0.30)	(0.45)	(0.36)	(0.42)	(0.49)	(0.54)
	•		Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.29	3.55	3.51	3.64	3.75	3.57	3.60	3.63	3.68	3.725	3.84	3.87
		(0.65)	(0.60)	(0.52)	(0.63)	(0.59)	(0.64)	(0.45)	(0.44)	(0.39)	(0.57)	(0.48)	(0.41)
White	179	3.52	3.66	3.63	3.84	3.83	3.81	3.77	3.78	3.79	3.82	3.80	3.87
		(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.50)	(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.56)	(0.41)	(0.39)	(0.35)	(0.49)	(0.43)	(0.48)
Coloured	22	3.32	3.41	3.49	3.39	3.64	3.49	3.52	3.63	3.64	3.63	3.59	3.59
		(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.57)	(0.65)	(0.44)	(0.55)	(0.45)	(0.38)	(0.41)	(0.56)	(0.55)	(0.47)
Asian	15	3.35	3.55	3.47	3.53	3.78	3.47	3.67	3.73	3.70	3.75	3.88	3.87
		(0.59)	(0.68)	(0.65)	(0.36)	(0.42)	(0.40)	(0.31)	(0.49)	(0.38)	(0.59)	(0.67)	(0.53)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.51	3.78	3.67	3.63	3.72	3.79	3.69	3.84	3.74	3.88	3.85	3.92
		(0.47)	(0.45)	(0.48)	(0.56)	(0.58)	(0.62)	(0.45)	(0.38)	(0.35)	(0.51)	(0.52)	(0.46)
41-50	147	3.43	3.55	3.58	3.78	3.82	3.70	3.71	3.70	3.75	3.69	3.72	3.80
		(0.55)	(0.53)	(0.52)	(0.62)	(0.47)	(0.58)	(0.42)	(0.42)	(0.37)	(0.49)	(0.46)	(0.48)
51-60	52	3.47	3.62	3.52	3.82	3.82	3.72	3.75	3.74	3.78	3.93	3.93	3.88
		(0.60)	(0.50)	(0.53)	(0.46)	(0.50)	(0.52)	(0.41)	(0.41)	(0.40)	(0.53)	(0.40)	(0.45)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.60	4.05	3.58	3.93	3.98	4.03	3.88	3.98	3.833	3.80	3.83	3.88
		(0.76)	(0.40)	(0.53)	(0.39)	(0.32)	(0.43)	(0.21)	(0.40)	(0.29)	(0.56)	(0.51)	(0.72)
M4	54	3.54	3.70	3.75	3.84	3.90	3.84	3.78	3.77	3.82	3.83	3.81	3.88
		(0.49)	(0.46)	(0.45)	(0.54)	(0.41)	(0.48)	(0.44)	(0.35)	(0.32)	(0.49)	(0.37)	(0.44)
M5-6	149	3.40	3.52	3.51	3.70	3.71	3.67	3.68	3.69	3.72	3.76	3.79	3.83
		(0.53)	(0.51)	(0.50)	(0.61)	(0.51)	(0.60)	(0.40)	(0.42)	(0.37)	(0.54)	(0.52)	(0.49)
S4-6	45	3.51	3.73	3.67	3.79	3.91	3.70	3.69	3.82	3.78	3.81	3.76	3.84
		(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.60)	(0.54)	(0.53)	(0.60)	(0.50)	(0.40)	(0.41)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.40)



## **SCALE 10 – BUSINESS ACUMEN**

			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.54	3.68	3.64	4.00	4.04	3.99	3.89	3.88	3.88	3.82	3.83	3.89
		(0.59)	(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.58)	(0.44)	(0.53)	(0.40)	(0.42)	(0.37)	(0.55)	(0.51)	(0.51)
Female	13	3.62	3.55	3.33	3.92	3.97	3.82	3.61	3.74	3.77	3.82	3.72	3.64
		0.43	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.62)	(0.62)	(0.43)	(0.28)	(0.44)	(0.54)	(0.45)	(0.55)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.41	3.67	3.67	3.99	4.04	3.85	3.81	3.73	3.85	3.89	3.92	4.02
		(0.57)	(0.59)	(0.54)	(0.58)	(0.51)	(0.64)	(0.42)	(0.47)	(0.37)	(0.56)	(0.48)	(0.48)
White	180	3.60	3.70	3.62	4.03	4.06	4.04	3.91	3.92	3.85	3.89	3.92	4.02
		(0.57)	(0.55)	(0.52)	(0.56)	(0.44)	(0.50)	(0.40)	(0.38)	(0.37)	(0.56)	(0.48)	(0.48)
Coloured	22	3.38	3.56	3.64	3.80	3.88	3.82	3.67	3.82	3.76	3.61	3.67	3.83
		(0.61)	(0.54)	(0.55)	(0.75)	(0.53)	(0.60)	(0.41)	(0.43)	(0.37)	(0.50)	(0.56)	(0.46)
Asian	15	3.49	3.60	3.58	3.93	4.02	3.96	3.91	3.84	3.84	3.98	3.93	3.96
		(0.67)	(0.58)	(0.53)	(0.46)	(0.29)	(0.42)	(0.34)	(0.58)	(0.35)	(0.60)	(0.68)	(0.55)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.90	3.86	3.75	3.90	4.08	4.04	3.85	3.93	3.89	4.01	3.87	3.93
		(0.49)	(0.51)	(0.50)	(0.56)	(0.47)	(0.52)	(0.43)	(0.35)	(0.41)	(0.49)	(0.56)	(0.54)
41-50	148	3.84	3.63	3.61	4.04	4.05	3.97	3.88	3.85	3.88	3.69	3.77	3.84
		(0.51)	(0.56)	(0.53)	(0.58)	(0.44)	(0.55)	(0.40)	(0.44)	(0.35)	(0.53)	(0.48)	(0.51)
51-60	52	3.93	3.62	3.54	4.00	3.99	3.96	3.88	3.87	3.85	3.96	3.94	3.92
		(0.61)	(0.59)	(0.53)	(0.57)	(0.47)	(0.50)	(0.40)	(0.40)	(0.40)	(0.58)	(0.52)	(0.51)
			Supervisor		Su	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.77	4.17	3.90	4.27	4.13	4.20	4.00	4.13	4.17	3.97	4.03	4.03
		(0.55)	(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.34)	(0.39)	(0.55)	(0.16)	(0.32)	(0.24)	(0.43)	(0.33)	(0.55)
M4	54	3.71	3.76	3.77	4.10	4.16	4.12	3.91	3.88	3.87	3.91	3.81	3.89
		(0.61)	(0.60)	(0.52)	(0.56)	(0.45)	(0.49)	(0.41)	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.53)	(0.44)	(0.48)
M5-6	149	3.46	3.58	3.56	3.97	4.00	3.94	3.85	3.84	3.87	3.80	3.84	3.90
		(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.59)	(0.45)	(0.55)	(0.39)	(0.42)	(0.34)	(0.56)	(0.55)	(0.54)
S4-6	45	3.58	3.78	3.62	3.92	4.01	3.93	3.89	3.93	3.84	3.75	3.79	3.76
		(0.56)	(0.58)	(0.57)	(0.59)	(0.46)	(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.45)	(0.50)	(0.56)	(0.48)	(0.47)



## **SCALE 11 – DIVERSITY LEARNING**

			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.60	3.76	3.72	3.90	3.93	3.82	3.82	3.81	3.87	3.94	3.95	4.01
		(0.52)	(0.45)	(0.42)	(0.62)	(0.44)	(0.56)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.35)	(0.47)	(0.44)	(0.45)
Female	13	3.77	3.90	3.86	3.83	3.69	3.79	3.83	3.81	3.69	3.77	3.87	3.85
		0.53	(0.47)	(0.49)	(0.59)	(0.66)	(0.67)	(0.36)	(0.43)	(0.36)	(0.53)	(0.53)	(0.52)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.58	3.74	3.81	3.84	3.93	3.75	3.828	3.77	3.89	3.95	4.02	4.12
		(0.49)	(0.50)	(0.45)	(0.59)	(0.51)	(0.65)	(0.44)	(0.38)	(0.32)	(0.55)	(0.41)	(0.51)
White	180	3.60	3.75	3.72	3.92	3.92	3.86	3.81	3.82	3.86	3.92	3.91	3.97
		(0.51)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.63)	(0.45)	(0.55)	(0.39)	(0.39)	(0.36)	(0.45)	(0.44)	(0.44)
Coloured	22	3.75	3.90	3.66	3.84	3.90	3.76	3.82	3.83	3.81	3.95	3.98	4.02
		(0.51)	(0.43)	(0.49)	(0.62)	(0.43)	(0.60)	(0.36)	(0.37)	(0.35)	(0.41)	(0.45)	(0.35)
Asian	15	3.62	3.75	3.68	3.95	3.96	3.68	3.93	3.80	3.87	4.02	4.17	4.08
		(0.65)	(0.49)	(0.37)	(0.42)	(0.46)	(0.36)	(0.41)	(0.47)	(0.40)	(0.55)	(0.45)	(0.49)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.61	3.82	3.75	3.78	3.92	3.83	3.81	3.83	3.79	3.95	3.92	4.03
		(0.53)	(0.49)	(0.44)	(0.64)	(0.47)	(0.57)	(0.45)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.41)
41-50	148	3.63	3.74	3.74	4.02	3.93	3.82	3.83	3.80	3.86	3.89	3.91	3.97
		(0.56)	(0.45)	(0.45)	(0.49)	(0.46)	(0.58)	(0.37)	(0.39)	(0.34)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.46)
51-60	52	3.63	3.74	3.74	4.02	3.91	3.81	3.79	3.83	3.96	4.06	4.10	4.06
		(0.56)	(0.45)	(0.45)	(0.49)	(0.44)	(0.79)	(0.39)	(0.41)	(0.32)	(0.50)	(0.44)	(0.47)
			Supervisor		Sul	bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.70	3.95	3.83	4.00	4.08	4.10	3.85	4.00	4.03	3.73	3.83	3.93
		(0.50)	(0.62)	(0.49)	(0.29)	(0.35)	(0.38)	(0.38)	(0.39)	(0.38)	(0.64)	(0.53)	(0.75)
M4	54	3.65	3.85	3.79	3.97	3.96	3.88	3.88	3.85	3.93	3.96	3.93	3.99
		(0.45)	(0.37)	(0.41)	(0.54)	(0.43)	(0.55)	(0.34)	(0.32)	(0.31)	(0.44)	(0.36)	(0.43)
M5-6	149	3.59	3.71	3.70	3.85	3.87	3.80	3.78	3.75	3.83	3.96	3.99	4.05
		(0.53)	(0.42)	(0.42)	(0.67)	(0.47)	(0.58)	(0.40)	(0.41)	(0.35)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.45)
S4-6	45	3.62	3.78	3.73	3.96	4.03	3.76	3.85	3.93	3.84	3.88	3.86	3.87
		(0.55)	(0.56)	(0.45)	(0.57)	(0.43)	(0.57)	(0.41)	(0.39)	(0.39)	(0.40)	(0.42)	(0.36)



## SCALE 12 – CROSS-FUNCTIONAL TEAMWORK

			Supervisor		Su	oordinate			Peer			Self	
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	244	3.54	3.68	3.69	3.77	3.81	3.75	3.72	3.74	3.80	3.79	3.76	3.86
		(0.60)	(0.52)	(0.53)	(0.60)	(0.50)	(0.54)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.38)	(0.54)	(0.51)	(0.48)
Female	13	3.77	3.73	3.56	3.73	3.73	3.75	3.67	3.67	3.65	3.50	3.63	3.60
		0.40	(0.36)	(0.49)	(0.59)	(0.61)	(0.55)	(0.31)	(0.46)	(0.36)	(0.44)	(0.44)	(0.48)
	•		Supervisor		Su	oordinate			Peer			Self	
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.40	3.61	3.66	3.63	3.82	3.64	3.60	3.70	3.76	3.76	3.80	3.94
		(0.70)	(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.66)	(0.58)	(0.63)	(0.54)	(0.46)	(0.37)	(0.58)	(0.55)	(0.43)
White	180	3.60	3.72	3.72	3.84	3.83	3.81	3.75	3.77	3.81	3.78	3.75	3.85
		(0.57)	(0.49)	(0.51)	(0.58)	(0.50)	(0.53)	(0.41)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.53)	(0.46)	(0.50)
Coloured	22	3.49	3.51	3.51	3.56	3.66	3.55	3.60	3.64	3.69	3.66	3.65	3.64
		(0.50)	(0.50)	(0.60)	(0.62)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.38)	(0.38)	(0.37)	(0.51)	(0.53)	(0.46)
Asian	15	3.52	3.63	3.58	3.48	3.65	3.57	3.75	3.68	3.80	3.85	3.90	3.90
		(0.61)	(0.62)	(0.72)	(0.46)	(0.42)	(0.35)	(0.34)	(0.59)	(0.36)	(0.61)	(0.76)	(0.50)
			Supervisor		Su	oordinate			Peer			Self	
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.59	3.74	3.69	3.60	3.730	3.78	3.66	3.78	3.77	3.80	3.76	3.88
		(0.49)	(0.51)	(0.47)	(0.64)	(0.57)	(0.58)	(0.42)	(0.43)	(0.33)	(0.57)	(0.57)	(0.46)
41-50	147	3.55	3.64	3.66	3.79	3.81	3.75	3.71	3.71	3.77	3.72	3.71	3.81
		(0.57)	(0.49)	(0.56)	(0.61)	(0.49)	(0.55)	(0.41)	(0.42)	(0.39)	(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.49)
51-60	52	3.51	3.72	3.73	3.88	3.85	3.70	3.79	3.78	3.88	3.88	3.89	3.95
		(0.70)	(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.48)	(0.45)	(0.49)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.62)	(0.52)	(0.50)
			Supervisor		Sul	ordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.783	4.08	3.90	4.10	4.30	4.00	4.00	3.98	3.90	3.83	3.80	3.95
		(0.52)	(0.37)	(0.54)	(0.43)	(0.39)	(0.55)	(0.11)	(0.14)	(0.32)	(0.68)	(0.39)	(0.71)
M4	54	3.67	3.85	3.91	3.87	3.88	3.87	3.74	3.81	3.84	3.83	3.76	3.96
		(0.57)	(0.49)	(0.43)	(0.56)	(0.37)	(0.47)	(0.40)	(0.32)	(0.32)	(0.50)	(0.44)	(0.45)
M5-6	149	3.49	3.59	3.61	3.71	3.73	3.70	3.70	3.69	3.76	3.74	3.75	3.84
		(0.57)	(0.50)	(0.51)	(0.61)	(0.53)	(0.55)	(0.42)	(0.45)	(0.40)	(0.56)	(0.55)	(0.50)
S4-6	44	3.54	3.69	3.60	3.75	3.82	3.68	3.69	3.77	3.81	3.80	3.76	3.74
		(0.68)	(0.52)	(0.61)	(0.60)	(0.55)	(0.52)	(0.51)	(0.43)	(0.41)	(0.49)	(0.45)	(0.43)



## **SCALE 13 – PEOPLE DEVELOPMENT**

Supervisor				Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	238	3.577	3.68	3.73	3.62	3.70	3.57	3.71	3.75	3.75	3.79	3.78	3.82
		(0.53)	(0.50)	(0.48)	(0.65)	(0.54)	(0.63)	(0.42)	(0.40)	(0.38)	(0.57)	(0.55)	(0.51)
Female	13	3.85	3.90	3.64	3.54	3.56	3.48	3.62	3.49	3.59	3.51	3.44	3.51
		0.40	(0.46)	(0.44)	(0.46)	(0.64)	(0.73)	(0.38)	(0.46)	(0.39)	(0.54)	(0.52)	(0.55)
	•	Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	39	3.57	3.71	3.76	3.62	3.61	3.46	3.68	3.66	3.75	3.85	3.93	3.91
		(0.55)	(0.52)	(0.41)	(0.74)	(0.58)	(0.65)	(0.49)	(0.44)	(0.35)	(0.66)	(0.54)	(0.48)
White	176	3.59	3.69	3.75	3.66	3.74	3.64	3.72	3.76	3.76	3.77	3.72	3.79
		(0.51)	(0.49)	(0.48)	(0.63)	(0.56)	(0.63)	(0.40)	(0.40)	(0.39)	(0.56)	(0.54)	(0.52)
Coloured	22	3.56	3.65	3.56	3.39	3.59	3.38	3.67	3.76	3.67	3.73	3.67	3.68
		(0.56)	(0.52)	(0.46)	(0.67)	(0.40)	(0.63)	(0.42)	(0.34)	(0.41)	(0.53)	(0.53)	(0.38)
Asian	15	3.52	3.62	3.50	3.38	3.50	3.21	3.74	3.69	3.64	3.81	3.88	3.95
		(0.70)	(0.52)	(0.47)	(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.52)	(0.40)	(0.48)	(0.46)	(0.65)	(0.66)	(0.60)
•		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	57	3.65	3.80	3.68	3.56	3.71	3.57	3.71	3.78	3.72	3.89	3.82	3.84
		(0.52)	(0.47)	(0.44)	(0.64)	(0.62)	(0.66)	(0.41)	(0.40)	(0.36)	(0.69)	(0.59)	(0.52)
41-50	145	3.56	3.64	3.70	3.62	3.68	3.56	3.68	3.71	3.71	3.72	3.70	3.78
		(0.52)	(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.67)	(0.51)	(0.64)	(0.42)	(0.41)	(0.41)	(0.55)	(0.56)	(0.52)
51-60	49	3.56	3.73	3.83	3.66	3.72	3.57	3.80	3.76	3.87	3.82	3.88	3.84
		(0.56)	(0.46)	(0.43)	(0.57)	(0.56)	(0.57)	(0.42)	(0.38)	(0.33)	(0.49)	(0.42)	(0.48)
		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.63	3.97	3.73	3.80	4.07	3.90	3.70	4.00	3.90	3.53	3.50	3.70
		(0.53)	(0.48)	(0.47)	(0.32)	(0.38)	(0.45)	(0.40)	(0.31)	(0.16)	(0.69)	(0.69)	(0.85)
M4	53	3.63	3.86	3.83	3.65	3.72	3.70	3.77	3.73	3.76	3.75	3.72	3.78
		(0.47)	(0.44)	(0.43)	(0.58)	(0.47)	(0.60)	(0.39)	(0.43)	(0.38)	(0.46)	(0.42)	(0.44)
M5-6	146	3.56	3.59	3.68	3.58	3.64	3.53	3.70	3.71	3.73	3.79	3.82	3.86
		(0.56)	(0.50)	(0.47)	(0.70)	(0.57)	(0.63)	(0.43)	(0.40)	(0.38)	(0.60)	(0.58)	(0.53)
S4-6	42	3.60	3.79	3.73	3.64	3.76	3.44	3.66	3.78	3.75	3.82	3.67	3.69
		(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.53)	(0.60)	(0.56)	(0.70)	(0.39)	(0.39)	(0.44)	(0.59)	(0.51)	(0.44)



## **SCALE 14 – PERFORMANCE ACHIEVEMENT**

		Supervisor			Subordinate			Peer			Self		
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	245	3.61	3.73	3.73	3.83	3.84	3.98	3.98	3.98	3.98	4.10	4.078	4.11
		(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.58)	(0.48)	(0.58)	(0.36)	(0.36)	(0.34)	(0.43)	(0.45)	(0.42)
Female	13	3.83	3.79	3.60	3.85	3.83	3.90	3.81	3.90	3.87	3.96	3.96	3.94
		0.41	(0.43)	(0.39)	(0.39)	(0.60)	(0.60)	(0.25)	(0.46)	(0.24)	(0.53)	(0.50)	(0.59)
		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.49	3.74	3.71	3.78	3.82	3.66	3.71	3.73	3.76	3.90	3.93	4.02
		(0.64)	(0.59)	(0.45)	(0.59)	(0.57)	(0.72)	(0.43)	(0.39)	(0.45)	(0.47)	(0.40)	(0.37)
White	180	3.64	3.75	3.74	3.88	3.86	3.82	3.82	3.84	3.83	3.80	3.80	3.89
		(0.53)	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.56)	(0.46)	(0.57)	(0.37)	(0.36)	(0.34)	(0.54)	(0.51)	(0.54)
Coloured	22	3.60	3.66	3.64	3.64	3.78	3.61	3.68	3.78	3.78	3.84	3.78	3.86
		(0.62)	(0.56)	(0.46)	(0.66)	(0.58)	(0.50)	(0.42)	(0.35)	(0.36)	(0.53)	(0.62)	(0.41)
Asian	15	3.70	3.58	3.68	3.63	3.68	3.63	3.87	3.82	3.82	4.00	4.08	4.07
		(0.70)	(0.47)	(0.53)	(0.42)	(0.41)	(0.47)	(0.36)	(0.43)	(0.45)	(0.54)	(0.62)	(0.48)
		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.74	3.80	3.79	3.78	3.87	3.80	3.83	3.81	3.75	3.98	3.90	3.98
		(0.55)	(0.51)	(0.42)	(0.54)	(0.53)	(0.63)	(0.41)	(0.37)	(0.35)	(0.60)	(0.58)	(0.54)
41-50	148	3.58	3.71	3.69	3.84	3.84	3.77	3.78	3.82	3.81	3.75	3.77	3.90
		(0.54)	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.61)	(0.48)	(0.60)	(0.37)	(0.35)	(0.37)	(0.52)	(0.51)	(0.52)
51-60	52	3.58	3.72	3.73	3.84	3.79	3.74	3.79	3.79	3.88	3.89	3.95	3.91
		(0.66)	(0.55)	(0.50)	(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.52)	(0.40)	(0.42)	(0.38)	(0.44)	(0.42)	(0.43)
			Supervisor			bordinate			Peer			Self	
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.70	4.05	3.85	4.20	4.08	4.05	3.900	4.15	4.00	3.78	3.85	3.90
		(0.63)	(0.44)	(0.38)	(0.37)	(0.41)	(0.33)	(0.24)	(0.47)	(0.24)	(0.62)	(0.50)	(0.63)
M4	54	3.75	3.87	3.87	3.91	3.96	3.87	3.84	3.82	3.85	3.94	3.92	3.95
		(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.44)	(0.52)	(0.48)	(0.55)	(0.38)	(0.31)	(0.35)	(0.47)	(0.50)	(0.44)
M5-6	149	3.59	3.68	3.70	3.77	3.78	3.75	3.79	3.80	3.81	3.84	3.85	3.96
		(0.58)	(0.50)	(0.48)	(0.61)	(0.47)	(0.61)	(0.37)	(0.38)	(0.35)	(0.55)	(0.52)	(0.52)
S4-6	45	3.55	3.68	3.61	3.82	3.81	3.65	3.73	3.79	3.71	3.68	3.68	3.73
		(0.51)	(0.57)	(0.52)	(0.50)	(0.55)	(0.59)	(0.46)	(0.33)	(0.46)	(0.50)	(0.48)	(0.51)



