THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON WORKER MOTIVATION

BY

SEETA PATIENCE TSHOSE (9727156)

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
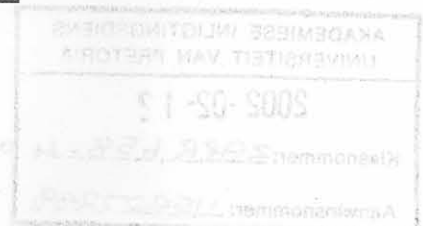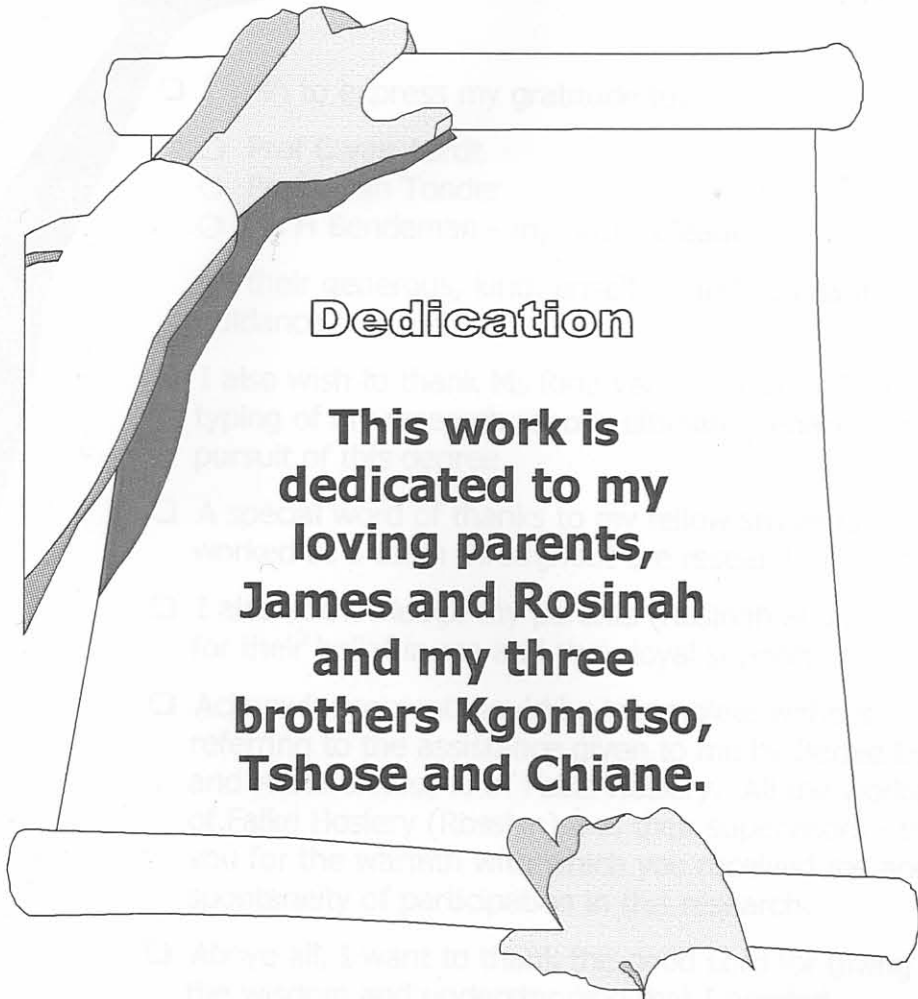
MA (Industrial Sociology)

in the Faculty of Arts

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA, PRETORIA

STUDY LEADER: MS H. BENDEMAN

SEPTEMBER 2001

Dedication

**This work is
dedicated to my
loving parents,
James and Rosinah
and my three
brothers Kgomotso,
Tshose and Chiane.**

Acknowledgements

- ❑ I wish to express my gratitude to:
  - ○ Prof C van Aardt
  - ○ Prof L van Tonder
  - ○ Ms H Bendeman - my project leader,

  for their generous, kind, unselfish and constant guidance.

- ❑ I also wish to thank Ms Rina van Coller who did the typing of my research report, ultimately enabling the pursuit of this degree.

- ❑ A special word of thanks to my fellow students who worked as a team throughout the research project.

- ❑ I also acknowledge my parents (Rosinah and James) for their belief in me and their loyal support.

- ❑ Acknowledgement would be incomplete without referring to the assistance given to me by Bernie Lurie and Maria Skhosana of Falke Hosiery. All the workers of Falke Hosiery (Rosslyn) and their supervisors - thank you for the warmth with which you received me and the spontaneity of participation in this research.

- ❑ Above all, I want to thank the good Lord for giving me the wisdom and understanding that I needed throughout this research project.