## **SCALE 15 - EMPOWERMENT**

Supervisor				Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Gender	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
Male	247	3.50	3.64	3.62	3.72	3.77	3.67	3.70	3.73	3.75	3.82	3.84	3.89
		(0.49)	(0.45)	(0.47)	(0.56)	(0.49)	(0.59)	(0.38)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.45)	(0.43)	(0.42)
Female	13	3.65	3.87	3.54	3.60	3.48	3.56	3.69	3.69	3.56	3.60	3.64	3.54
		0.45	(0.32)	(0.39)	(0.66)	(0.66)	(0.67)	(0.31)	(0.33)	(0.37)	(0.52)	(0.43)	(0.43)
		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Race	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
African	41	3.35	3.61	3.55	3.65	3.74	3.55	3.62	3.70	3.65	3.74	4.07	3.865
		(0.59)	(0.52)	(0.46)	(0.59)	(0.52)	(0.66)	(0.42)	(0.35)	(0.40)	(0.54)	(0.38)	(0.34)
White	181	3.55	3.66	3.66	3.79	3.81	3.73	3.73	3.75	3.76	3.84	4.05	3.87
		(0.45)	(0.42)	(0.44)	(0.54)	(0.49)	(0.56)	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.33)	(0.42)	(0.45)	(0.43)
Coloured	22	3.59	3.53	3.59	3.70	3.59	3.53	3.59	3.70	3.76	3.68	4.06	3.78
		(0.45)	(0.60)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.45)	(0.60)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.29)	(0.41)	(0.52)	(0.36)
Asian	15	3.50	3.63	3.42	3.41	3.47	3.44	3.77	3.58	3.77	3.88	4.30	3.88
		(0.53)	(0.54)	(0.42)	(0.53)	(0.51)	(0.59)	(0.28)	(0.44)	(0.39)	(0.59)	(0.50)	(0.57)
•		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Age	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
20-40	58	3.54	3.70	3.61	3.68	3.73	3.67	3.68	3.78	3.70	3.90	3.800	3.89
		(0.41)	(0.42)	(0.45)	(0.55)	(0.55)	(0.54)	(0.42)	(0.39)	(0.35)	(0.45)	(0.43)	(0.41)
41-50	148	3.49	3.60	3.59	3.69	3.77	3.65	3.70	3.71	3.74	3.72	3.78	3.84
		(0.48)	(0.46)	(0.47)	(0.56)	(0.49)	(0.64)	(0.36)	(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.44)	(0.44)	(0.43)
51-60	52	3.55	3.71	3.68	3.83	3.76	3.69	3.72	3.73	3.79	3.96	4.01	3.95
		(0.57)	(0.44)	(0.46)	(0.56)	(0.48)	(0.49)	(0.35)	(0.36)	(0.34)	(0.48)	(0.35)	(0.41)
		Supervisor		Subordinate			Peer			Self			
Level	N	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2
M2-3	10	3.75	3.95	3.68	3.98	3.95	4.03	3.78	3.93	3.88	3.78	3.75	3.80
		(0.44)	(0.45)	(0.53)	(0.22)	(0.40)	(0.14)	(0.28)	(0.39)	(0.27)	(0.55)	(0.49)	(0.61)
M4	54	3.59	3.75	3.78	3.76	3.78	3.80	3.75	3.82	3.77	3.80	3.86	3.83
		(0.43)	(0.37)	(0.33)	(0.60)	(0.45)	(0.54)	(0.33)	(0.32)	(0.35)	(0.50)	(0.38)	(0.43)
M5-6	149	3.47	3.58	3.56	3.68	3.70	3.61	3.67	3.67	3.73	3.81	3.86	3.92
		(0.49)	(0.43)	(0.48)	(0.58)	(0.50)	(0.61)	(0.38)	(0.38)	(0.34)	(0.46)	(0.45)	(0.42)
S4-6	45	3.52	3.67	3.59	3.72	3.87	3.60	3.72	3.77	3.72	3.81	3.74	3.78
		(0.55)	(0.54	(0.50)	(0.49)	(0.54)	(0.62)	(0.42)	(0.36)	(0.37)	(0.39)	(0.40)	(0.36)



# APPENDIX D EXAMPLE OF A DEVELOPMENT PLAN



## **Appendix D – Example of a Development Plan**

## Development Area : Problem Solving

1.	Developmental Goal	:	Improve speed with which I analyse problems and make
			decisions.
2.	Criteria for Success	:	Quality of solutions remains high
			Continue to do high-quality analyses
			Team members, boss, and peers will recognize the
			increase in the speed and greater flexibility of my
			decision-making.
3.	Typical Strategy	:	Actions / Next Steps:
	Coaching		1. Meet with Paul (Mentor) next week to get ideas on his
			approach to dealing with frequent changes in his
			department. Review what he does, how he does it.
			Ask him about his biggest mistakes and what he
			learned from them.
			2. agree on a timetable to get coaching (meet at least
			twice within next month.)
4.	Additional Strategies	:	Actions / Next Steps:
	Job assignment		1. Volunteer for the Delta Task Force (requires solution
			within a tight deadline; provides a complicated
			problem).
			2. Work with team members to review issues and
			suggest alternative ways of analyzing information.
			3. Get feedback from Linda (task force member) on
			problem-solving skills – find out what I do well and
			where I can improve!
	Reading		Read Managerial Decision Making by George Huber and
			complete this book by the end of next month.

Copyright © 1984, 1990, 1993, 1995 by Gary Yukl and Manus



#### **APPENDIX E**

LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES: DEFINITIONS AND BEHAVIOUR INDICATORS



# **Appendix E – Leadership Competencies**

#### **Leadership Competencies : Definitions and Behaviour Indicators**

# 1) Integrity

To communicate and act consistently with integrity at all times, within the Company's values and Code of Business Conduct.

- Ensure and maintain confidentiality where required
- Keep promises and avoid lip service
- Lead by example (walk the talk)
- Instil trust/trustworthiness
- Show consistency in words and actions
- Portray the stated standards of ethical behaviour (Code of Business Conduct)

#### 2) Adaptability

To respond positively and effectively to the organization's ever-changing and challenging environment and to understand the complexities of a competitive business environment

- Respond positively to a changing environment (competitive situations and new information)
- Be open to new ideas and new methods of performing tasks
- Help others to cope with or adapt to change and ambiguity
- Explain the need and reasons for changes to team
- Create an environment that motivates team members in changing circumstances

#### 3) Self-responsibility

To accept responsibility for, and take ownership of, one's own behaviour and to accept accountability for the performance and behaviour of one's own functional team



- Take responsibility for delivering the tasks required in one's job
- Take ownership for problems without passing the buck
- Demonstrate determination, loyalty and commitment to achieve goals
- Take ownership and accountability to learn from one's mistakes
- Personal commitment to what has to be done

#### 4) Leadership communication

To influence team members to enhance their performance by creating understanding, a shared vision of where the organization is going to and how their individual and group performance help realise organizational objectives and strategies.

- Communicate clearly to individuals and teams what is expected of them; how they are doing and where they fit into the bigger picture
- Take full ownership and responsibility for one's own communication role
- Adapt one's communication to be appropriate to the requirements of specific persons or situations.
- Value two-way communication and listening
- Understand and be able to apply the basic skills of interpersonal and group communication appropriately in different situations.

#### 5) Purpose building

To build commitment in the team by clearly communicating the team's role and purpose and how this fits in with the vision and strategic direction of the organization

- Ensure that the organizational vision, purpose, and values become valued and owned by the team
- State advantages of a vision, purpose and direction in order to gain the support or buy-in of others and other units



- Ensure that strategies and plans are linked with those of other teams to ensure alignment
- Build alliances with internal and external customers in order to create a shared purpose mindset
- Identify and establish external alliances required in order to reach team strategies, goals and objectives.

### 6) Motivational capacity

To build confidence in the team to achieve goals, and to improve motivation and commitment by celebrating the team's successes

- Boost the self-confidence of team members.
- Recognise and reward individual team members for their successes
- Create a culture in which team members have the confidence in each other to explore change, seek challenges and take risks
- Clearly state own stand on issues or proposals of others in a persuasive and inspiring manner.
- Create an environment where team is motivated to perform

#### 7) Information capacity

To gather and share current and future strategic information from a wide spectrum of internal and external sources

- Improve our organizational competence through networking opportunities and survey information
- Regularly gather broad information about the company and its operations (e.g. customers, competitors, markets, costs, sales, etc.)
- Gather information about the future (e.g. the changing organizational environment, new customer benefits, new products, future competition, changing technology)
- Evaluate and verify information gathered for accuracy and quality



 Provide processes/channels to exchange relevant information (finger on the pulse)

## 8) Conceptual ability

To link different kinds of information to form ideas (about strategies) for the future

- Understand how own tasks logically relate to other disciplines and functions
- See causal links between problems in different divisions and identify the root causes of the problems
- Link strategic, tactical and practical information in order to solve problems and form solutions to problems
- Demonstrate the capacity to conceptualise, identify themes, trends, interrelationships and synthesise the whole, to see the connections between the parts
- Form integrated solutions provided by different perspectives which will solve more than one existing problem

#### 9) Visionary thinking

To maintain a clear vision which allows one to develop alternative ways of reaching future goals within a changing environment

- Develop more than one alternative route to bring about desired change or achieve future strategic goals/objectives (futuristic)
- Stimulate learning by exploring the relationships between alternative strategies
- Compare the consequences (pro and cons) of pursuing alternative routes to gain a deeper understanding of the necessary steps.
- Build a culture in which decision-making through analysis of alternative plans is valued and actively encouraged in meeting the demands of a dynamic environment.

#### 10) Business acumen

To understand and apply business principles in order to optimise service and profit



- Have a basic understanding of the environment in which the company operates (business cycle)
- Understand the company's current and potential markets, competitors and strategy (commercial sense)
- Calculate the bottom line implications of what one does (bottom-line driven)
- Understand the industry and business as well as the related market competitiveness
- Know how to meet the challenges of different business situations (business intuition)
- Utilise business acumen for creating, recognizing and anticipating new business opportunities for the company

#### 11) Diversity learning

To share ideas in a non-evaluative setting in order to understand and learn from other diverse individuals

- Assist diverse team members to fit into a multi-national and multi-cultural team and organization
- Check and clarify own understanding of team members' diverse views, feelings and cultures
- Create opportunities for diverse team members to learn about each other and learn from each other
- Treat others with respect and dignity by showing understanding their ideas, views and feelings.
- Understand the impact of diversity on the business and use it as a learning opportunity

#### 12) Cross-functional teamwork

To facilitate ideas and solutions across functional teams in order to enhance company performance and mutual understanding



- Encourage good relations, co-operation and participation between own team and other teams
- Provide opportunities for the team members to interact and work across functional boundaries.
- Facilitate team interactions and dialogue in order to share ideas and reach consensus on performance improvement and service delivery
- Facilitate discussions about the formation of solutions which can explain two or more individual ideas or problems
- Integrate initiatives across functional teams in order to create a high level of understanding of various roles, responsibilities and activities

#### 13) People development

To create and foster a climate for personal development by providing challenging development opportunities and continuous coaching.

- Identify and address development areas and needs of subordinates
- Provide on-the-job support as well as opportunities for training and development
- Assist team members to make their jobs more meaningful and challenging
- Develop wider and multi-skilled organizational competencies
- Provide feedback, coaching and mentoring on team members' personal development

#### 14) Performance achievement

To continually communicate within the team what is expected of them and to guide them in developing and improving their performance through feedback.

- Assist team members to link their performance objectives with team and organizational strategies
- Regularly review performance of team in terms of strategies, goals and objectives and provide feedback
- Set measurable targets and objectives which will improve performance



- Include meaningful, value-adding and challenging objectives/goals in the performance plans of the team
- Support development of new improved measures of company, team and individual performance

## 15) Empowerment

To grant team members broad responsibility to take action and the freedom to go beyond the existing boundaries of their work in order to improve performance and deliver excellent service

- Redesign work processes and restructure the organization to empower team members to accept more responsibility and to work across boundaries
- Be tolerant of mistakes and encourage calculated risk-taking (tolerant of possible negative consequences of being pro-active and creative)
- Work around constraints, challenges, existing practices and obstacles
- Reduce bureaucratic rules, procedures and/or controls and actively stimulate action, teamwork, learning and initiative ("outside the box")
- Actively encourage innovation and alternative problem solving (to overcome barriers)



# APPENDIX F 360°LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES FOR LEADERS



# Appendix F

# 360° Leadership Assessment Guidelines for Leaders

1	Why is leadership assessement important?	
2	What is 360° assessement and feedback?	
3	What is in it for me (benefits)?	
4	The 360° assessement process	
5	Who will see the results and how will it be used?	
6	What to look out for when doing a multi-rater assessement	
7	Conclusion	



## 1 Why is leadership assessment important?

The main purpose of the 360° leadership assessment is to identify strengths and weaknesses in order to enable leaders to reduce and eliminate development areas and build on strengths. The company aims to assess all leaders once a year on their leadership competencies to enable leaders in order to incorporate focused development actions based on the assessment results into their Personal Development Plans.

Each leader should determine suitable development opportunities within the leadership development guidelines.

Leaders play a significant role in forming and changing the company's culture and improving the company's performance. The company's strategic goal for Leadership Development is to improve the quality of leaders (by developing specific leadership competencies) to take the company forward and continuously outperform competitors.

#### What is 360° assessment and feedback?

The 360° assessment process refers to the practice of gathering assessments of a number of people. The practice entails the assessing of an individual (the rest of the document will refer to these people as raters), processing the gathered information and feeding back the results to the individual. Typically, the process involves assessments by the person and the person's direct supervisor, peers and subordinates. Each rater should know the person to be assessed well enough in order to be able to assess him or her. The term 360° feedback is applied because since sources are thought of as encircling the person, thereby obtaining a holistic perspective of a person's behaviour.

The 360° feedback model differs from the traditional single source assessment completed only by the supervisor (promoter). By increasing the number of evaluations to offer a more balanced and comprehensive view, the 360° feedback process improves the quality of an assessment.



Since the raters are people with whom the employee interacts regularly at work, their assessments are regarded as reliable, valid and credible.

1 What is in it for me (benefits)?

The 360° leadership assessment and feedback process provides the following benefits:

- Clear answers to a question: "How am I doing?" Leaders want to know where they stand and how they are seen by their promoters, colleagues (peers) and subordinates;
- Pinpoints leadership development areas more accurately and is therefore an
  excellent mechanism to guide the improvement of leadership behaviour not only
  does it provide individual leaders with accurate and valid information, but it also
  focuses the organization on the improvement of its overall leadership;
- Provides feedback to leaders in a way that helps them to evaluate and "correct" (if necessary) their self-perceptions. Often the process uncovers significant discrepancies between the individual's self-ratings and those of others. Correcting the discrepancies can result in the more effective building of relationships and teams;
- When a leader receives feedback from numerous individuals, the feedback is more reliable. The data is more credible and reliable since it includes observations of more than one person who are in close contact with the leader;
- Results in more objective feedback provide opportunities for more people to give input in a leader's percieved level of competence in terms of observed leadership behaviours;
- Allows people to provide feedback on their continuous observation of how the leader reacts - not only in crises, but also in routine day-to-day conditions;
- Signals that the organization wishes to emphasise the importance of effective leadership and positive relationships within and between departments.



#### 2 The 360° Assessment Process

## Step 1: Sensitisation

- General information about assessment is communicated to all leaders during Leadership Assessment Workshops
- Sensitisation sessions for all role-players involved in the assessment

### **Step 2: Preparation**

- Rater lists are compiled and distributed to all leaders for validation
- Rater lists are received back from leaders and relevant information is updated on the 360°functionality

## Step 3: Distribution, Rating & Collection

- Questionnaires are electronically distributed to all raters
- Monitoring of distribution, collection and integration of questionnaires into system by HR Specialists

#### **Step 4: Processing**

Data is processed and reports (Individual and group) are compiled

## Step 5: Feedback

- Feedback is provided to all leaders (group feedback session and individual reports are also provided)
- Group reports are made available to all applicable leaders



The 360° Assessment Process (continued)

#### **Step 1: Sensitisation of line management**

During the Leadership Assessment workshops which are attended by every leader together with the leader's natural work team, some general information about the assessment is shared, for example, where the assessment fits into the overall process of leadership development within the organization.

It is, however, necessary that all those involved in the assessment (including the subordinates) attend a sensitisation session lasting about one hour. The purpose of the sensitisation is to enhance the understanding of the assessment process, the assessment questionnaire and how it should be completed, as well as what will happen with the results. If every rater understands the process and how to approach the assessment objectively, it will increase the validity of the results. It is critically important that each leader encourages all his/her raters (especially subordinates) to attend these sessions since it is to the leader's benefit if they understand the assessment process.

#### **Step 2: Preparation for the assessment**

Every leader will be assessed on their leadership competencies and will receive an electronic rater list (a list of names of the leader's raters, their salary reference numbers and other pertinent details)

The following is an example of a typical group which can form part of a leader's rater list:

- The leader;
- Supervisor: This is the person(s) to whom the leader directly reports. Should the leader work in a matrix situation, ratings of both supervisors should be included;
- Peers: These participants work in a collegial relationship with the leader. May come
  from different service organizations, levels or regions or may work in a project team
  with the leader. They must, however, know the leader well enough in a work
  situation in order to be able to assess such a leader. Each leader should nominate
  four peers to assess him/her.



Subordinates: This is every person who reports directly to the leader. Each person
will be assessed by a maximum of five subordinates who will be randomly selected
by the system. Should a person have five or less subordinates, all of them will be
included in the assessment. A person without subordinates will be assessed by
his/her supervisor and peers.

The updated rater lists must be sent back electronically as soon as possible to the e-mail address from where it was sent. Prompt responses are critically important since the assessment cannot continue without this information.

#### Step 3: Distribution, rating and collection of questionnaires

Each rater receives by e-mail the necessary questionnaire(s) to complete. The questionnaire is in the form of an attachment with a Microsoft Word file and clear instructions appear in the e-mail message on how the file should be opened. Complete the questionnaire, save it correctly and send it back.

The whole process is managed centrally by Human Resource Specialists. Only a few Human Resource Specialists have access to the data to ensure confidentiality.

Although the raters' names are specified on the raters' lists, a leader will never be able to identify the person who completed the questionnaire. The results are averaged for each group, e.g. peers or subordinates. The leader will only have access to the average results of each group. No individual will therefore be identified to enhance objectivity and honesty.

The following must be kept in mind when receiving and completing the questionnaire:

In order to achieve the objective of providing leaders with valid feedback, it is of critical importance that assessments are objective and unbiased. Assessments should therefore be based on actual observed behaviour rather than perceptions or personal preferences. Each rater should try to complete all the required questions, but where a person is unable to assess the other person, it should be left blank rather than to just allocate a random score.



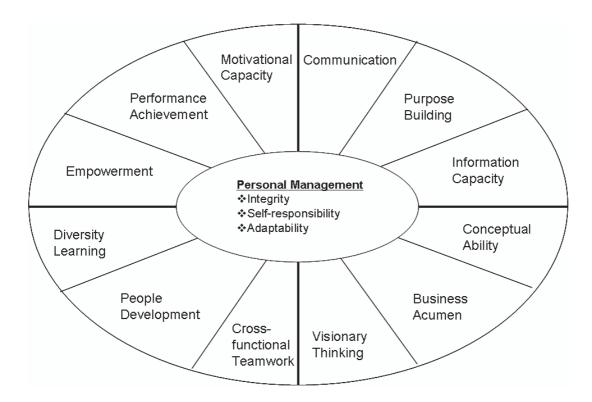
DOs	DON'TS	
Wait until you are calm and relaxed with no outside influences disturbing you when completing the questionnaire.	Do not alter anything, the filename, font or any other detail	
Be careful not to use only one or two ranges on the scale. Read all the definitions of the five-point scale and use the entire range. This will ensure more meaningful feedback to the leader.	Do not delete anything (in particular not any brackets). The assessment system will search for the brackets to be able to read the rating.	
Do use the lowest (1) or highest (5) scores on the scale, if necessary. Sometimes raters are afraid to not be overciritical, but try to be fair and honest and give the appropriate rating based on your experience.	Do not delete e-mails that "look" the same - you may receive more that one e-mail with questionnaire(s) attached!	
	Do not give an overall impression - rather rate each question independently.	

# The 360°Leadership Questionnaire

Top Management identified fifteen leadership competencies or characteristics which are critical in times of change. These competencies are described in terms of behaviours - and these behaviours have been formulated into a questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of about sixty questions and should require less than thirty minutes to complete.



# The fifteen leadership competencies



# Rating scale

The following five-point rating scale must be used to assess each question:

1	Immediate development is essential	Does not meet expectations. Dedication and effort are required to imporve performance.
2	Development is needed	Development is needed if the person is to be successful.
3	Adequate but could improve	The performance of the person is acceptable, but there is room for improvement.
4	Fully meets expectations	Fully meets expectations, although ongoing development is desirable.
5	Superior to others	Superior to others in meeting expectations. Widely recognised throughout the organization as superior to others.



## Step 4: Processing of questionnaires

All questionnaires are distributed and received at a central point and database, which are administered by Human Resources.

The questionnaires will be distributed and received through the Outlook system and the reports will be distributed individually.

Once all questionnaires of a specific person have been returned, questionnaires will be loaded on to the system. Any errors detected in completing the questionnaires will be followed up and only then will feedback reports be generated.

#### Step 5: Feedback

Two levels of feedback reports will be generated:

### (a) Individual feedback report

Each leader will receive an individual feedback report on the results of his/her assessment. This report aims to provide a leader with as much meaningful information as possible in terms of leadership behaviour. It will provide the leader with an indication of strengths as well as development areas that require improvement. A leader should discuss these results with his/her promoter during their quarterly performance feedback and review sessions and, based on the results, include specific development actions in his/her personal development plan.

In the 360° Leadership Assessment feedback report, each competency and each question are indicated separately. In addition, each group of raters, for example, peers or subordinates is indicated separately - the peer rating will be an average of the peers and the subordinate rating will be an average of the number of subordinates that assessed a particular leader.



The different groups of raters will be weighted as follows (the self-assessment rating is excluded for this purpose):

A person with subordinates:		A person without subordinates:			
Subordinates Peers Supervisor	60% 20% 20%		Supervisor Peers	50% 50%	
Competency 1	Self	Superior 20%	Peers 20%	Subordinates 60%	TOTAL 100%
Question 1					
Question 2					
Question 3					
Total for competency					

During group feedback sessions a facilitator will explain the layout of the report, the competencies and the specific questions relating to each competency, how to interpret a report as well as how to determine development needs and incorporate the latter into a personal development plan.

Every leader should attend a session in order to understand his/her feedback report. If an individual has, after a feedback session, a need for a one-on-one discussion on his/her individual results, it can be arranged through the facilitator of the group session.

#### (b) Company/group reports

At a company level, different type of reports will be generated, for example, for each relevant service organization/region/job level and for the company as a whole. This will provide an overall picture of the leadership behaviour of a service organization/region/job level or the company.



Who will have access to the results and how will the results be used?

The results of the 360° assessment will be used in two different ways:

- Most important, each leader will receive an individual feedback report with detail about his/her ratings in terms of each of the competencies. This report will assist in validating and clarifying his/her leadership development needs. Development actions based on these needs should be included in the leader's personal development plan and be monitored and reviewed through the performance and development management system. The individual report will be provided only to the leader. It is strongly recommended that he/she should share and discuss the report with his/her promoter.
- The company and group reports will be used in order to identify trends in leadership behaviour and development needs. Based on these trends, specific development programmes or interventions will be designed and implemented.

These reports can also be used to benchmark the company's leadership behaviour against national and international best practices. Establishing a baseline and then monitoring overall leadership assessment results can assist in determining the contribution of leaders to the company's effectiveness and performance.



## 4 Important points to consider when participating in a multi-rater assessment

Potential Pitfalls	What can be done to prevent it from happening
Lack of objectivity and honesty from raters when rating their subordinates, peers, supervisor, himor herself.	<ul> <li>All raters should attend a sensitisation session to understand the rationale of the assessement more clearly.</li> </ul>
A focus on the person rather than a focus on his/her leadership behaviour indicators that are assessed.	<ul> <li>Each question should be answered separately - do not simply give an overall impression.</li> </ul>
Confidentiality of raters is not taken into account. This will prevent raters from feeling comfortable about providing honest feedback.	<ul> <li>All the information is sent out and received back at a centralised office in head office where a limited number of persons will have access to it. All individual information will be treated with utmost confidentiality.</li> </ul>
360° assessment requires more time to implement since one person assess a number of people (the assessement questionnaire must be	The questionnaire consists of only 58 questions that can be linked directly to the leadership competencies
complex enough to be meaningful, but simple enough to be completed easily).	All raters should complete the applicable questionnaires as soon as possible.
People might find feedback from multiple sources intimidating.	<ul> <li>The reports categorise the different groups of raters (for example, subordinates and peers) together in order to simplify the report.</li> </ul>
How to handle and interpret the feedback is often troublesome for people.	<ul> <li>Group feedback sessions are arranged during which the interpretation of reports will be explained and any questions can be answered.</li> </ul>
	Individual follow-up sessions can be arranged with an HR facilitator.

It will be important for all role-players to bear these pitfalls in mind and to avoid them as far as possible. This will ensure that the assessment is as fair, objective and honest as possible.

#### 5 Conclusion

An important step in developing and nurturing leaders in the company is the assessment of the leaders. This gives each individual leader an indication of how well he/she is performing and what to focus on in order to enhance his/her leadership competencies. It furthermore provides the company with a total picture of its leaders, as well as an indication on areas in which development programmes, interventions and resources should be focused.



# APPENDIX G PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING GUIDELINES



#### **APPENDIX G**

#### **Personal Development Planning Guidelines**

#### Introduction

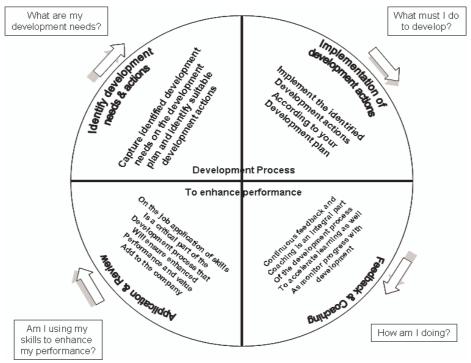
Development planning is a critical part of the Performance Management Process since development is a key enabler of performance. Ultimately, the purpose of a development plan is to enable leaders, to enhance their performance.

#### The personal development process

Identifying development needs and actions is important since it enables leaders to identify and prioritise their development needs as well as to identify appropriate actions in order to address their development needs.

A structured Personal Development plan based on the identified development areas will enable leaders to effectively manage and monitor their development.

The following model describes the personal development process and is followed by a detailed description.





#### Identification of development needs and actions

- Study previous competence assessment results, e.g. 360°leadership assessment reports.
- Study list of required competencies for the job to determine possible development areas.
- Consider future skills based on business needs, e.g. new technology, business processes, changes in the market, competition, etc.
- Determine development priorities based on this information.
- Break each priority down into specific actions to address the identified development needs.
- Set target date for each action.
- Identify areas of strengths that can add value to the business.
- Identify activities to optimise the identified strengths.

#### Implementation of development actions

A development plan will be of no value if the identified development action is not implemented. The development plan should consist of a variety of development actions such as the following:

- Job rotation
- Job enrichment e.g. by working on cross-functional projects
- On the job, over the shoulder training
- Coaching by promoter
- Self-study and reading
- Mentorship
- Part-time study
- E-learning modules
- Workshops/seminars
- Formal training programs

Formal classroom based training programs should only be included in the development plan if none of the other development actions listed above can address the development need since formal training is the most expensive development action.



#### Feedback and coaching

This forms part of the ongoing communication between a supervisor and performer and is therefore an integral part of every supervisor's leadership role.

In addition to the formal feedback that performers must receive at specific times, they must also be continuously informed of their progress, successes or shortcomings in the execution of their daily activities. Only when people know how they are performing in the process of achieving their outputs, will they be aware of possible problems and know when they are being successful.

Guidelines for informal progress feedback and coaching discussion are:

- Do not delay; discuss problems immediately before they become a crisis.
- The more regularly this is done, the greater its effect on people's motivation to develop and improve performance.
- Exercise good judgement by not providing feedback on sensitive or negative aspects in the presence of other people.
- As in the case of formal feedback, informal feedback should also be honest, open and specific.
- Do not reserve positive feedback or compliments until the formal feedback interview. Provide such feedback spontaneously and continuously.

In the course of performing a task, especially in the event of a new or difficult one, performers sometimes seek assistance. Such performers do not need destructive criticism. They need someone to consult with when not knowing what to do next when they experience problems, face obstacles, or only need to talk. They want the person, first and foremost, to listen, then to assist them in considering possible solutions and finally to confirm that what they are planning is meaningful.

A supervisor is the ideal person to occupy this coaching role for performers. They are personally involved in the end result, and also control additional resources that may be



required. Promoters who do not know how to fulfil this role may be experienced as obstructive, critical or simply indifferent.

By seeking information the supervisor can learn about their performers' concerns. By checking understanding, the supervisor confirms his understanding of the situation or problem. Instead of defining solutions themselves, seeking suggestions will encourage performers to use their own problem-solving abilities. The skill of developing suggestions or ideas allows the supervisor to extend the subordinates' ideas. When a performer feels uncertain, encouragement through acknowledgement and disclosure can help develop their confidence. By using these skills, the supervisor can ensure that coaching discussions are truly developmental.

#### Application and review

It is of vital importance that the knowledge and skills acquired by performers during their development are applied on the job in order to improve their performance as well as to ensure value adding to the company.

When performance assessment is done, the development progress of every performer should also be reviewed in order to determine new or additional development needs. A new development plan must then be drawn up for the next performance cycle.

Development guidelines

Start the development planning process by scheduling a meeting with your supervisor to discuss development needs.

Compile a Personal Development Plan based on the example provided.

A development plan should consist mainly of development actions such as the following in order to address identified development areas:

- Job rotation
- <u>Job enrichment</u> e.g. working on cross-functional projects.
- On-the-job-training by working with a person who has the skills which must be developed.



- <u>Coaching</u> sessions by promoter on identified development areas of candidate, e.g. networking skills, conflict handling etc.
- <u>Informal mentorship</u>. The performer and supervisor identify a suitable mentor and request the identified person to be a mentor for the performer.
- <u>Part-time study.</u> Part-time study is an option for a performer who do not have a formal qualification or who will benefit from a post-graduate qualification.
- <u>Self-study and reading.</u> Performers can, for instance, keep a personal diary on their behaviour, e.g. how they handle difficult/conflict situations. At the end of each week, they study their diary and reflect on how well or how badly they handled difficult/conflict situations. They then write down how they are going to improve).
- <u>E-Learning modules.</u> Modules can be selected according to the development needs of the performer.
- <u>Videos/seminars.</u> The performers can identify a seminar that will address one or more of their development areas and arrange to attend such sessions. After attending a video session or attending a seminar the performer should draw up an action plan of what actions are to be taken in order to implement what has been learned.
- Revisit previous training material. The performer can revisit the content of previously attended training courses/workshops. The performer can then critically evaluate himself/herself in order to determine to what extent they have applied the knowledge and skills obtained in such a course/workshop.

The most relevant development options reflected in the above list must be identified by the performer and his/her supervisor based on the performer's development areas reflected in the development report, after which it must be included in the Personal Development Plan. These development actions should account for 80% - 90% of your Personal Development Plan. Formal training courses/workshops/programs should account for the remaining 10-20% of development.

The development plan must be treated as a living document that must be reviewed and updated on a regular basis.



# TIPS FOR PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (PDP)

TIF	PS FOR SUPERVISORS	TII	PS FOR PERFORMERS
•	Take competency assessment results into consideration, i.e. 360° Leadership Assessment results	•	Develop a clear understanding of your strengths and weaknesses (study assessment results).
•	Take business priorities as well as career aspirations of the performer into consideration.	•	Ask for regular feedback from supervisor, peers, customers and team members.
•	Use the previous PDP as a guideline.	•	Use role profile as a guide to understand the skills required to perform optimally.
•	Understand what the short, medium and long-term skills requirements are for the organization as well as the skills required to meet the future goals of the performer.	•	Have an understanding of the organization's business needs.
•	Match the current skills of the performer to the requirements of the job (role) that they currently perform.	•	Take the assessment results into consideration.
•	Help the employee to establish and prioritise development needs according to the needs of the business as well as future career goals of the performer.	•	Have a clear understanding of the people development process and opportunities in the company, e.g. how to apply for a part-time bursary.
•	Create a personal development plan by linking the development areas. Make a note of this action on the physical PDP.	•	Have a clear understanding of the importance of self-development for the individual and for the organization as well as the different ways one can develop oneself, e.g. on-the-job-learning, part-time study, etc.
•	Use the Manager's Desktop functionality to book the performer on the training interventions, when applicable.  Nominate performer for relevant development programmes.	•	Schedule time to attend training interventions.
•	Monitor progress and provide feedback and coaching on an ongoing basis.	•	Accept any feedback in a positive manner. Regard any feedback session as a coaching session for personal growth.
•	Ensure that the Personal Development Plan of the performer consists of 70% actions to address the development needs of the current job and 30% actions to address the career development needs.	•	Think about long-term career intentions regularly and ensure that one is still on track to achieve them
•	Ensure that the development actions on the PDP consist of a variety of training interventions and not only formal training courses. Only 10-20% of the development actions should be formal training.	•	Ensure that the PDP consists of a variety of development actions and not only formal training e.g. reading, on-the-job-training, participation in project, self-study, etc.



# APPENDIX H SELF-DEVELOPMENT GUIDELINES FOR LEADERS



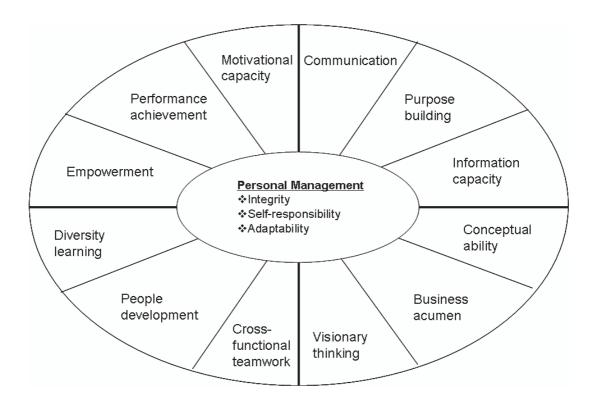
#### **APPENDIX H**

## **Self-Development Guidelines for Leaders**

- a. Integrity
- b. Adaptability
- c. Self -responsibility
- d. Leadership Communication
- e. Purpose Building
- f. Motivational capacity
- g. Information capacity
- h. Conceptual ability
- i. Visionary thinking
- j. Business Acumen
- k. Diversity learning
- I. Cross-functional teamwork
- m. People Development
- n. Performance achievement
- o. Empowerment



# **Leadership Competency Model**



# **Rating scale for Development**

1	Immediate development is essential	Does not meet expectations. Dedication and effort are required to improve performance.
2	Development is needed	Development is needed if the person is to be successful.
3	Adequate but could improve	The performance of the person is acceptable, but there is room for improvement.
4	Fully meets expectations	Fully meets expectations, although ongoing development is desirable.
5	Superior to others	Superior to others in meeting expectations. Widely recognized throughout the organization as superior to others.



## 1. Integrity Development Guidelines

#### How to reach level 3

- Practise consistency. Do one's words match one's actions? If one's words and actions change from situation to situation, or if the people one is with, influence one's behaviour.
- Practise openness. Keep people informed. Explain one's decisions. Be candid about problems. Disclose all relevant information.
- Tell the truth. While we may consider ourselves to be fundamentally honest people, it is easy to obfuscate meanings or compromise opinions slightly when placed under pressure or intimidated.
- Be genuine at all times in your actions. What is one's philosophy of life? Which beliefs warrant one's vigorous defending? Establish to what extent one feels true to both oneself as well as the company's values, even if that means risking disapproval or lack of acceptance?
- Be fair. Before making decisions or taking action, think of how others will regard them in terms of objectivity and fairness.
- Gather feedback from others regarding their perceptions of your honesty, ethics and integrity. Try to address any issues of concern.
- Do not promise anything unless you know you that it can be delivered.
   You will find it difficult to build trust if you break promises.
- Should anyone provide one with confidential or sensitive information, it should be treated as such even if the reason for the confidentiality is not understood.
- Be open in the event of making a mistake. Do not blame others for these errors.
- Failing to meet deadlines can often be seen as being unreliable and can lead to a lack of trust. Evaluate time management skills and work on them where necessary.
- Give thought to someone who one trusts or who one regards as
  potentially ethical. Try to identify the actual reasons as to why one has
  developed this feeling/perspective and make use of this type of
  behaviour in dealing with others.



#### How to reach level 4 - 5

- Show your trust to others. Are you willing to share an honest expectation or goal, or risk telling a fundamental personal truth about yourself, before the other person has "earned" that level of trust?
- Display those qualities that would be expected from your employees. In the event of your desire for openness, dedication, commitment and responsibility from employees, demonstrate these qualities yourself. Your employees regard you as a role model.
- Keep a tally of promises made (directly or implicitly), and try to check whether you have kept them all.
- Practice what you preach at work.
- Be conversant with the code of ethics in your area of work, and regularly review one's adherence to these standards.
- Prior to taking action on an important issue elicit advice on the approach from a colleague whose integrity is respected.
- Develop a code of ethics for the team, department or organization and ensure that all are conversant with this code.
- Build trust in team members by:
  - a) Showing that you care about others.
  - b) Supporting your team through your words and actions.
  - c) Practising openness. Keep people informed, explain your decisions, be candid about problems, and fully disclose relevant information.
  - d) Even handedness. Before making decisions or taking action, consider
    if others will see them as objective and fair. Give credit where it's due.
     Be objective and impartial in performance evaluations. Pay attention
    to equity perceptions in reward distributions.
  - e) Express your feelings. If you share your feelings, others will see you as genuine and human. They will know who you are and will respect you for it.
  - f) Consistency in decision-making.
  - g) Maintain confidences. If people regard you as someone who betrays confidences, is treacherous, or someone who can not be relied on, you will not be trusted.



- h) Demonstrate competence. Command the admiration and respect of others by demonstrating professional ability and good business sense. Develop and display your communication, team-building and interpersonal skills.
- Become conversant with the three characteristics of integrity:
  - a) Know right from wrong.
  - b) Acting on this knowledge at all times.
  - c) Openly declaring that you are acting on understanding right from wrong.
- Use the following INTEGRITY formula to reflect on the three core characteristics of integrity.

#### Value Clarification x (Action + Voice) = Integrity

- a) VC = is a measure of your commitment to discern right from wrong in given circumstance.
- b) A = represents how willing one is to act on what one believes is right.
- c) V = shows how willing one is to own this inner truth and give voice to it, i.e. how willing you are to share one's convictions openly with others who are affected or involved.
- d) l= the hypothetical rating for your present level of integrity.
- e) Score each factor on a scale from 0 (lowest) to 10 (highest). The highest score, reserved mainly for saints and angels, is 200. The lowest score is O.
- Conduct the following integrity test:
  - a) What do I stand for?
  - b) Is the discernment between right and wrong a conscious effort? Is action taken on the outcome of the discernment and is it openly declared that such action takes into consideration the issue of right from wrong.
  - c) What am I willing, and not willing, to do to achieve this?
- Practise the following skills with regard to the clarification of values:
  - a) Promise only what one is in a position to deliver and then carry out the promise irrespective of obstacles.
  - b) Integrate persistence, resilience and continuous improvement into one's core values.



- c) Model your driving values consistently, never compromise on values and seek opportunities to demonstrate one's driving values.
- Ethical communication must combine the conviction that one is correct in holding the conviction that others should be respected.
  - a) Avoid giving in too easily to the demands of others.
  - b) Be receptive to the possibility of being persuaded of the merits of another viewpoint.
  - c) Rely on persuasion rather than coercion to convince others of one's point of view. Do not provoke hostile feelings by insisting that one's view is the only correct view.
  - d) Listen to others and be genuinely interested in their comments.

# 2. Adaptability Development Guidelines

#### How to reach level 3

- Regard change as being positive. Make a list of all the benefits that can be envisaged in the short and long term.
- Develop patience. Recognise that interruptions are part of the job and that one will have to build long-term or complex tasks around short-term crises and problems.
- Acquire various management styles and identify one's preferred approaches. Attempt to adapt new styles to suit different situations and people.
- Build in "quiet time" in your dairy. This will give one space to plan and replan and adjust one's priorities.
- Be prepared to see priorities as ever changing. Recognise that as the manager's priorities change, so inevitably will one's priorities also change. This should be taken in one's stride.
- Do not under or over plan activities. Try to assess realistically how long things take so that one is not always chasing one's own tail while having to fill in gaps at the last minute.
- Discuss with one's manager the changes in the offering and how this may affect one's role.
- Keep in touch with business strategy in your area and make efforts to understand how these might affect one's work.



- Analyse your personal style to see if you tend to take a "fixed view" on issues. Recognise any such tendency and develop strategies to deal with it.
- Ask the manager to explain the reasoning behind any changes which affect one so that a picture of priorities can be developed.
- Maintain a balance between work and home life as well as personal needs so that one can feel more able to adjust to demanding work pressures when they arise.
- Find out as much as possible about a new job or project in advance. Talk to those already performing such tasks or who have done so in the past.
- Consider how often one says "but" when someone proposes doing something differently.
- Focus on a change that one decided to turn down and now regret the decision. Consider what the advantages and benefits of making this change would be?
- Discuss in detail, with the manager or a colleague, a recent project for which one was responsible. How rigid was one's approach? Was one open to new ideas and alternatives? How could one have handled it better?
- Think through all the changes that you would anticipate both at home and at work over the next six months. List all the things you can do now to adapt and prepare.

#### How to reach level 4 and 5

- Review one's skills and abilities and identify areas where such skills could be used to greater affect. Discuss with the manager how one's talents could be better utilised.
- Discuss with the manager the skills and abilities one believes will be required in the future and how one might develop these.
- Review one's working practices and recommend to the manager any changes that could be made to either improve one's own performance or that of another area of the business.
- Find ways to improve team meetings so that transformation can be fully explored and concerns raised and dealt with.



- Examine your emotional responses to change. Learn how to manage anger and fear more effectively.
- Identify a person of difficult disposition and think about how one might tackle such a person differently. Experiment with different approaches.
- Develop profiles of how you act at work and how you act at home.
   Examine the differences in the way one behaves in different environments and see if one can adapt any ways of behaving from one environment to another.
- Examine whether one has difficulty advertising transformation and why.
   Does one require presentation skills training? Does one feel that one does not know the reasons for transformation? Talk to the manager and engage help in dealing with the real issue.
- Be prepared to develop one's skills outside the working environment.
   Take strong positive personal action so that one can adapt to changes that may confront one in the future.
- Identify one's passions in life, and see if one can build expertise in this.
   This will provide security, whatever happens in one's current job or organization.
- Together with a mentor, focus on the changes for which one has been responsible for at work. Discuss how you dealt with the situations, what one might do differently and how this relates to one's personal strengths and limitations in this area.
- Identify the major repetitive, routine procedures in the department. At
  one's next team meeting brainstorm new and different approaches to
  these tasks. Experiment with such approaches to test the efficiency.
- Talk to a mentor about a work project where unforeseen circumstances forced a change of approach to achieve your objectives. Review the modifications that you made, and think about what you might have done differently. Make a list of possible alternative courses of action.
- Find a colleague or friend whom you regard as open to new approaches and different ways of doing things. Talk to them about your job objectives and the different ways in which you could meet these. Could you change your current approach?
- Identify a major change that will be introduced into your area in the near future. List the benefits and drawbacks that you believe it will have, and



develop an implementation plan that will maximise the benefits and overcome the drawbacks.

- Identify a change that will impact on you and your colleagues in the near future. Develop an honest, open way of selling the idea to your colleagues.
- Review your area of the business and identify a change that could improve performance in this area. Identify the processes and key benefits, and develop a plan for communicating and implementing this change to every individual who would be affected.
- Review the benefits and drawbacks of a major change that will be introduced in one's area in the near future, and establish how it helps to meet the business strategy. Develop a way to positively communicate the change to your team, and get feedback from them on their attitudes to the change.
- Volunteer to pilot a new procedure, process or method of working.
- Work on a project with someone who is responsible for implementing major transformation. Determine how the changes are communicated and gain the commitment of others.
- Develop success criteria to be used for the measurement of the impact of a project designed to enhance transformation. Include attitudinal as well as factual measures.
- Engage in the management and implementation of a major transformation project from start to completion. Seek advice from colleagues with relevant experience and draw up a list of criteria for successful implementation of the change. After implementation, review the change against one's criteria.
- Pay a visit to an organization that has successfully implemented major transformation and interview the key people involved who hold key posts.
- Approach effective project managers with the view to learn what was done in order to implement change.
- Develop counselling skills to assist others to cope more effectively with the negative impact of change.
- Make a study of literature (e.g. Bill Gates, Thatcher) and learn about what attitudes they adapted as well as what skills and strategies they employed in leading effectively toward transformation.



- Discuss with a colleague a successful and entrepreneurial business within the industry. Try to identify the risks that they have taken and how these have paid off.
- Study the business press, focusing particularly on major transitions and changes. Note how competitors dealt with these. Prepare a report on the variety of ways in which a similar merger / redundancy / acquisition / relocation or other programme might have been dealt with.
- Draw up a list of five common problems at work. For each, write down as many different ways as possible, to approach the problem. Contrast these with current work practices. Identify realistic alternatives. Could you incorporate these into your existing approach?

# **Self-responsibility Development Guidelines**

- Active focusing on goals as being integrated to learning and take responsibility.
- Prioritise an important meeting, pause and ask:" What do I want to initiate here?" What can I contribute to add value to this meeting?
- Develop work action plans that enable you to systematically work through tasks that need to be achieved.
- Engage with a mentor to discuss one's progress as team leader.
- Locate someone who has a reputation for leading others, has a wide range of skills, knows much about the organization and has a wide range of contacts and use the person as a role model.
- Whenever encountering difficulties, focus on the possible benefits of overcoming them.
- Believe that challenges can be met and live the life one choose:
  - (a) Take actions where possible. Make an impact in those areas where influence is possible. Whilst one cannot dictate how a colleague should behave, one can control one's own performance by asking for the information required to do the job.
  - (b) Learn to let go.

- Refrain from trying to control situations over which there is no control e.g. a traffic jam; a procrastinating supervisor).
  - (c) Rehearse powerful performances.

When facing a situation in which one will be called upon to present ideas or take a position, one should spend a few minutes visualising oneself performing before the group. Evoke the sensations associated with personal power e.g. imagine oneself as smart, competent, articulate, poised, successful and admired.

- Progressively engage in tasks with more challenging but nevertheless achievable goals.
- One will be committed to the organization only to the extent that one's values blend with the values of the organization. It may be time for one to consider the following two sets of values:
  - (a) Clarify own values what really motivates you? Compare this with the mission and values of the organization.
  - (b) Is there a meaningful way for one to add value to this organization? Will you achieve your medium and long-term career objectives? Is there purpose in one's current employment?
- Engage in negotiations with the manager with a view to the areas of one's job in which one can act without supervision and take personal responsibility for the outcomes.
- Request the manager to delegate a new task to one on a regular basis.
- Practice "self-affirming" exercises every day, e.g. "I am responsible for ..." Say this to yourself in front of the mirror several times.
- Admit weakness or not knowing something. Perceive openness as strength.
- If a task cannot be performed at the requested time, either renegotiate a new time or renegotiate the task.
- The following exercise is an excellent way to become more aware of one's feelings and enables one to become aware of the role emotions play in work life.
  - (a) At different times during the day, or at the end of each workday, commit to write what feelings were experienced during the preceding hours, as well as their origin.



(b) After a few weeks, or possibly a month, examine the written entries and re-look your emotions. It is found that certain emotions occur more often than other emotions, e.g. does anger occur more frequently than other emotions?

It is found that the same emotions occur time and again as a result of the scope cause for example constant anxiety causing to delay involving work orders. In following the examination of the emotions as reflected in the written entries, conclusions can be drawn in terms of what action should be taken in order to bring about change, for example, to alleviate anxiety. Should this not be the situation, for example as in the case of the fear of being laid off work, then one may attempt resolve the problem by addressing the underlying causes so that such emotion does not negatively interfere with the workday. Undertake a difficult situation which one has been avoiding and confront the individual(s) on the issue.

- Give thought to those instances when one has been criticised. List the
  constructive ways to respond; list negative or emotional ways of
  responding. Discuss one's most typical response with close and critical
  colleagues. Seek a method that will lessen one's level of personal
  sensitivity.
- Learn from constructive criticism and refrain from dwelling on mistakes. Ensure that one focus on the day at hand. Whilst fretting about the past and worrying about the future, one is wasting time during which knowledge and skills could have been acquired. Log how much time one spends thinking about the past, present and future in any one day. Is this in perspective?
- Identify the way in which one perceives events and people. Does one sense and perceive the events of one's life in a predominantly positive or negative light. Listen to one's language and consider the attitudes on adopts. With regards to a protracted but ultimately constructive staff meeting, would one make the comment: 'What a waste of time", or "It took a while, but we accomplished a lot"?
- Remedy negative self-communing. If one's constant trading (judgments, opinions, and beliefs) is predominantly negative, consciously cause such behaviour and endeavour to modify it. Select an everyday situation and

draw up a written list of one's positive and pessimistic beliefs one have about such situation. Choose one appealing positive statement and practise using it in new situations. Write the statement down on a card which is placed in a prominent position so that it can be focused upon twice every day.

- Use motivational statements to convince oneself that one possesses the capabilities and the drive to accomplish a particular task. Make use of the following exercise:
  - (a) Each morning as you first sit down at your desk, give yourself one motivational statement. Examples: "I can get done all of that which I have to do today", or "I am going to have a very productive day."
  - (b) Each time you are given a new assignment; give yourself a few motivational self-statements: e.g. "I can do whatever it takes to get this assignment done" or "I can stick with it until it is successfully accomplished."
  - (c) Call out: "I feel great!" Do this with passion and repeat it five times. Let your communication reflect your enthusiasm.
  - (d) Put one's most powerful motivational statements on index cards: "I know what to do to start this task and finish it successfully," "I've got what it takes to stick with it," "Nothing will get in the way of my getting this job done." Place the cards where they can readily be seen, and read the statements to one self whenever feeling flagging motivation.
- Apply productive self-criticism the key to self-motivation.
- Set oneself meaningful goals. When motivated, one has a clear sense of direction. Set challenging, realistic goals.
- Indulge in the mental imagery of oneself taking action and by such indulgence, galvanizing oneself to pursuit such action in reality. Carry out the following exercise:
  - (a) Relax and become calm by closing the eyes and breathing deeply.
  - (b) Conjure up in one's mind the task for which one is feeling uninspired. Compile a written evaluation for an employee, for example. Vividly focus on the sensations one would experience in such a situation. Visualise oneself at one's desk, feel the pages of

- the evaluation form under the fingers, and hear telephones ringing and people talking in the corridor.
- (c) Imagine struggling with the task. The form is in front of one. You imagine starting to write something and then deleting it. Upon moving to the next paragraph of the evaluation document, one is unable to write anything. One feels frustrated; visual the possibility of pacing around one's office.
- (d) Imagine oneself regaining composure. Return and sit at the desk, feel calm and in control, and begin writing down one section of the form.
- (e) Imagine oneself succeeding. Imagine oneself working through the evaluation form, completing each section with constructive criticism and suggestions for improvement.
- (f) Imagine, then, feeling good. The report has been completed and one is please that this point has been reached. One is proud that one had such useful things to say?
- (g) By self communicating in one's mind in terms of the step-by-step approach to the task from commencement to completion, one feels justified in considering oneself to be successful i.e. the task has been accomplished. This then spurs one on to undertake the task in reality.
- Develop a feeling of self-worthiness to what has been achieved.
   Recognise that one has done a good job, and that one is capable of repairing what requires repair. This acknowledgement fills one with the confidence, optimism, and enthusiasm to proceed on with the rest of the report.
- Celebrate the achievement on the surpassing of a challenging goal.
   Invite trusted acquaintances to join the celebration as encouragement and for the pleasure of all.
- Maintain a written logbook of one's negative self-communing. Take note
  of how often negative self-communing occurs, under what circumstances
  and what one is telling about oneself. Recall one's negative disposition
  prior to the exercise and take hold of the evident disposition.
- Subject oneself to a difficult and challenging exercise in which ones ability to influence others is tested to the full.



 Together with one's Manager and/or mentor, review one's work output and action plans. Discuss their compatibility with corporate goals and opportunities. Make requests from opportunities to improve.

#### How to reach level 4 and 5

- Accept a major project or task which must be completed. Identify all the obstacles, objectives and difficulties that may be encountered while attempting to achieve. Hold face-to-face discussions with interested parties so that the situation can be understood from their perspective.
   Request colleagues for suggestions to overcome problems. Develop strategies which inter alia, include a range of options for overcoming objections, for achieving the objective.
- Learn emotional self-awareness since this would allow one to use emotions as valuable sources of insight about oneself, others as well as the events and situations around one:
  - (a) Perform regular spot checks on emotions.

Perform during the course of each day, brief but frequent spot checks on one's feelings/emotional state. Make use of one's physical or emotional state in order to direct one's attention to one's emotional state. Should it be noticed, for example that one has adopted a slouching posture or that one is clenching one's teeth, cease doing so and attempt to discover by intuition, the underlying reasons for one's emotional state, for example, overwhelmed, exhausted, withdrawn? It is imperative to pay attention, note to and put a name to the feelings as such information is revealed throughout the day.

(b) Connect feelings to their sources.

Once an emotional state has been identified (I am worried, I feel discouraged), associate it with a specific source or link it with the issue, concern or situation to which it may be related. How often have feelings been expressed, yet when asked the origin thereof the response is a shrug shoulders in wonder? Drawing connections between our feelings provides opportunities for insight, influence and ultimate integration with our inner life.

(c) Expand vocabulary relative to emotion.



If one's vocabulary of emotions is limited, e.g. happy, sad, angry, and frustrated - endeavour to expand one's identification and description of the intensity and range of one's emotions. Emotions should be thought of as existing on a continuum from mild to strong. Place different words at different points on that continuum in describing the degree of intensity of an emotion.

- Express one's feelings and gut-level instincts, allowing them to be used as an integral part of one's daily actions and interactions:
  - (a) Express a full range of emotions.

If you are more proficient at expressing anger, practise expressing enthusiasm or appreciation. One might begin doing this verbally or in writing; graduate to expressing oneself to a trusted friend, colleague or relative.

(b) Integrate feelings into every interaction.

Many think about the expression of feelings as a specific event – setting up a special time to discuss or arranging a meeting with a trained professional. Rather make the impression of one's feelings as much a natural part of one's daily interactions as the expression of your thoughts or opinions.

(c) Show appreciation to those around you.

Emotional energy is contagious: On at least once a day, express to a person in one's life circle, in what specific way one appreciates such a person. Look directly at the person when greeting. Compliment those in one's company with a genuine expression of gratitude. Comment for example on their skill or their assistance. Notice their emotions as a result.

- Help create a climate that fosters success by doing the following:
  - (a) Inject humour regularly as a way to keep perspective and health;
  - (b) Reward personal balance;
  - (c) Foster creativity;
  - (d) Point out and nurture moments of synergy and collaboration;
  - (e) Construct and maintain an open, lively, synergistic environment;
  - (f) Grasp at any opportunity to promote enthusiasm;
  - (g) Live by the self-fulfilling prophecy: predicting success enhances success:



- (h) Establish support for the ascent challenges, setbacks and adversity.
- Work towards a more positive attitude. List three situations in which one
  has felt negative. Thereafter concentrate on all the possible benefits, or
  advantages that could have been gained. Pursue the search for
  opportunities and challenges rather than threats. Whenever oneself
  sense that one is debating negatively, pause and consider the possible
  benefits and opportunities.
- Identify those situations in the past, in which one has displayed most drive and commitment. What were the key conditions in those situations? Can one identify a way in which to incorporate these into one's current job?
- Try to view challenges and setbacks from a problem-solving perspective: look for solutions, rather than focusing on the problems and harping on why things can not be done. Focus on the development strategies formulated for developing one's innovation competency.
- Choose an emotional mentor: a person who serves as a motivational model, an inspirational hero. Frequently consult the mentor with the view to raise one's motivation.
- Set a target every month for the improvement of one's management skill.
   Make a note in a diary of listing main areas to be improved and allocate one per month, starting immediately.
- Let others know that one is looking for increased responsibility, development and challenges.
- Spend time reflecting on those in one's life who believed in one, provided encouragement and applauded one's capability. Try to visualise them and imagine a repetition of what was mentioned to you. Visualise oneself doing the same to another.
- Establish which skills and competencies are valued both for more senior roles as well as for future business demands and develop a plan to acquire these skills.



# 3. Leadership Communication Development Guidelines

#### How to reach level 3

- ° Come to terms with the two basic truths of leadership communication.
  - Leadership communication has almost nothing to do with talking and almost everything to do with listening. Communication does not equal talking: big talkers are usually poor communicators.
     Leadership communication refers to the ability of a leader to create understanding and to build relationships within a group of people. It is easy to convey information, but much more difficult to create the understanding of that information.
  - Leadership communication is not something optional that one can decide
    to do if and when one has the time: you are doing it anyway, and the only
    choice is that of how effectively one whishes to communicate. The only
    true leaders are communicating leaders. Without effective two-way
    communication, no manager will be able to lead others towards worldclass performance.

# Practise the process of becoming an effective leader of the team.

Does one effectively leading one's your employees towards better performance? If one is not absolutely sure of the approach to achieve this, the following step-by-step process can be followed as a guide to achieve higher levels of performance within the team. This process is based on meeting the basic - but most importantly - communication needs of any employee:

# Step 1: What is my job and how am I doing?

The primary information required of any employee is to really understand what is expected of the employee. The question "What is my job and how am I performing?" is the first in a series of questions that a leader should answer in order to lead employees to perform more competently.

This first step is about much more than quarterly performance contracting and review sessions. This involves the role which one as leader fulfils in order to



provide employees a sense of purpose, and an understanding of the contribution which they <u>can</u> make.

Ensure that they understand what is expected of them. Allow the employees to discuss their questions and concerns about their job. Provide feedback on how they perform. Provide guidance and coaching when performance is below expectations. Recognise, praise and reward commendable performance.

Consider to interaction with employees who directly report to one. How much time is spent on a one-on-one interaction with each employee?

- Discussing job responsibilities reaching agreement with the individual in terms of personal targets?
- Discussing procedures to be followed within the work situation?
- Listening to the employee's suggestions or recommendations concerning job responsibilities?
- Providing feedback on individual performance?
- Explaining to individuals why they are of value to the team, and how they can add the most value?
- Discussing how the individual can improve own performance?
- Give acknowledgement for good work?
- Listening to the employee's problems in coping with tasks?
- Visiting employees in their offices or workplaces?
- Availability to employees to discuss work-related problems?

These elements are the first step in becoming a communicating leader, able to lead employees to improving their performance.

### Step 2: Does anybody care?

As prerequisite to be productive and committed to hard work, employees must know that they are being valued and cared for. It is important for the communicating leader to understand the employee as an individual and to respect personality and cultural differences. True understanding means standing where the other person stands to perceive what the other person perceives. It is this characteristic that distinguishes an excellent leader from a good leader.

One can be tested in terms of this characteristic to become a communicating leader:

- Is one too busy to investigate the reasons why an employee seems demotivated and unhappy?
- Does one believe that the personal problems of employees are something one would rather not know about?
- Is one afraid to confront problems or conflict between employees?
- Does one find excuses not to put oneself in the shoes of an employee?
- Is one the type of leader who seldom asks the people reporting to one to provide feedback on the type of leader one is?
- Does one prefer to keep a distance between oneself and your subordinates?
- Is it difficult for one to show compassion and concern for the feelings and needs of those within one's area of responsibility?

If the answer to any of the questions was in the affirmative, one should reconsider one's approach as a leader. Communicating leaders are caring and show that they care.

They consider the time that they spend on this aspect as an integral part of their jobs and as a valuable investment in their people. A communicating leader values people and assists them in the performance of their work, instead of seizing the initiative and personally completing the task.

# Step 3: How are we doing and where do we fit in?

Does one understand how to strategically align one's team with the rest of the company? Is one able to impart this vision? This third step in becoming a communicating leader is central to the success of any modern organization.

Keep the following in mind:



The company vision does not apply to one's team. The vision statement is too general and non-specific. One should be able to place this vision in the context of what one and one's team is doing. The same principle applies to everything else: targets, performance and other company initiatives.

More importantly, one should be able to get consensus on the direction in which the team is moving. "What should we do to deliver excellent service, and how are we going to get there?" is a question that only the leader and the team can answer.

In doing so, one should ensure that one's communication role includes:

- Clarifying the purpose and role of the team in the company.
- Creating a shared picture of where the team should be in a year, two years or in five years time.
- Ensuring an understanding of the specific goals and objectives that one's team should reach to be successful.
- Providing enough opportunities to discuss the bigger company picture in an ever-changing environment and to clarify how these changes affect your team's goals.
- Listening to one's employees in order to determine their external awareness of information external to the company acquisition, their questions, suggestions and fears.
- Discussing how the behaviour of one's team influences the rest of the company and how the team should interact with other teams/divisions and service organizations to deliver the final service to the end user.

Even if every member of the team were to know exactly where the team is heading as well as why, it remains crucial for one as a communicating leader to provide daily feedback on their progress – yet another step in becoming a communicating leader.

Imagine a five-day hike through an unfamiliar area. The hikers know exactly where they wish to be on day five, and although they are unable to see the ultimate destination, they constantly discuss the most appropriate direction to take. They require feedback from their guide, who is more experienced in hiking



and is more familiar with the terrain or is able to recognise landmarks. The communicating leader should be familiar with the strategic environment and be able to understand progress according to the organizations strategy. The promising of feedback motivates the hikers and keeps them focused on what all have to achieve.

### Step 4: How can I help?

The fourth step in becoming a communicating leader is the ultimate test in separating true leaders from traditional managers.

The proof of being an excellent communicating leader is in what one does with the input, questions, ideas and suggestions from one's team members. The objective as a leader should be to create an environment in which one's employees can freely express their concerns, make suggestions and help with the creative process of problem solving. One should help the employees take personal ownership to find ways to improve their performance.

The way in which one as a leader respond to input from employees and makes use of their ideas in other forums shows commitment and sincerity to improve their performance. By carefully listening to one's employees and by acting on their suggestions, one will do more than just show that one values them - one will obtain solutions to problems and so lead the team to achieve world-class performance.

#### How to reach level 4 and 5

Leading change by facilitating transformation

In an ever-changing business environment it is crucial for every leader to effectively fulfil the leadership role in order to facilitate effective transformation.

Change is situational and external - it is the new building, the new team award policy or the reduction of staff numbers. Changes like these happen outside the combat and influence individual employee, as opposed to the change (transformation) that must transpire within. It is a



simple enough matter to announce a change, but more difficult to help others understand and pursue the required transformation.

Transformation is the psychological process people go through to come to terms with the new external situation. It is internal, traumatic and should be facilitated only by leaders. The only method to facilitate effective transformation is through constant and effective leadership communication. Transformation usually requires letting go with old beliefs and habits, to cross a neutral zone filled with uncertainty and, to start with a new beginning. Employees must be led by one whom they trust to make the crossing. Without this, they will resist or even try to sabotage the change.

The absolute minimum requirements to effectively facilitate transformation and to help employees cope with change are the following four P's:

- Clarify and communicate the PURPOSE. Explain why this change is necessary and how it will add value to the Company and the lives of its employees.
- After having understood the purpose, paint a PICTURE of the "new" in order to reduce uncertainty and to provide employees something to hold on to. Disseminate as much detail and information as possible in order to create an acquaintance with the "new".
- Provide a PLAN. Follow a phased or step-by-step approach to help employees cope meaningfully with the total change.
- Assign to each employee a PART to play. It is essential that employees should understand their roles and functions and that they believe they have a valuable contribution to make.

In the case of leaders within the organization's overall transformation process, the following criteria should apply. Measure oneself against each of the following statements:

- I constantly develop a need for change;
- o I am able to create a new vision for my team;



- I replace old with new and do not leave my employees in fear and uncertainty;
- I motivate employees beyond their expectations;
- o I focus on crucial issues and do not tolerate insignificant issues;
- o I am recognised as a positive leader.

# Use the appropriate channels for relationship building

Leadership communication is all about the manner in which one builds relationships with employees and colleagues. The preferred and most effective communication channel to do this is one-on-one or face-to-face discussions with one's employees and colleagues. This channel provides the opportunity to listen and to both provide and receive feedback to create understanding. Other personal communication channels include:

- Daily start-up meetings
- Cross-functional workshops
- Formal line briefing sessions
- Video conferences

### Practise good listening skills

The problem with listening is that it is not seen as a problem, since we rarely know that we have not listened successfully.

Prior to the commencement of a meeting give thought to listening habits and listening skills. Measure the habits and skills against the way in which the Chinese listen. The Chinese symbol for the word "listening" consists of:

- Eyes (look directly at the person being listened to and make eyecontact);
- Ears (hear what is being said);
- A straight line (to give undivided attention to what is being said);
   and
- A heart (you have to want to understand the speaker).

The most effective listening style is empathetic listening. Create and encourage an atmosphere in which employees and colleagues can both



express as well as solve their problems. Empathetic listening includes the sincere commitment to understand how the person one listens to feels about an issue in question. The fact that one is cognisant of the problem from the other person's point of view means that one understands it - it does not mean that one would necessarily agree with it. By repeating what the speaker says in one's own words, one can check one's level of understanding. Once the speaker is understood one can make relevant suggestions.

People who master the skill of empathetic listening are seen as strong leaders and are generally respected. Do you know a person who mastered the skill of empathetic listening? Study the way in which the person listens, understands and only then responds. Two major barriers to this kind of listening are prejudice and hasty responses. Remember the following two guidelines:

- Recognise any prejudice towards the speaker and make an effort to disregard such prejudice. Be an open-minded listener.
- Beware not to anticipate the speakers reply before full completion of such a reply. The most common barrier to listening is mentally preparing an answer while the other person is speaking.

### Practise effective conflict handling skills

Many will go to great lengths in attempts to avoid confrontation, or often experience conflict as indefensible and destructive. As a communicating leader, one should work at changing the team's attitude towards conflict.

It is the essence of corporate health to bring a problem out into the open as soon as possible, even if this entails confrontation. Dealing effectively with conflict, whether with an individual or within a team, lies at the heart of leadership communication. As a result, one should actively encourage confrontation with issues about which there is disagreement - within the team.

Make use of the following guidelines in developing the mediating skills that one should master in order to manage conflict effectively:



- Acknowledge the conflict situation;
- Maintain a neutral position;
- Keep the discussion issue-oriented, not person-oriented;
- Facilitate exploration rather than responsibility;
- Focus on interests rather than on positions;
- Generate agreement rather than decision;
- Be wary of the temptation to wield power;
- Understand the dynamics of the situation.

# 4. Purpose building development guidelines

- Assist the team to create a vision that will support the overall vision of the organization. Invite others to assist with support and suggest ways in which the vision can be reached.
- Ensure that the goals of one's work unit are consistent with strategic company goals and assist the team to understand how their jobs contribute to company and corporate goals.
- Devise creative ways of communicating the vision. Communicate enthusiastically about the mission within the team and beyond.
- Explain to the employees the value of their contributions to the unit's goals.
- Request team members to list their understanding of each business objective. Attach the written ideas to a wall and compare their differences:
  - o What are the similarities and differences?
  - o What are the implications arising from those differences?
  - What action must be taken so that the team can improve its alignment with the organization's strategy?
- Ask the team to provide feedback with regards to how confident they are about their goals and objectives, and how one could be more effective in providing them with clear sense of direction.
- Enlighten the employees as to why their work is important to the company and how it supports the team's objectives. Share with them



one's goals and pressures, and give them insight into the demands being placed on a leader.

- Discuss the teams' aims and purpose. Link the outcomes to business, site and company vision. Involve the team in generating a compelling approach to these outcomes missions.
- While pursuing an activity or project during which difficulty is experienced
  in gaining the commitment of others, arrange a meeting with each person
  individually in order to understand their points of view. Determine to
  proceed with the activity or project in such a way that the needs of all are
  met.
- Discuss with other leaders how they summon up commitment towards a shared purpose.
- Make a study of how other organizations disseminate their strategic direction to their employees.
- Find a visionary speaker and analyse those aspects of their presentations which generate enthusiasm and commitment. Make use of these techniques and adapt them to one's own style.
- Communicate constantly the purpose of the organization why are we at this location?
  - Define the pinnacle. What is the purpose of the organization? Answer the question: "Why do we exist?" All must be involved in communications. Reach agreement on the imperatives.
  - One who questions the value of purpose should imagine spending their life working for an organization which is without a purpose.
  - Consistently articulate an uplifting, inspirational, and optimistic vision. While purpose provides the reasons for one's existence, vision provides answers to where one is heading. Involve everyone in creation of purpose, but take it upon oneself to keep it alive and kicking.
  - Align all systems to the mountain. Reject systems that induce helplessness. Monitor one's alignment.
  - Create a culture in your team that is aligned with the culture of the organization. A strong, clearly articulated culture influences and provides a framework for people's behaviour and choices.



- Align the individuals' and the organizations' purposes with each other.
   Have and show genuine interest in the team's success.
- Make success a journey, not a pill. Reward strength of character over quick-fix solutions. Make it clear that management believes in enduring solutions and strategies, and not magic-bullet solutions.
- Identify someone with whom one has regular contact and is known to be good at building commitment. Make a study of that person, focusing on:
  - Physical characteristics;
  - Behaviour (responses);
  - Specific skills;
  - Use of language;
  - o Timing.
- Conduct a presentation to the staff on the "global picture" as it relates to:
  - The strategic business direction of the organization and its implications for the future of one's division;
  - Worldwide trends and initiatives and how they may affect the company as well as one's customers;
  - How worldwide trends and initiatives may affect one's field locally, as well as your customers.
  - o Trends in one's customer's businesses and markets.
- Invite others to assist with the identification of the short- and long-term implications of the information one presented on behalf of the organization. Use these insights when informing the planning division of one's activities.
- Investigate the relative merits of directive versus more consultative styles
  of management. Experiment with them and find out which of the styles is
  best to suit the different situations and with different staff.
- Arrange a meeting with the team to examine the values they believe
  drive an effective team. Ask members of the team to rate their team
  against how these values are displayed. Evaluate the action received
  annually to get closer to the ideal.
- Ensure that the team understands the critical success factors, i.e. what has to be done to achieve your mission and vision.



- Talk to others who are regarded as successful people managers.
   Discuss how they set purpose-building behaviour in their units, and use these insights to do the same.
- Constantly communicate to one's team the organizations direction and strategy as well as the types of change that are necessary. Challenge and debate with any team member not demonstrating the desired behaviour and ask the team to challenge one as leader.

- Devise a plan to develop the strategies and goals of one's team so that
  those can be presented to other units showing how one's strategies
  were developed to link with those of other units and support their
  performance and how you can continually improve your contributions to
  the whole organization.
- Review commitment to core values. Demand examples of specific behaviour which are evident in themselves and demonstrate that the values are enthusiastically pursued.
- Clarify values regularly in order to remain conversant with company values.
- Meet with other leaders and find out how they gain cooperation and commitment from their staff.
- Attempt to identify what motivates the various individuals in one's team.
   Ask the team members to discuss these situations when they felt motivated or demotivated. Do not assume that what motivates one will necessarily motivate others.
- Should one belong to a community organization, assist the organization
  to re-examine their mission and their short- and long-term goals.
  Introduce into the discussion of the demographic trends in the area and
  knowledge related to the community's future. Should the community
  organization be tackling urgent problems, practise motivational speaking
  skills to recruit volunteers, raise funds and so on.



- Plan a workshop or meeting in order to ensure that all staff understands how their work contributes to the organization's vision, core competencies, strategies and goals.
- Develop a vision statement for the team to observe for the next few years. If one is a manager of managers, involve the management team.
   Use this statement as a foundation in planning and setting of goals.
- Consider the following:
  - o Who are one's customers?
  - o What products/services does one generate?
  - o What are one's capabilities?
  - o What gives one the leading edge?
  - o Who are one's competitors and what do they generate?

Prior to writing out the vision statement, try creative ways of illustrating it, e.g. drawing, painting, or even acting it out in the company of others. How does the visual presentation impact on oneself and on others? What does one favour or dislike about the picture? What changes can one bring out?

Once the above has been completed write down the vision statement. Be short and to the point, and make sure that the team's vision supports the company's business objectives.

# 5. Motivational capacity development guidelines

- After having successfully completed a task or project, share the resultant feelings of satisfaction with the team. Give recognition in particular to those who may have contributed to the success.
- How confident is one in the following situations?
  - Doing a formal presentation to high profile persons.
  - o Chairing a departmental meeting.
  - o Convincing the CEO of one's specific ideas.
  - Confronting others on work-related issues.
  - Defending one's subordinates or colleagues' decisions in a critical forum.



Identify the areas in which one should develop greater confidence. List the specific skills and knowledge you think you need, where and how you can acquire these and who can help.

- Identify a colleague or a friend who motivates others effectively.
- Believe that one can meet challenges and live the life which one chooses.
- Review previous powerful performances.
- When you face a situation in which you will be called upon to present ideas or take a position, visualize yourself performing before the group. Summon up the feelings one would associate with personal power. Imagine one-self as smart, competent, articulate, poised, successful and admired.
- Identify a person who comes across as self-confident. Spend some time
  with the person during working hours. Identify the ingredients of the
  person's success and consider how one could adapt oneself.
- Make a note of recent situations in which one has been either, non-assertive, e.g. nervous, passive or aggressive. Imagine how one could behave differently if faced with the same situation. Identify a forthcoming situation in which one wishes to be assertive, and make a note of any action one should take to be assertive.
- To motivate one's team, start with oneself, thus:
  - Make a list of that which will make one feel happy or uplifted. Share these with one's team and ask them also to compile a list.
  - Arrange inspirational items around the workplace in the office, factory, at reception, and even in the toilets! Change them regularly so they remain fresh and always generate conversation.
  - Remember that people become more inspired when they get in contact with what makes them personally feel that way.
  - Draw up a list of some of the examples of how one has encouraged colleagues at work during the past week - and any opportunities that one may have missed.
- Spread news about the team's work and successes both inside and outside the organization.



- Seize every opportunity to promote the work of one's team and its members to other teams and their leaders.
- Make use of opportunities to involve colleagues in one's activities, especially in areas where they can contribute or where there may be a learning opportunity to improve their confidence.
- Find creative and enjoyable ways to celebrate team victories together.
   Use the imagination of one's colleagues in developing good ideas. This will encourage the team members and give them the opportunity to build confidence in their social skills.
- Celebrate the successes of other team members.
- Make a list of the specific ways in which cooperation with others influences the way in which one's team performs, whether positively or negatively. Identify areas which require improvement. Discuss these with the manager and consider whether or not a strategy can be developed to guide the team closer to the ideal.
- Conduct regular internal team morale surveys to be able to assess how satisfied and happy the team members are.
- Recognise the team's contribution toward those outside the team. Grant credit publicly to others. Ensure that others become aware of those who performed commendable work.
- Be sure to show appreciation to those who provide assistance, particularly if there were a possibility of inconvenience to the helpers.
- Keep other team members informed about any action one has taken and which may affect their work. Be sensitive to decisions which could possibly rebound on them.
- Practise positive responses with those within one's personal company.
   Demonstrate enthusiasm. Ask friends, family and colleagues to rate you on a scale of 1-10 in terms of enthusiasm and plan or try to move up the scale by at least one point.
- Ask the team to provide feedback in terms of one's effectiveness to motivate them in the past. At what point was one more or less effective?
- What action/s should be taken to effect improvement?
- Bear in mind and practice the following points:



- Make a concerted effort to understand the needs of the team members;
- Clearly explain the results expected of the team members in terms of the work;
- Elicit their ideas and suggestions concerning the objectives and work;
- Encourage and support the team members to make their own decisions where feasible;
- Reward good work;
- Inform the team of specific expectations; include the objectives to be accomplished as well as the deadlines. Encourage the team members to advise one why they are possibly not being in a position to complete an assignment in the given time.

- Instil a habit of celebrating success, either at a departmental level or an individual level. Give recognition to those who have performed exceptionally.
- Put strategies in place to influence employees to change their behaviour:
  - Encourage continual improvement. Recognise and reward small improvements. There are no limits to an employee's job performance.
  - Use a collaborative style. Employees will accept change more easily
    if they take part in the identification and the choice of ideas for
    improvement.
  - Break difficult tasks down into simpler tasks. In this way, discouraged employees are more likely to attain success. Achieving success on simpler tasks encourages them to take on those more difficult ones.

# 6. Information capacity development guidelines

- Study relevant trade and professional journals to stay abreast of trends and issues.
- Be receptive to incoming communications. How effective is one at ensuring that others receive the information which they require?
  - Are telephone calls returned promptly?



- o Are e-mails prioritised and dealt with?
- Does one forward, information that could be useful to others?
- o Is the information which has been obtained, been properly laid out and readily accessible – such as information on those with certain sets of skill, the special expertise of support departments, products and services, etc.?
- Does one take into consideration what would be the most effective way of communicating in particular situations?
- o When working off site, how frequently does one keep in touch with those in one's department? Is it found that one is becoming distanced from one's department?
- Information is received in large quantities and from a variety of sources.
   Such information requires evaluating before it can be used. Ask oneself the following questions as one listens to a conversation or reads written material:
  - What is the person trying to communicate? What are the meanings of the words? What is the tone of voice and body language?
  - o Is there perhaps another meaning underlying the message?
  - o How does it relate to one? How does it relate to others?
  - Is this the complete story or selected parts of a story? Does one have all the necessary information?
  - Are the points made supported by facts? Does the information make sense?
  - How does this relate to information one already has? How does this information relate to past, present, or future events?
  - o Can one use the information? Is the information credible? Is the speaker or author credible?
  - Is all the communication or only parts thereof, helpful?
- Explain a work-related problem to a friend or member of one's family and ask them to pose questions that will test one's understanding.
- Learn how to skim through documents quickly in order to extract the key information.
- When making a decision, make a list of every person who could be affected or who may have useful information that would make a



difference to the decision. Try to contact as many of these people as possible and listen to what they have to say.

- Take a problem that is concerning one at work. Find out how this type of problem is being dealt with by other departments or organizations.
   Attempt to use any of these methods to deal with one's problems.
- Read two daily newspapers to gain a balanced perspective on issues.
- Regularly ask members of one's team what they do, what processes they
  are engaged in and the types of information required to perform their
  jobs.
- Conduct an "information audit" in the team. Ask team members to review
  all the information that they receive within one week. Categorize the
  information and file under: "irrelevant for job". Together as a team review
  the items under each heading and attempt manage the information flows
  more efficiently.
- Ask the managers to facilitate one's understanding of the information they use to perform their jobs. In respect of team item request of the managers, the origin, the manner in which the information was used as well as the degree of its usefulness. Use the outcome of this meeting as an aid to establish one's own database.
- Interview those with whom one has regular dealings. Find out their occupations, their backgrounds, the skills they possess and how they may be able to offer such skills and experience to assist one in one's occupation.
- Identify someone considered to be well informed and who possesses key information and figures to share in business discussions. Establish their source of this information.
- Speed-read all information which one receives and learn to extract what is useful. Set up a filing system or database to store this information in a way that is easily accessible.
- When the manager gives the instructions, be sure that one knows precisely what one is supposed to do and why it should be done that particular way. Ask about the available resources as well as the deadline for completion. Ensure that one is aware of services of advice or guidance.



- Maintain a database on one's key customers. This must include their purchasing history, the key contact information and their roles, personal information and information relevant to their business. Update this database regularly.
- Know where to access all necessary policy and procedure manuals.
   Scan them and note the sections that one may need to read regularly.
   Identify the responsible person to ensure that the manuals are updated as well as when this was done.
- Enquire about business issues that may have an impact on one's job,
   e.g. product range, key competitors, market share issues and financial performance. Update one's knowledge regularly.
- Identify reports that are useful to one regarding the job. Extract key information from reports to store for future reference.
- Identify all the experts in the organization in one's field. Find out the nature of their work and their particular expertise.
- The next time one requires information, write down what it is that is required, and where and how to access it.
- Learn various skills on how to elicit information from others, e.g. self-disclosure, the testing of understanding, reflecting feelings.
- When confronted by a problem, ask oneself whether a procedure guide or other written material could provide the required assistance so that one gains the experience independently accessing the information.
- When in discussion with customers or with colleagues, listen to both the "facts" and "feelings" in their messages. At a later stage review the interventions one made that elicited particular types of data. How would one summaries both sets of messages in that interaction?
- Brainstorm with the team, ways of improving one's sources of information.

- Try to take part in some research or survey including data collection, analysis and the submission of recommendations.
- When in discussion with a customer, concentrate on listening to what they are saying and understanding their need. Ensure that one asks questions in order to understand the essence of what they are saying.



Apply similar active listening techniques in communicating with one's manager and colleagues.

- When reading a book or digesting written material, make notes of questions or insights developed and follow up the questions with further research.
- Ask your manager how the organization gathers data on market trends.
   Ensure that one understands:
  - The information sources used;
  - o How the information sources are organized and compiled;
  - What sources one should need in order to be most familiar with, in order to effectively analyse future trends.
- Enquire as to whether there is an expert on reference sources and materials who can assist one in future analytical effort.
- Find out how those from outside the organization view the issues with which the business is confronted with. Join an industry group such as the Chamber of Commerce, and develop an insight into others' perspective on one's business.
- Research the market open to the company and its profile product mix, marketing strategy, public image, and geographical spread - differs from that of its competitors, by engaging in discussions with business development experts.
- For each of the processes used by the team, identify processes that link with other teams. Find out how the other teams work, what issues prevail and what problems exist.
- Identify the key tasks and projects one is likely to be working on over the
  next six to twelve months. Make written notes of the key steps required
  for each project and the information one will require. Early in the process,
  ask for input and ideas from customers and key decision-makers. Build a
  relationship with them in order to ensure easy access to information as
  the project progresses.
- Compile a list of all possible contacts inside and outside the business that could provide one with information, and make a note of the kind of information which they could provide.



- Review a recent piece of work, taking account of resources, costs, budgets, outcomes, feedback etc. and then analyse its cost effectiveness.
- Ask the manager if one can run a project that undertakes specific research into an issue that is likely to have an impact on one's area in the future. The issue could have economic, political, technological, and social or market structure implications.
- Ask senior managers for their views on issues which are affecting or are likely to affect the business.
- Identify key suppliers who can provide the team with data which adds value to one's own work area.
- Conduct internal and external customer surveys. In one's questionnaire,
  use either the "strongly agree strongly disagree" format, or multiple
  choice questions as well as opportunities for free ranging answers. Test
  the questions on a sample population and attempt to establish if any
  issues are being omitted or questions inadequately framed.
- For projects in which a range of data is required, experiment with different diagnostic methods, including:
  - Telephone interviews
  - Face-to-face interviews
  - o Questionnaires
  - Focus group discussions
  - Desk research

Assess the quality and type of information which each method generates.

- When a colleague presents information which one believes lack/s credibility, ask questions to ensure that one has understood precisely?
   Should one still not be confident, seek third-party verification.
- When encountering a change or a problem, gather all the information required in order to address the situation, including intelligence from those involved in events that led to the current situation.



- Check that the value of information is worth the amount of time spent on gathering it. Use one's cost/benefit analysis to develop more costeffective methods if appropriate.
- Read the business section of the newspaper daily, underlining specific world events which could have repercussions on one's business. Discuss the implications with management colleagues.
- Build up a network of people and other resources to draw upon. Draw up a list of all acquaintances, their expertise, their contacts, and the type of information they are most likely to hold. Include those at all levels of the organization, one's customer's departments, friends from school, fellow church-goers, members of community groups, those who run delivery services and so on. What can one provide to those people on the list in return?

- Analyse how information is shared within the department. Begin by debriefing those who experience problems or opportunities that were missed owing to a lack of sufficient and accurate information. Pinpoint areas requiring improvement, and brainstorm creative ideas in the interest of change. Remember the golden rule of a brainstorm: do not criticize any ideas until they are all listed on a board or flip chart. Finally, target those ideas that are most suitable.
- Identify an area that has already set up systems for obtaining, storing and accessing data.
- Investigate the type of information gathered, what it is used for, how it is
  used and who has access to it. Examine the possibilities for using the
  ideas in one's own area.
- Ask the team to devise improved ways of obtaining the information they require more rapidly, e.g. what could be written down, that is currently gathered verbally?
- Identify obstruction and minor disturbances in the information flow in and out of one's department, and devise a plan to reduce these.
- Identify and analyse business opportunities and threats by getting information on key factors affecting current and potential operations.



- Read professional magazines, books, newspaper and articles that deal
  with trends that may impact on one's organization. Consider the
  implications for one's own department and any action that can possibly
  be taken.
- Develop a system in which others inside and outside the team can benefit from the information produced by such team. Discuss with the information technology experts, the possibilities of developing systems which may support better extraction, storage and transmission of data.
- Together with the manager, select a system, procedure or policy which should be evaluated. Access information that will facilitate the determination of its effectiveness; investigate all options and submit recommendations.
- Collect figures and statistical tables about the organization and its current situation. How are these related? List influences, both internal and external, that could have had an impact on these tables. Discuss with the manager, the conclusions one has made and then check the level of one's understanding.
- Ensure that one can access the information one requires in order to make decisions and solve problems. Think about setting processes in place that could aid the flow of information within one's team, department or organization. Regularly monitor this information.
- Build contact with those from organizations with similar market structures, products and processes. Find out how they view priorities for the future. Perform benchmark studies.
- Keep up to date with business, industry and sector issues through reading, networking and attending relevant seminars or courses so that one will always have a wider framework for considering issues.
- Talk to market researchers or other research departments and investigate the approaches they use to gather and analyse data.
- Choose an aspect of the business on which one would like more information.
- Gather such information by interviewing relevant people externally and internally.



- Create personal directories of information sources on as many issues as one is likely to encounter in the role. Regularly update and add to the directory.
- If one or one's colleague require to ask the same questions or research the same issue more than once, get better ways of capturing information.
- Carry out "action research" by communicating with academic institutions or industries whose interests are closest to issues relevant to one's team.
- Create an easily accessible team resource of relevant catalogues, brochures and advertisements.
- Develop active network groups to ensure that team members remain abreast of relevant information that may affect their jobs.
- Locate existing network groups that will add value to one's work, and take part in their activities.

# 7. Conceptual ability development guidelines

- Study different ways to improve one's thinking. This will help one to "extract" brief experiences that relate to the current problem.
- Ask colleagues whose analytical abilities are admired about particular problem- solving techniques.
- Take a challenging problem which one has kept in abeyance. Perform a "mind mapping" exercise on it to develop emerging themes.
- Access information on case studies of organizations. Analyse the key themes or issues of the cases.
- List the six most troublesome problems currently confronting one at work.
   Try to identify the major causes of each. Are any of them related? Could taking particular action affect several outcomes? Approach each problem in the context of the organization as a whole rather than as an isolated issue.
- Interview a member of a corporate strategy department. Find out the key aspects of the person's role, how the data they use is collected and how future scenarios are developed.
- Identify and make use of as many creative tools as possible, such as meta-planning, visioning reversal ("how do we not do ... ") and



- excursions (pick up a random object and use word association to generate ideas to solve a problem).
- Build networks in areas and functions of the organization which one would like to know more about.
- Ask the manager to be seconded to another department in order to learn about a particular business process.
- Whenever a suggestion is offered, find a way to build on it or extract the kernel of an implementable solution. Learn to perceive the gem within the idea.
- Develop active listening skills so that you obtain or find the underlying issues and ideas that shape the bigger picture.
- Use the COI (criteria, objectivity and implication) principles of judgment:
  - o Lay down criteria for the assessment process.
  - o Ensure objectivity.
  - Consider the implication of each option for the problem and those involved.
- Make use of diagrams and pictures as much as possible in reports and meetings.
- Do a battery of personal style and aptitude inventories, such as OPQ or Myers Briggs. Make contact with the local psychometrists. What do the results reveal to one about one's thinking profile? How do you wish to change? How easily will this be achieved?
- Consider activities you can perform do in or outside work, which will enable one to be creative and freethinking.

- Ask the manager to provide one with unfamiliar data to analyse. Make
  use of experience and knowledge, identify themes, similarities and
  relevant issues in the data and note any connection with other situations.
  Discuss and compare the findings with one's manager.
- Become conversant with the business strategy of the business so that one can understand one's business environment.
- Identify the business processes of the department and how these impact on others.



- Ask the manager how one can become more involved in the business planning process in one's work area.
- Identify key themes emerging from the business plan that have implications on one's area. Discuss with the manager, the possibility of one being allowed to develop a strategy for an account or a key business function.
- Brainstorm the problems the team is facing in achieving their objectives.
- One may also do a SWOT analysis to determine the current strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities. Develop those strategic priorities that one reviews at every team meeting.
- Offer to draw up a draft document for senior management on an issue which one believes impacts the business and which is slightly understood. Offer alternative solutions.
- Break down a complex project or problem into manageable parts e.g. identify an ongoing task that one department performs and which one finds interesting. Draw a picture or graph that depicts the task's performance from start to completion. Include the start-up the process through which the need for the task is identified and wrap-up and review the phases, as well as task performance workshops. Break down the task into the smallest possible components. Ask the manager to critically assess one's description and edit where necessary. Write down what was learned during one's analysis and retain for future reference.
- Make a point of understanding the agendas of different functions and people so that one can perceive their likely aims and actions as part of a wider picture. Form contacts and ask questions.
- When faced with a complex problem, ask a colleague who is known to be
  objective to recommend an approach in solving it or to solve it. Identify
  other situations that may have similar solutions. Place oneself in the
  position of an interested party and consider the problem from that
  viewpoint. Then write down all the factors involved.
- Research problem analysis models and make use of those that help place team problems into a useful framework.
- Study for a part-time MBA to develop a framework for analysing business issues in an integrated way.



- Develop frameworks which force one to consider all the issues that impact on problems such as:
  - o People
  - o Processes
  - Systems
  - Relationships
  - Structure
- When one experience a problem, identify the issues that create the problem. Develop a strategy for dealing with them.
- Keep up to date with business, industry and sector issues through reading, building contacts and attending relevant seminars or courses to keep on developing on ever widening framework for considering issues.
- Access information on case studies on organizations. Analyse and synthesise the key themes or issues in each case.

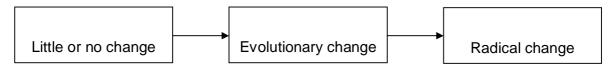
- Discuss with one's manager a project that requires a new line of thought;
   perhaps an old problem that requires a new solution. Make a request to
   be allowed to develop a strategy to approach such problem.
- Review a process or complex task in one's area of work. Devise ways to improve the effectiveness of this activity. Develop a model that describes the current situation and one that depicts one's proposal for improvement. Specify all the areas on which the change will impact and identify action that must be taken.
- Prepare a list of the most critical problems one currently faces within the
  organization. Try and identify the major causes underlying each problem.
  Are any of these related? Could taking particular action affect several
  outcomes? Approach each problem in the context of the organization,
  rather than as an isolated issue.
- Create a climate that contributes to a free and open exchange of ideas.
- Enquire as to how people from outside the organization view the issues faced by the business. Join an industry group, such as the Chamber of Commerce, to develop an insight into other's perspective on one's business.



- Build contacts with people from organizations with similar market structures, products and processes. Find out how the people that are working in a similar work area view the future. Carry out benchmark studies.
- Offer to be part of project teams that examine emerging business issues.

# 8. Visionary thinking development guidelines

- Take a challenging problem which one has kept in abeyance. Perform a "mind mapping" exercise on it to develop emerging themes.
- Ask oneself two questions when there is a problem to solve:
  - Where are we now? (Current state).
  - Where do we want to be? (Desired state).
  - Develop the process of how to reach the desired state before actually tackling the problem. (Close the gap between the current state and the desired state).
- Make use of one's intuition. Next time one is faced with a problem, make an intuitive decision without analysing all the facts. Afterwards check its validity.
- Find out how business planning is undertaken in one's business.
- Access information of case studies on organizations. Analyse the key themes or issues in each case. Identify the factors of strategic importance.
- Understand the long-term plans of one's own department and function.
   Discuss with the manager, the goals involved and how they will be reached. Communicate these to one's team while outlining the course of action that the department will take.
- Offer to write a draft document for senior management on an issue which
  one believes affects the business and which is slightly understood. Offer
  alternative solutions. The next time one considers an approach to an
  issue, think about the possibilities in three ways: -





- Concentrate on finding the most radical answers to problems and test them on others.
- Try alternative ways to influence people at meetings in order to expedite change. Use diagrams and sketches as much as possible.
- Average "away-days" for the team and maintain a flexible agenda. Allow
  the team members to build a picture of how the team should be
  constituted and how they pursue this.
- Read about right and left-brain functions. Consider the implications for work activities and as well as activities not related to work.

- To gain a deeper understanding of the steps, how to start and to optimise learning during the change process, practise the following:
  - Increase one's understanding of the concept of "strategy". Study how Michael Porter from Harvard Business School defines it, and compare it with other strategists' view points. Use this knowledge to develop one's own career strategy for the next five years. Think about where one would like to be, and then work backwards.
  - Study literature about organizations that are in the process of developing or changing their strategy. Understand how the key players formulated their strategy.
- Find key themes emerging from the business plan that have implications for one's area of work. Discuss with the manager the possibility of oneself developing a strategy for an account or a key business function.
- For every solution which one plans to implement consider:
  - O Upon whom will this impact?
  - o Who should support this?
  - o Who should be involved?
  - o How can one involve them?
  - o What should one's communication plan be?
  - Ensure that persons from all relevant departments become involved early on in the planning.



- Learn about S.W.O.T. analysis techniques (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) or: what's wrong, what's right? Apply them to the way one analyses the issues facing the team or organization.
- When faced with a complex problem, ask a colleague who is able to be
  objective to recommend an approach. Identify other situations that may
  have similar solutions. Place oneself in the position of an interested party
  and consider the problem from such view point. Write down all the
  factors involved.
- Identify how one can bridge gaps in one's experience, where there may
  be a lack of understanding of an area. Consider secondments and being
  assigned to long-term projects in order to fill critical gaps. Obtain the
  manager's agreement to one's proposed competency development and
  development strategy.
- Understand one's organization's strategic thinking the plan itself, the philosophy behind it and major policies. Read all relevant documents that elaborate on these.

- Encourage staff to work with other units, functions or sectors to see issues from different perspectives.
- Create alternative visions of the future and predict their impact on one's team.
- Spend time creating and thoroughly exploring contingency plans to cope with unexpected developments.
- For each issue one pursues, identify the areas that create the problem.
   Develop a strategy for dealing with the problems.
- Brainstorm the problems facing the team in achieving objectives. The SWOT analysis technique can be used in order to determine the main problems.
- Develop strategic priorities that one will review at each subsequent team meeting.
- Enquire about strategic planning courses and their relevance to one's job. Put a case together to convince one's manager of the sound business investment that the course will offer, e.g. cost benefits and return on investment.



- Take an interest in the strategies of organizations outside one's industry. Select those persons with whom one could discuss the strategic thinking of employers in other markets and at other stages of development. Identify and list the differences between winners and losers.
- Find the key themes emerging from the business plan that have implications for one's area of work. Discuss with one's manager about oneself being permitted to develope a strategy for an account or a key business function.
- Identify influential figures both within and outside the company whom one regards as creative and innovative thinkers. Elicit from them, their perspective on the business developing in the medium and long term and identify the impact that their views may have on one's own strategies.
- Develop a strategy for all areas of one's life, not only one's work. Take
  note of how events in one area influence what happens in another. Make
  use of one's intuition and feelings to be guided to the solutions one
  desires.
- Demonstrate to one's staff how to identify the pros and cons of several different options. Encourage them to conceptualise the different aspects within a single framework.
- Define the future scenario by writing clear, concise and measurable scenarios:
  - Agree on a desired state.
  - Select a midpoint that can be described in specific terms.
  - Describe in detail the conditions one would see at that midpoint. Imagine flying in a helicopter while operating a movie camera with a wide-angle lens. What does the camera see?
  - Write down one's scenario.
- Conduct a force-field analysis as an aid towards determining the consequences of one's strategies:
  - Identify the forces resisting as well as the forces supporting change.
  - Ask oneself important questions such as:
    - Are we focusing on all the variables?
    - Do we have accurate information regarding the strength of the various forces?
    - How do these forces interrelate?

How can we access additional data?

You should then have a better idea of where you need to focus your efforts in order to move to the desired state.

## 9. BUSINESS ACUMEN DEVELOPMENT GUIDELINES

## How to reach level 3

## <u>Financial</u>

- Find a mentor in the finance department with whom one can discuss: finance/business matters. Gain an understanding of the importance, measurement and distribution of profits; the meaning of assets and their role in generating costs and profits; the meaning of quality and measurement; and the effects of cost control and asset management on productivity and profitability.
- Read the company accounts and take note of aspects that one does not understand.
- Work out a plan for reducing costs in one's department, with clearly verifiable savings and other business benefits. Present the plan to management.
- Ensure that all one's decisions take cost into consideration. Meet the challenge to provide cost justifications of financial measures.
- Keep up to date with company and product literature.
- Study literature about basic management accounting and get to grips with simple techniques to calculate project return on investment.
- Identify key financial experts in the company and ask them to set aside time to coach one on things like company ratio analysis and ROI, i.e. return on investment calculations.
- Regularly attend briefing sessions.
- Identify the business processes of one's department and how they impact on others.

## Personal efficiency



- Maintain a weekly updated logbook to ascertain whether or not one is wasting time on issues that are unimportant to the business or one's goals.
- Check oneself when socialising too frequently. What task is being avoided?
- Keep a "to do" list categorized under the letters A, B and C, thus:
  - A's: Must be done. May be large projects that have to be broken down into smaller tasks:
  - B's: Should be done, but shouldn't take precedence over an 'A' task;
  - C's: Could be done, but, if they were not done, no one would really notice.

Too many C's a day strongly shows that one is focusing on low priority tasks.

- Make use of company processes and equipment to help organise one's time more profitably, e.g. e-mail, filing systems, and diary.
- Become conversant with the cost structure of the company and the implications of time or resources wasted.
- Observe punctuality and convene efficient meetings, setting an agenda.
   Do not confuse problem-solving and information provision. Use different roles in the group, during meetings e.g. scribe, meeting manager, timekeeper.
- Ask the manager and colleagues to provide feedback on one's use of time as well as to comment on one's degree of efficiency.

## Company knowledge

- Acquire an organogram and make note of job titles that one is not familiar with or persons one does not know at senior levels.
- Acquire a thorough knowledge of one's own business:
  - o Its history and how it affects current practice;
  - Its mission statements, products and services;
  - Its market position, competitors, and outlets;
  - Its organizational structure and allocation of employees;
  - Its total assets, turnover, profit in relation to turnover and its assets;
  - Its sources of raw materials and current availability and cost vs. future availability and cost;



- Its technology: the current state, future developments and comparison with competitors;
- Its human resources policy in relation to recruitment, development and succession planning;
- Its values, public image and community relationships;
- Identify colleagues who know much about the company. Ask them how they acquired the knowledge and attempt to emulate them.
- Talk to those who perform other functions about how the work of the team influences them and vice versa.
- Identify the key functions of the company as well as its senior management. Talk to them in order to attain an understanding of their work.

# Finance

- Identify areas of waste within organization and make cost-saving recommendations that will provide the company with an increased return on investment.
- Review a recently completed task, taking into account, resources, costs, budgets, profits, etc. Conduct a detailed costing to evaluate its costeffectiveness.
- Read publications like the Financial Times and other publications.
   Identify factors and events that will have an impact on the performance of the business.
- Work through a business simulation which provides balance sheets, profit and loss accounts and fund flow statements
- Invite a financial expert to elaborate on the company's financial processes, including the business planning process.
- Make sure you get a picture of the business' financial performance at team meetings and communicate this onwards.

## Market knowledge

 Identify the main features of the company's products and their various markets. Find out how these compare with products and markets of competitors. Present such findings to the team and manager.



- Interview a senior marketing manager in order to understand the marketing issues facing the business.
- Ask business managers about the issues they face with their customers and in getting new accounts.
- Request permission from an account manager to be allowed to join the team on sales visits. Become familiar with customer issues.
- Set up a benchmarking group with key competitors to establish best practices in an area of work relevant to one's own.
- Establish how the company analyses and identifies market trends.
   Assess how future trends will impact on one's sector of the business.

# Company knowledge

- Become familiar with the various products sold by the company, how the products are marketed and sold and how prices are established.
- Draw up a business process flow chart, which indicates the movement of product from supplier to customer, and who is involved at each stage.
- Trace a decision made in one's area through to its impact on other departments. Find out how others were affected.
- Locate someone who is knowledgeable about the business and ask the person to explain relationships between different functional areas.
- Maintain a list of useful contact persons who may have the knowledge that one requires or can direct one to the correct source.

# How to reach level 5

## Market/financial awareness & company knowledge

- Take part in industry association committees and become involved in activities that bring oneself into contact with business leaders within one's sector.
- Make a study of literature about market and political forces affecting business, e.g. Porter's "Competitive Advantage".
- Establish networks of contact persons in other companies. Set up one's own information-sharing events around key issues and invite prominent speakers.



- Attend seminars and conferences on key external issues affecting one's business.
- Use a library service to run off information about the company and its competitors.
- Study internationally oriented management journals such as "Management Today".
- Identify the main environmental issues that impact on one's company and the way in which the business operates.
- Ascertain the key business ratios/performance indicators by which one's business is measured and identify how the business is performing against them.
- Develop a strategy for improving customer focus include processes, structures and relationships. Assemble a project team across functional groups to address the issues. Include customers in one's team.

# 10. Diversity learning development guidelines

- Learn how to make one's thoughts, physiological changes and behaviours work for oneself:
  - Do not over-generalise;
  - Refrain from destructive labelling, e.g. stereotyping;
  - Avoid trying to read minds;
  - o Do not pre-judge or draw conclusions without having the facts.
- Take time to listen to others. Try to understand, in particular, the meaning behind the words without judging. Do not assume what the person might feel or think.
- Attempt to analyse the emotional and intellectual barriers that prevent one from listening. Ask someone who is trustworthy to provide one with honest feedback. Remember to listen and learn, and try not to be defensive when receiving the feedback.
- Broaden one's social circle. Identify groups of people with whom one has little contact - who perform different work, who hold different beliefs, who have different interests - and target them for social encounters. One can extend one's social awareness by listening to friends discussing their



acquaintances, by reading autobiographies and by listening to others on the radio and television sharing their experiences.

- Find a way to present one's recommendations on an issue to senior managers or a group who may be antagonistic toward one's proposals.
   Anticipate the objections they may raise and how one will deal with them.
- Identify a colleague or a friend who comes across as sensitive to the feelings of others. Discuss how they go about dealing with people and adapt any useful tips to enhance one's own style.
- Read widely, watch films and television documentaries or attend local cultural events to learn more about other cultures and their values.
- Study the recent labour law legislation on culture fairness and selection practices. Ensure that one applies these practices when selecting staff, e.g. not asking questions about religion, marital status, etc.
- Learn about cultural differences in social and business norms when dealing with foreign colleagues or clients. Adapt behaviour when appropriate. For correct protocol, contact the communications department for more information.
- Before visiting another country, learn as much as possible about its language, culture, values and customs. Interact with people from such culture or people familiar with the culture. When visiting other countries on the company's behalf or for attending a training course, one is actually an ambassador for the country and the company.
- In the event of attending a meeting or making a presentation to an international audience, be aware of cultural sensitivities. Ensure that others have clearly understood the message and whether one understands what others are saying. Use open-ended questions, e.g. instead of "Do you understand?" ask, "How do you view this point?"
- Attend evening classes in cross-cultural studies and so increase one's knowledge and understanding of other cultures.
- Behave with sensitivity, respect and support for example, respectfulness by asking people for their opinions, etc; support, helping people accomplish their goals.
- Increase self-awareness by making a list of one's major prejudices; the things that irritate one and behaviour that one finds difficult to tolerate.



Make a conscious effort to control feelings when meeting people who irritate one and attempt to get to know them personally.

- Elicit feedback from other cultures with respect to how they perceive themselves as well as one's culture. Try to place oneself in their position.
   Then talk through issues relating to one's perspective of their culture.
- Practise being sensitive, not only to what others say, but also to the
  manner in which they are communicating and what the real message is
  that they are trying to communicate. Observe others' eyes, their facial
  expression, their posture, as well as gestures.

There is, unfortunately, no reliable dictionary to translate non-verbal behaviours into meaning, but they can provide additional clues as to what is going on inside the speaker. This in turn, can be useful when trying to motivate and develop those who tend to be reserved. ALWAYS be sure to test one's assumptions in respect of non-verbal as well as other behaviours. Never take for granted one's interpretation of what another person means, simply on the basis of an assumption.

- Depict, in one's mind, a stereotype. Select a person who appears to bear the characteristics of the depicted stereotype. How many attributes of the stereotype can be found in the selected person? What stereotypes may apply to the person? How accurate are the assumptions?
- Try to understand the view point of others, based on who they are, the likely pressures to which they are subjected, as well as their goals. If an interaction proves unsatisfactory, question: "What was it about this person I didn't understand? How can I improve this relationship?"
- Be aware of individuals perceptions in one's team. Do not indulge in sexist or racist jokes.
- Make a concerted effort to become acquainted with everyone in one's team. Spend time with team members and find out who they are as people.
- Practise active listening skills, and allow others leeway in terms of time –
  do not rush in with one's own agenda. Make use of discernment,
  understanding, questioning and summarising skills.
- Try not to dominate team discussions. Encourage withdrawn members to join in and express their views. This will display respect and commitment from all team members.



- Recognise individual differences and respond to those differences in ways that will ensure employee retention and greater productivity, while simultaneously refraining from discrimination. Tailor one's approach to others in terms of optimal satisfactory interaction with each person.
- Try to develop international contacts within your organization.
- Many mistakenly view affirmative action as diversity, and then seek to place blame. When children are sad, for example, they often talk about the blameworthy behaviour of another. In order to progress from adversity we must identify the changes which must be made within ourselves rather than the changes we demand of others. Draw a chart with two columns, one for oneself and one for others. Write down on the chart, those changes one would like to see and move as many as possible to the "me" column.
- Seek out assignments which involve cross-departmental and crosscultural experiences. Learn all one can about the norms and customs in groups. If one deals with customers from other countries, write down one's observations of their preferred styles. Learn about their customs and values
- Explain myths about one's own culture or some aspect of oneself which
  differs from the rest of one's group members. Tactfully confront
  stereotypes, bias and prejudicial behaviour such as comments or 'jokes'.
   Help others understand what it means to be different.
- Join groups and associations in which one will be compelled to associate with those from different backgrounds and with different values.
- Identify language, literacy and numeracy barriers and minimise these in order to ensure full participation by all employees in work and development activities.

- Ask the team: "What are the greatest obstacles to success with regard to diversity?" Help them to tear down the impediments.
- Review the affirmative action policy of the organization and devise strategies to promote and support it.



# 11. Cross-functional teamwork development guidelines

- Ensure that one really understands the duties of each team member.
   Should one experience difficult, in forming a clear picture, confer with the manager in order to ascertain how one's work fits in with that of the others.
- If one finds that proposals submitted at a meeting to be unacceptable, let the meeting know in a dignified manner. State one's position calmly and be prepared to take time in reaching a workable compromise.
- Once a decision has been reached, refrain from undermining it beyond the venue of the meeting.
- Ensure that one is thoroughly aware of the true nature of the team members. One may be a member of more than one team and will have to recognise the goals and requirements of each team and the individual members within the team.
- Together with other team members identify the boundaries and limits to the authority and accountability of those present. Tactfully resolve any ambiguities or conflicts.
- If an issue cannot be resolved at a particular team meeting, ensure the timeous convening of another opportunity for discussion and resolution. Do not wait for someone else to initiate this action; such action should not be reserved only for those in positions of authority.
- Do not allow secretaries to become over-protective of one's time. Ensure
  they know that part of their role is to support a constructive and open
  team climate where individuals can share issues.
- Pay attention to television programmes in which one is likely to witness team leaders in action. Analyse and discuss their behaviour and relevant qualities with friends or colleagues. Identify both commendable and poor practises.
- Compile a list of all the situations in which one has taken the role of team leader. Examine the degree to which one assisted in organising the groups. Identify aspects which require corrective action and try again.



- Read relevant professional journals which may contain interesting articles about team leadership issues. Make sure that one receives any relevant material.
- Encourage members of the group with whom one works to draw up a
  checklist of ground rules for effective teamwork. Assess the manner in
  which the team works, against these rules, and discuss measures to be
  adopted in the interest of improvement.
- Make team functioning, a standing discussion point at team meetings.
   Devise ways to improve and implement action agreed upon and conduct regular progress reviews.
- Do not complain to other team members. The sharing of feelings can help build relationships, particularly under conditions of pressure and stress, and continuous moaning about one's lot at work can be very draining for others.
- Pay attention to relevant videos and read literature about effective and ineffective group behaviour. Learn to recognise the kind of influences that contribute to or destabilise team effectiveness.
- Discuss with a senior manager whose skills are valued about the experiences that helped create their success. Identify and implement these learning points.
- Make a point of learning from team members. Adapt those behaviours that are more effective than one's own. Make a point of learning at least something from EVERY person in the team.
- Write down the strengths and weaknesses of each of one's colleagues. Compare these aspects with one's own. Recognise that one may establish friendly relationships with those who are much like oneself or who are very different. Identify those characteristics in which the others may have strengths - different from one's own - that can support one.
- Devise methods by means of which one can share work to the benefit of other members, especially if one is overloaded or has a particular learning opportunity.
- Provide counsel to each team member in the interest of understanding, the strengths and weaknesses of another in a positive, rather than derisive, environment. Make use of constructive, honest and specific feedback.



Arrange for an assembly of individuals or teams from one's own unit as
well as other units with the view to improving cooperation and to share
decision-making. Arrange formal meetings to discuss design and
implement steps to improve workflow, relationships and performance.

- Make use of team-building events to help break down social barriers.
   Build openness, honesty and trust. Ask yourself if you really know what others in the team do, say or feel.
- Build relationships with members of other teams who associate with one's own team. Involve them in decisions that affect their work processes or relationships.
- Do not ignore the fact that the team may require leadership skills other than simply those learned through one's manager. Take advantage of opportunities to provide what the team requires in order to progress, e.g. facilitation, structure, and information at the right time.
- Draw up a list of the specific influences that teamwork and cooperation have on the way in which the team performs i.e., positively or negatively. Identify aspects which require improvement; discuss these with the manager and explore whether a strategy can be developed to move the team closer to the ideal.
- Which decisions could be made more logically by a member of your team? Identify the skills that a person needs to develop to take ownership of these decisions and coach the person accordingly.
- Don't be an idea assassin. Encourage new ideas and suggestions from team members, and implement where you can.
- Get to understand the processes groups go through from inception to performing effectively. Use this knowledge to diagnose particular problems the team may be having.
- Review your team's interaction and cooperation with other teams. Identify strengths and areas for improvement. Develop a plan that sets out to improve team working across your area.
- Encourage the team to deal openly with conflict. Try to identify the causes of the conflict and work on resolving these. If they can't be resolved, identify "workable compromises."



- Always support new people through their learning curve and be on hand to provide maximum coaching investment.
- Identify a highly effective team in an outside company. Visit the team and
  its leader to find out how they operates and any processes that may be
  of benefit to one's team.
- Allow people to take on new tasks or projects when they are just ready for them, not when they are completely ready for them. Judge the timing.
- Stimulate your people's creativity in the broadest sense by exposing them to new experiences. Create opportunities for them to learn through delegation and exposure to other teams.
- Find ways outside work to exercise constructive leadership through voluntary associations and club membership.
- Ensure one's team gets the support it needs from other teams. Act as the bridge between them on issues.
- Develop processes for monitoring the overall productivity and effectiveness of one's team.
- Get the team to examine the values they believe drive an effective team.
   Ask them to rate this team against how these values are displayed.
   Evaluate the action needed to get closer to the ideal. Review annually.
- Treat each team member equitably and act as a facilitator when team members experience conflict. Don't take sides, but encourage a full exploration of the issues even if their views conflict with one's own.
- If a team member challenges one, don't react defensively. Allow them to explain their point fully. If there is still conflict, handle it appropriately by taking it off line if necessary, maintaining a collaborative approach if possible. Don't put them down.

- Develop ways of creating influential "teams" when one want to work with colleagues who have a different style. They may address customer issues that one might not see.
- Constantly act as the bridge between other teams, customers, suppliers, and senior managers and let your team know that you are a resource to help them solve problems, as well as give direction and support.



- Arrange work sessions and team discussions between one's own and other functional teams where problems or concerns exist, e.g. between the finance and procurement teams. See how you can improve productivity, workflow and processes and implement new ideas.
- Arrange meetings and green-area sessions between one's own and other functional teams to get to know each other and to get to know what the other team's goals and responsibilities are. This will create a better understanding and improve productivity and workflow.

# 12. People development guidelines

- Establish regular one-on-one meetings with team members in order to discuss concerns, feelings and task-related issues. Structure these meetings, (.g. topics to be covered), but allow scope for matters arising.
- Draw up a checklist which makes provision for both positive and negative feedback. After provision of the feedback, ascertain the degree of success against these ground rules. Elicit from the recipient's feedback what you have said.
- Treat mistakes as learning opportunities. Change implies risk and employees should not feel that those who make mistakes will be punished. When failure occurs, ask: "What did we learn that can help us in the future?"
- Become acquainted with the performance management and development planning processes within the company, since this would facilitate interaction with others who follow such processes.
- Offer assistance and other support. Provide guidance and advice when asked.
- Recall an occasion when someone was particularly effective in assisting one's development. Attempt to identify what underlying characteristics contributed toward the effectiveness of the assistance, and endeavour to learn from the experience gained during the process of development.
- Be aware of expected standards of performance in others and be sensitive to the fact that the expected standards are not always maintained. In the event of below-par performance amongst staff,



explore the possibility of underlying problems and be prepared to act flexible, in the short term at least, in making demands, especially when a legitimate problem is the source of the hindrance.

- Show a willingness to provide accurate and honest feedback. Give praise
  for success whilst confronting problems. Attempt to provide factual,
  descriptive feedback on what was actually done, rather than expressing
  opinions.
- Find ways in which to coach others. Offer to act as a coach before and
  after particularly stressful and demanding events in which the team
  members participate. Assist them during their rehearsals beforehand,
  and debrief them afterwards.
- Meet with each member of the team to discuss their goals and aspirations.
- Provide them with information on the skills and competencies which they
  will require in order to develop to achieve their goals. Reach agreement
  on such projects and activities that facilitate the development of the
  required skills and provide them with the necessary experience and
  support.
- Provide opportunities for team members to practise giving feedback covering what they had learned on courses or in projects. This ensures team learning on the subject and affords the individual an opportunity to show what they know.
- When providing feedback covering individual and team competence, make use of the following criteria:
  - Provide factual, concise and relevant feedback, adhering to the agreed standards;
  - o Provide feedback in a manner, time and place appropriate to all;
  - Ensure that details of actions to be taken as a result of the feedback are accurate and comply with the organization's policies and procedures;
  - Ensure that individual's issues are discussed privately and that team issues are discussed in the team;
- Undergo training in both providing and receiving feedback, so that one feels comfortable in the approach one adopts.



- Practise the following helpful hints for becoming aware of how to make appraisals:
  - Use I-Think statements.

The intentional use of I-Think statements, help clarify what one thinks, and one also recognises that one is the person responsible for one's appraisals.

Reflect on encounters when calm.

Spend a few minutes after having attended a meeting with the supervisor, a co-worker or the entire staff and attempt to establish what the underlying issue was that influenced one's appraisal of the encounter. By engaging in this inner dialogue when calm, the appraisals are likely to be more flexible and rational; this facilitates the drawing up of accurate conclusions.

Seek contributions from others.

Since any event can be appraised from different perspectives, it is often advisable to approach others for their appraisal of events. Their responses might help one to evaluate whether or not one's appraisal of the event was very inaccurate, accurate or somewhere in between.

- Make time and resources available for members of the team to develop their skills.
- Ask the team about their career plans. They should know how they would like to develop from their current position. Sort out barriers and obstacles that they perceive would impede on reaching their goals.
- Approach a colleague whose coaching skills you admire and enquire as to how such skills gave rise to such effective outcomes.
- Interview each member of the staff informally as a way of building a relationship with each member; as to:
  - o Where they come from (jobs, experience, skills, companies).
  - o Where they are now (satisfaction, competence, confidence).
  - Where they want to get to (aspirations, plans, frustrations).
- Promote the benefits of self-development to the team and reward those who devise methods by means of which to increase their skills or knowledge in their own time.



- Ensure that each team member has equal opportunities and access to training courses, and assist individuals to adjust development plans in accordance with needs.
- Review the past performance documentation of the team. Take note of those cases in which development needs have not been closely analysed or where there has been no follow-up. Resolve these issues as a matter of urgency.
- Customise and implement action steps for the induction of new employees in one's specific section. The following action should be implemented on the day on which an employee reports for duty:
  - o Report promptly to meet the new employee on arrival.
  - o Introduce the employee personally to colleagues and other roleplayers.
  - Have a one-on-one session with the employee in order to discuss expectations, the section's business plan and deliverables, the broader picture of the organization and where the relevant section and the new employee fit into the scheme of things.
  - Introduce the employee to the local personnel officer and manager to discuss the performance management and other related HR processes, and to complete the necessary documentation.
- Locate a mentor to discuss one's progress as team leader. Select a
  person who has a favourable reputation for developing others,
  possesses a wide range of skills, is highly knowledgeable about the
  organization and has a wide range of networking contacts.
- Schedule monthly, or at least quarterly meetings, to discuss individual development plans. Discuss ways in which the individual might improve as well as the specific behaviours that will contribute to performance improvement and self-development.
- Pair up with someone who is an expert in coaching to monitor one's own coaching of the team.
- Offer coaching as an option, not as compulsory.
- Implement a coaching plan in the department. Ensure that it is subordinate specific and performance-focused and that it is implemented informally and frequently. Follow this cyclical process:



- Phase 1: Support the subordinates unconditionally. Focus on behaviour and share the responsibility. Listen and show empathy, give credit for achievements and provide assistance.
- Phase 2: Outline problems and new expectations clearly. Concentrate on one issue at a time.
- Phase 3: Reach a solution. Ensure that there is a plan of action and that the plan is accepted by all parties with a firm commitment to see it through.
- Phase 4: Ensure implementation of the plan whilst conducting assessments and interventions as well as redirecting where necessary. Ensure careful control and measurement procedures.
- Prior to attending training sessions, a meeting should be held with the aim to identify the trainee's specific learning objectives and review the achievement of these objectives after training.
- Make a point of spending time with the team in order to demonstrate how to perform important tasks. Monitor the team in action and provide practical feedback in regard to their performance without nit-picking.
- Offer to meet with one team member at a customer or internal meeting and provide feedback on how the member performed. Reach an agreement in advance in terms of the learning objectives which the team member wishes to achieve as well as what the member would like to be monitored on.
- Ensure that when feedback is provided to others, it is based on actual events and discussion and not on hearsay. Use notes if necessary, but not in a punitive fashion.
- Use the following criteria for the overall development plan of people:
  - o Is the plan complete, concise, in the required format and within the scheduled time frame?
  - o Does the plan specify how development will be implemented, monitored and reviewed? Does it identify how performance will be enhanced?
  - Does the plan comply with organization policies and standards and add value to the organization?



- Is there a defined link, between required outcomes and performance gap that is clear and explicit and also agreed to by stakeholders, included in the plan?
- Elicit feedback from others in respect of one's delegation style. Assess whether there is a tendency toward too much control or too much "loose reign" management in the assignment and monitoring of tasks. Check that the skills levels of the team are appropriate for the tasks assigned to them and that one is managing them appropriately.
- Check how individuals feel about the tasks assigned to them. Encourage them to express themselves in terms of whether they feel under- or overloaded.
- Coach and mentor employees so that they will gain the skills to perform effectively in a diverse environment.

- Involve the team in problem-solving scenarios. Elicit the opinions of team
  members and encourage them to draw on their own experiences and
  make positive contributions to facilitate debate and discussion.
- Ensure that one is up to date with career paths in the company and the
  requirements for each job. Review the performance of the team against
  these requirements on a regular basis and ensure that one is aware of
  their levels of performance.
- Facilitate the rotation of roles within the group. If, for example one is constantly the person responsible for expediting matters, attempt to adopt a lower profile with the aim of enticing others to take the initiative.
- Once those in the department have completed a task or project, meet with them and review the completed work. Assist in the identification of skills excellence as well as those skills which require improvement.
   Grant recognition for work well done.
- Become personally acquainted with those in the division: their interests, background, leadership capabilities, principles, preferences, moods, and special expertise. Armed with information, places one in a position to be selective when delegating specific responsibilities. Match tasks with people. Assist people overcome their own personal and job-related shortcomings.



- Practise the following general coaching skills and the specific behaviours associated with each:
  - Devise methods and create opportunities to improve the capabilities and performance of employees.
  - o Observe the behaviour of the employees on a day-to-day basis.
  - Ask questions: Why do you do a job this way? Can it be improved?
     What other approaches might be used?
  - Show genuine interest in the person as an individual, not merely as an employee. Respect their individuality. The insight one has into the employee's uniqueness is more important than any technical expertise that can be provided about improving job performance.
  - Listen to the employee. One cannot understand the world from an employee's perspective unless one listens.
- Encourage individuals to take responsibility for their own development.
   Ensure that they feel that they are free to discuss their own development needs and suggestions.
- Prior to asking someone to perform differently, consider the reasons as
  to why it would be in their best interest or in the company's best interest
  to perform in such a way.
- Attempt to influence employees to change their behaviour. Although the
  ultimate test of coaching effectiveness is whether or not an employee's
  performance improves, be concerned with their ongoing growth and
  development as well.
- When confronted with a problem or opportunity, meet with those who are
  considered to be able to make a contribution. Ensure that they
  participate, air their views and provide assistance. This will create a
  sense of ownership and commitment.
- Be aware of the development options available to subordinates, e.g. inhouse training courses, external training courses, relevant literature etc., and communicate this information to them.
- Discuss the feasibility of seconding appropriate staff to another function in the interest of broadening experience.
- Consider the role of a mentor. Encourage staff to identify appropriate mentors in order to assist their development. Could one fill the role oneself?



- Identify a whole area of one's responsibility to delegate to others. Avoid favouritism. Rotate this responsibility but provide feedback to each individual on the basis of how they performed in this role.
- Delegate increased responsibility and autonomy. Allow them to stand in for one at meetings.
- At the close of a project, arrange a review session to identify what was learnt and what could be improved upon at the next opportunity.
- Find out each team member's learning style and discuss with them how their preferred style impacts on their development and career objectives.
- Involve team members in projects and invite them to meetings they would not normally experience.
- Undertake a skills audit of the team. Use the data to make quality decisions about future projects and task assignments.
- Elicit feedback from others regarding the staff's performance with outside bodies or other departments. Look for positive behaviours as well as areas which require improvement. Attempt to capitalise on strengths as well as focusing on development needs.
- Advertise the achievements of the team throughout the organization and thus ensure they obtain maximum exposure to available opportunities.

- Create a climate in which individuals feel in confident to view opinions on the real underlying events within the work situation. Trust that one will not be hoodwinked and do the best to empathise with them in order to get to heart of any problem.
- Produce a manpower plan for one's field of responsibility for two years'
  hence and identify the competencies that will be needed by the
  individuals occupying these positions. Review current staff in order to
  identify the skills that will be required by them in order to meet future
  manpower requirements, and assist them in producing a personal
  development plan to support these.
- Elicit from the team their thoughts regarding the implications of the business strategy for the team's skills and competencies in the future. Encourage the team to produce a plan of how the team should develop in order to meet changing demands.



- Create a supportive climate. Reduce barriers to development and facilitate a climate that encourages performance improvement, thus:
  - Create a climate that contributes to a free and open exchange of ideas.
  - o Offer help and assistance. Provide guidance and advice when asked.
  - o Focus on mistakes as opportunities for learning. Change implies risk and employees should not feel that mistakes will be punished. When failure occurs, ask: "What did we learn that can help us in the future?"
  - Reduce obstacles. What factors does one control that, if eliminated, would help the employee to improve job performance?
  - Instil in each employee an awareness of the value of their contribution to the unit's goals.
  - Take personal responsibility for the outcome, but do not deprive employees of their full responsibility. Validate the employee's efforts when they succeed, and point to any omissions should they fail. Never blame the employees for poor results.
- Identify opportunities for secondments or involvements in projects outside the department which will enable individuals to broaden their knowledge of the business and develop specific skills.
- Review the culture of the organization and identify what strategic action would be necessary to ensure that the environment is supportive and encourages individuals to manage their own development. Set up a project in order to identify specific barriers and drivers for change, and identify actions on which the organization could embark in order to achieve cultural change.
- Nominate individuals to pursue high-risk projects. Communicate across
  the business to find opportunities that would be challenging for high
  potential members of the team.

## 13. Performance achievement development guidelines

# How to reach level 3

 Make sure you understand the performance management process in the organization.



- Take personal responsibility for the output of the team but do not deprive employees of their full responsibilities. Validate the employee's efforts when they achieve success, and point out the omissions when they fail.
   Never blame to the employees for poor results. Review possible obstacles to acceptable performance.
- When delegating a task, clearly identify the goals to be achieved by those concerned. Focus on how the individual or group performance can be measured in order to determine success. Provide written, attainable goals for each employee.
- Together with the team, agree on critical success factors for the team as a whole and brainstorm ways in which these can be measured.
- Set a regular time each week during which a list must be drawn up of what must be done by oneself and the team during the following week.
   Establish priorities for these activities.
- Provide each team member with an updated job or role description.
   Ensure that they understand the description and that they are committed to the outputs. Set aside time during which issues are addressed that individuals wish to raise.
- Establish and agree on measures of performance for each output.
   Request the individuals to contribute their views concerning these measures. Reach agreement on qualitative as well as quantitative measures.
- Become fully acquainted with the company's procedures and policies in the appraisal of performance, and dealing with performance issues. (Arrange for the management of development training and coaching if necessary?)
- Arrange regular discussions with each individual in order to see whether
  they are still conversant with the overall strategy. Recognise their
  personal strengths and preferences. Establish firm, collaborative
  communication.
- Address performance issues promptly and appropriately. Do not make assumptions. Identify the real problems and develop alternative strategies for dealing with them. Provide open and flexible guidelines in terms of performance barriers.



- Establish regular one-on-one meetings with the team members to discuss concerns and feelings as well as task related issues. Structure these meetings in terms of what must be covered but allow time for issues that may arise.
- If one is not satisfied with a team member's performance, let the member know, whilst remaining non-manipulative. Focus on the actual behaviour that gave rise to the poor performance. As soon as possible after the event, discuss one's feelings and express one's wants.
- For a period of one week, maintain a detailed diary as to the nature of the interaction between oneself and one's staff. Critically review the diary entries with the view to ascertaining whether or not one was actually monitoring and regulating the staff's work or simply reacting to problems that occur, i.e. proactive versus reactive behaviour. Elicit feedback and suggestions from key colleagues as to how one could interact more effectively.
- Urge team members to approach one timeously when experiencing problems rather than wasting energy on time-consuming repetition of work. Act as a resource for employees.
- Communicate, communicate, and communicate. Never assume that others know what is expected or understand what is in one's mind. Inform, question and clarify.
- Keep a record of the issues discussed at one-on-one meetings. Review these and assess whether apportioning sufficient time to issues of concern, in the view of the individual, is given.
- Use the following helpful hints for providing constructive performance feedback effectively:
  - Prior to the provision of constructive feedback:
    - Identify the particular behaviour with which one is not satisfied;
    - Identify why the behaviour is a problem as well as the validity of one's feedback;
    - Assess how best to present the feedback;
    - Assess the right place to provide feedback;
    - Assess the right time to provide feedback;
    - Make a list of possible changes in advance.
  - During the feedback process:



- Point out that one is relating one's perceptions. It is advisable to say that these are own perceptions and are subjective. "I've been noticing that you've had difficulty fulfilling your obligations on the business plan. This has caused a number of problems for me because I've had to take the whole thing on myself, and I'm just not capable of it". Focus on the person's behaviour, not the person.
- Provide specific examples which illustrate the problem;
- Be sure to provide positive information;
- Acknowledge the difficulty of the situation;
- Look for clues as to how the team members are responding e.g.
   whether they accept criticism, deny the problem or become angry;
- Discuss possible solutions;
- Reiterate the benefits to be gained;
- End on a positive note.
- After the Feedback Meeting:
  - Follow up with the other person
  - Assess the effectiveness of the changes.
  - Set goals that are realistic and measurable, and targets that are challenging and yet attainable. The more one knows about one's destination, the more likely one is to reach it. Create a step-by-step action plan for each of the above goals. Specify or point out exactly what must be done, how it is to be done, the timeframe in which the goals are to be achieved, and the difficulties which will have to be overcome. Aim to implement these plans and review progress against them.
- Conduct planning sessions with the team in order to develop a sense of the key priorities/accounts as well as the strategy, resources and time needed for each.
- Be aware of expected standards of performance in others and be sensitive to the fact that people sometimes fall below these expected standards. When reviewing below-par performance together with staff, explore the possibility of underlying problems and be prepared to be flexibly, (in the short term at least), in making demands, especially when a legitimate problem is the source of the hindrance.



- Show willingness to provide accurate and honest feedback. Give praise
  for success whilst confronting problems. Attempt to provide factual,
  descriptive feedback on what was actually done, rather than expressing
  opinions and making judgments.
- Practise the following helpful hints as guidance on how to do performance assessments:
  - Use I-Think statements.

The intentional use of I-think statements, help clarify what one thinks, and also recognises that oneself is responsible for one's assessments.

o Reflect on encounters when calm.

Spend a few minutes after having attended a meeting with the supervisor, a co-worker or the entire staff and attempt to establish what the underlying issue was that influenced one's assessment of the encounter. By engaging in this inner dialogue when calm, the assessments are likely to be more flexible and rational; thus facilitate the drawing up of conclusions.

Seek contributions from others.

Since any event can be assessed from different perspectives, it is often advisable to approach others for their assessment of events. Their responses might help one to evaluate whether or not one's assessment of the event was very inaccurate, accurate, or somewhere in between.

- Undergo training in how to provide and receive feedback so that one would feel confident with the approach adopted.
- Make use of the following suggestions in order to improve the team's performance and to provide challenging objectives:
  - Combine tasks. Take existing and fractionalised tasks and place them together to form a new and larger module of work. This increases skills variety and task identity.
  - Create natural work units. This increases responsibility and ownership of the work and improves the likelihood that they will view their work as meaningful and important rather than as irrelevant and boring.
  - Expand jobs vertically. Vertical expansion gives them responsibilities and control that were formerly reserved for management. Vertical



- expansion seeks to partially close the gap between the "doing" and the "controlling" aspects of the job, and increases autonomy.
- Establish feedback channels. By the increasing of feedback, the team members not only learn their degree of progress in the performance of their tasks, but also whether or not their performance is improving, deteriorating, or remaining at a constant level.

- Set aside time during which to monitor activities in the workplace. Talk to key staff members to enquire about progress in areas where problems often arise. Follow the principle of management by walking about (MBWA).
- Review the performance objectives and action plans with the team.
   Discuss how the objectives and plans align with corporate goals and opportunities.
- Set aside time at the end of each day in order to review progress against plans. Revise plans if necessary.
- Help team members understand why their contribution to their work is important to the company and how the contribution supports the objectives. Share with them one's goals and pressures.
- Provide them with insight into the demands being placed on one.
- Bear in mind and apply the following points:
  - Understand the staff's needs do they want increased remuneration, recognition, companionship?
  - Clarify the results expected of them on the job.
  - Elicit the staff's ideas and suggestions on the objectives and work.
  - Encourage and support the staff to make their own decisions where feasible.
- Observe employees' behaviour on a day-to-day basis, thus:
  - Ask questions: Why do you do a task this way? Can it be improved?
     What other approaches might be used?
  - Show genuine interest in the person as an individual, not merely as an employee. Respect their individuality. The insight one has into an employee's uniqueness is more important than any technical



- expertise which one can provide regarding the improvement of job performance.
- Listen attentively to the employee. The perspective of any individual on the world cannot be understood unless listening carefully to the individual.
- Persons should be given a true perspective of how they are viewed by others as well as how highly their potential is regarded. Talk constructively about how they can develop, and be honest about the opportunities you see for them.
- Seek feedback from the staff's performance with outside bodies and other departments. Look for positive behaviour as well as areas due for improvement. Attempt to capitalise on the staff's strengths as well as focusing on development needs.
- Anticipate the kind of problems that may arise on projects and prepare appropriate contingency plans. Communicate with experienced project managers their view to develop a model of likely problems and solutions.

- Become acquainted with the strengths and weaknesses of the team. Lay
  down plans for the future which will allow members of the team to
  capitalise on their strengths and correct their weaknesses through
  coaching and delegation.
- Conduct regular audits of one's work processes in order to identify inefficiencies and duplication. Create opportunities to improve and expand employees' performance and capabilities.
- Review the structure of the department and make a decision as to its viability. If not, consider corrective measures in the interest of improving effectiveness, make it more effective e.g. by reallocating tasks, dropping some work, re-organising, and redefining objectives.
- Spend time with the team reviewing all work processes, job design, relationships with other departments as well as technology requirements in the light of key priorities over the next twelve months. Act on the proposals developed as a result of behaviour.
- Engage in effective communication with the team, suppliers and all levels
  of the customer and the project sponsors so that difficulties or



inefficiencies can be identified timeously. Set up reward and incentive structures that recognise the objectives and structure of the team. Introduce team awards. Make use of company awards and schemes.

- Make arrangements for a justifiable combination of long-term and contract staff in order to carry out the business plan for the next one to three years.
- In the event of staff members working on projects or assignments failing to meet deadlines, elicit from them what can be done to ensure that deadlines are met. Make a note of their proposed ideas.
  - If one does not understand or if one disagrees with a suggested deadline, have the relevant project member explain their thinking. Listen patiently and objectively.
  - o If others have set deadlines for the team ensure that everyone is fully informed of the rationale behind the deadlines. Should others set unrealistic deadlines, engage in negotiation in an attempt to resolve the problem.
  - Those working on projects should be involved from the initial stages in planning and the setting of milestones as well as deadlines.
  - o Find ways to convey your sense of urgency with regards to deadlines. Monitor each team member and ask each about the progress being made. Take precautions not to appear to be over-managing. Learning to check on work performance by ways of a judicious and non-intrusive level of monitoring is a very important skill to master.
  - Examine workloads and priorities of each team member. Decide whether or not any duties or priorities require adjustment in the interest of the successful accomplishment of work objectives.
  - Be sure to show appreciation to those who successfully met challenging goals.
- Create a climate that is conducive to performance improvement, thus:
  - Create a climate that contributes to a free and open exchange of ideas;
  - o Offer advice and assistance. Give guidance and advice when asked;
  - Encourage the employees. Project a positive and optimistic attitude.
     Do not make use of threats.



- Reduce the magnitude and extent of obstacles. What factors does one control that if eliminated, would help the employee to improve job performance?
- Let the employee know how valuable their contributions to the unit's goals are;
- Take personal responsibility for outcomes, but do not deprive employees of their full responsibility. Validate the employee's efforts when successful, and indicate those factors that cuase failure. Do not impute blame to employees for poor results.

# 14. Empowerment development guidelines

- Efficient internal systems are a prerequisite for being able to build and maintain credibility with clients. Conduct an analysis of the policies and procedures which are in place in the department to control quality. Consider the following points:
  - o Timekeeping;
  - Administrative systems and resources to ensure that written information such as letters, contracts, and deliverables are well written, clearly laid out and that the grammar and the punctuation are correct;
  - Accuracy and adequacy;
  - Filing systems and documentation;
  - A system of accountability among team members;
  - Systems for recording the location of external resources (phone numbers, skills areas);
  - A means of ensuring that personnel receive telephone and other messages. Instill a culture of responding timeously to customer needs;
  - A means of information exchange to ensure that all receive the information they require in order to expedite their work;
  - The administration of leave.
- Discuss with the manager, a project which requires a new line of thought due to the fact that it may be an old problem which requires a new



- solution. Make a request that one be allowed to develop a strategy by means of which the old problem can be solved.
- Reduce the magnitude and extent of obstacles. What factors does one control that, if eliminated, would help the employee to improve job performance?
- Learn about "what if" modelling. Discuss with a corporate or financial planner, whether within or outside the organization, to learn about the principles. Make use of available technology as an aid in the learning exercise.
- Consider the structure of one's role and whether there is scope for one to work in a different way e.g. teleworking, which will allow one greater freedom to develop particular ideas or models.
- Approach problems differently for example, instead of committing the problem to paper in written form, make use of a diagram. Chart the problem and illustrate different aspects thereof; depict aspects of the problem in the form of a motion picture in the mind.
- At the start of a project, practice the doomsday technique. Consider the worst possible scenario and what proactive preventive steps should be taken in such an event. At the end of a project arrange a review session to identify what knowledge and skills were gained and what aspects could be improved when such a project is pursued again.
- Stop fire-fighting. Ask oneself "Does this have to be done immediately"?
   "Does this have to be done at all"? "How does it fit in with my priority tasks"?
- Consider methods which will alter routine tasks and in so doing minimise repetitive activities whilst still maintaining high standards. Elicit feedback from others in striving for more cost-effective methods.
- Review one's working practices and make recommendations to the manager, on changes that could be undertaken to either improve one's performance or that of other areas of the business.
- Identify aspects of one's job which require quick and decisive action.
   Review these aspects to see which of them recurs and could be anticipated. Decide on a possible plan of action in the event of each situation arising.



 Should problems arise, identify the issues which should be renegotiated timeously and ensure that an agreement is reached in terms of the outcome of the negotiations.

- At the end of each month, review records kept in the relevant logbooks in order to check whether obstacles appear repeatedly and then identify solutions that may have been applied on previous occasions. Explore various types of situations with the view to develop methods to streamline approaches. Share these methods with colleagues.
- Together with colleagues, conduct an informal survey of policies and procedures that could require improvement.
  - Attempt to learn the origins of the policies and procedures. Ineffective policies and procedures waste time and are uneconomical. Such policies and procedures may be solutions to problems that no longer exist;
  - o Identify the impact of each policy and procedure;
  - o Identify the negative impact;
  - Identify possible solutions;
  - Develop recommendations;
  - Arrange a discussion with those who are regarded as experienced in terms of the application of policies and procedures.
- Curtail top-down control on members in the department. Consider designing systems and procedures to delegate responsibilities to individuals. What you have to do is to monitor the systems, processes and procedures.
- By being non-defensive and inviting criticism, creates a climate where all feel that appropriate risks can be taken and that there is some tolerance for mistakes. Learn from such mistakes and learn from team members that are willing to support each other.
- In order to facilitate proactive thinking, choose an activity which one wishes to engage in, in the near future. Identify obstacles and barriers, and develop alternative strategies for dealing with these situations.



# Where you are now? The support one should receive in achieving one's goal Where you need to be Barriers to achieving one's goal

- Identify major barriers to achieve objectives. Place oneself in the position
  of those who are believed to be responsible for the business. Try to find
  the cause of the barriers and make a decision as to what changes should
  be effected in the interest of the elimination.
- List the improvements one would like to make at work. Be fully cognisant of the results one expect. Be acquainted with one's personnel.
- Introduce the concept of brainstorming at the next staff meeting. Make use of a flip chart to help the group generate a list of areas which may require improvement within the department or even the organization.
- Study the performance data of one's department. Generate as many ideas as possible on how to improve efficiency. Present these ideas to a staff group and outline a few initial proposals.
- Identify a current concern within one's sector of the industry or within the
  marketplace. Outline the effect that this is having on one's own as well as
  other companies. Set up a forum with the view to discuss the implications
  and possible solutions.
- Attempt to become proactively involved in work projects, rather than being reactive by waiting to be asked to take action.
- Consult a person who is known to be particularly proactive and displays strong initiative. Request them to explain the modus operandi to their approach in becoming involved in issues. Focus on the benefits which they gained by taking on such an approach. Bear this in mind in one's own interest.
- Identify the main instances in which one has been compelled to behave proactively at work. Evaluate how effective one was; try to focus on specific instances in support of the evaluation. Attempt to identify



characteristics where one was effective on the one hand and less effective on the other hand with regard to.

- At the next occasion when a problem is identified, attempt to address the problem oneself. Discuss with the manager, the appropriateness of one's involvement.
- Participate in a voluntary activity that will require one to identify opportunities and be instrumental in their application, e.g. raising funds for a project or charity.
- Do not accept the standards of the levels of which one is fully aware to be unacceptable to customer requirements. Counter those who propagate such levels with feedback about customer needs and how the work will fail their expectations.
- Engage in a difficult situation which one has been avoiding and challenge the individuals on the issue. Perform a task that intimidates one.
- Challenge an idea which one believes is wrong in spite of others supporting the ideas. However, find ways to confront the issue rather than confronting other persons.
- Seize opportunities to chair meetings where influential people will be involved. Ensure that one adheres to protocol - establish who the appropriate person is for the outlining of protocol.
- Identify a transformation project which will involve several functions and establish oneself as project manager or project team member.
- Develop strong support networks in one's daily life to assist with adversity.
- Identify, together with other team members, the boundaries and limits to authority and accountability in terms of managers. Resolve any ambiguities or conflicts.
- When delegating a task or responsibility to another, regard the act of delegating as giving an actor a new role to rehearse. Allow them time and space to practice the role so that they can find their own method of playing the role before one should expect to see results.
- Grant others increased responsibility and autonomy. Allow them to represent one at meetings.
- Become familiar with the technique of empowerment:



- Be fully cognisant of the results one expects: clarify responsibility, authority and accountability;
- Be acquainted with one's personnel. Analyse their abilities and shortcomings; overcome their resistance to change and increase motivation by delegating important work that will help their growth;
- Delegate as fully as possible;
- Secure understanding and acceptance;
- Establish effective control measures;
- Require work to be complete;
- Encourage loyal opposition;
- Reward outstanding performance;
- Take the following steps to delegate authority and to empower your staff:
  - Clarify the elements of assignment. Determine which tasks are to be delegated as well as to whom. Identify the person most capable of performing the task, and determine whether or not the member has the time and the motivation to pursue such task. Delegate only the end results; that is, get agreement on what is to be carried out and the end results expected, but let the subordinate decide on the means.
  - Specify the subordinate's range of discretion. Every act of delegation comes with constraints. Although the authority to act is being delegated, such authority is limited. Authority is hereby being delegated to act on certain issues and within certain parameters. Such parameters should be specified.
  - Allow the subordinate to participate. One of the best sources for determining how much authority will be necessary to accomplish a task is to be found within the subordinate who will be held accountable for the task. Allowing employees to participate will give rise to an increase in motivation, satisfaction, and accountability for performance.
  - o Inform others that delegation has taken place. Not only must those directly involved in the delegating know specifically what task has been delegated, and how much authority has been granted, but all of those who may be affected by the act of delegation must also be informed.



- Establish feedback controls. The establishment of controls to monitor employees' progress timeously facilitates the identification of important problems. The task will then be completed on time and according to the required specifications.
- Create a supportive climate. Reduce barriers to development and facilitate a climate that encourages improvement of performance.

- Review a process or a complex task. Identify all relevant issues and design methods by means of which to improve the effectiveness of this activity. Develop a model that describes the current situation and one that depicts the proposal for improvement. Indicate those areas which will be affected by the change and identify action that must be taken.
- Identify influential figures both within and outside the organization who are regarded as creative and innovative thinkers. Ascertain their view of the prospects of the business in the medium to long term. Compare their views with the organizations overall vision and identify the impact which their views would have on one's strategies, and if they could, to enhance these strategies as well as the organization's vision.
- Allow group venting sessions where individuals are permitted to vent the
  vitriolic feelings they may harbour about the organization. Arrange for a
  neutral person, such as a HR facilitator, to assist the group to sort out the
  nature of their feelings relating to them, get information about the team's
  problems as well as possible solutions.
- Identify factors that may impede progress towards achieving the team's objectives during the following six months. Develop a strategy for dealing with such obstacles.
- Review the "political" and bureaucratic barriers which prevent one and one's team from achieving objectives. Explore methods by means of which such barriers can be minimised.
- Take proactive measures in attempt to detect opportunities for change within and outside the company by listening to personnel within the organization. Initiate the formation of a task force in order to further develop these opportunities.



- Promote a culture conducive to productive change and improvement and put strategies in place to manage change and improvement processes within the organization.
- Study the company's strategic intent and values. Identify the positive values accorded to change and design creative ways for communicating this throughout the organization. Follow the appropriate channels of communication.
- Grant staff the responsibility for designing implementation plans, anticipating problems and taking pro-active action.
- Actively encourage suggestions for new ways to achieve objectives as well as developing others. Create an atmosphere in which failure is acceptable - provided there is also a reasonable chance of success.
- Challenge rules and policies and change procedures that constrain staff and restrict their ability to act and show initiative.
- Reduce top-down controls on staff to increase their capacity to take discretionary action.
- Delegate authority for decision-making to subordinates and grant them the freedom to use such authority.
- Encourage and support staff who take effective action even if this
  conflicts with rules, policies, procedures, controls or the established way
  of doing things. Monitor such staff carefully to ensure that they adopt a
  mature approach and not an approach that could result in a careerlimiting move.
- Allocate resources which will facilitate the generation of ideas, feasibility studies, take advantage of new technologies as well as market assessment in order to demonstrate the commitment of the organization to the management of transformation.
- Clarify the roles of the managers of transformation in the organization and assign specially selected persons to the transformation process as a mean of the development and enhancement of their skills.
- Implement strategies which will strengthen those positive factors which contribute to the management of change and remove or at least minimise adverse factors.
- Assign persons to those tasks for which they are known to have a strong dislike and manage the consequences.

 Take charge of the installation of a new system whilst being fully aware of significant resistance.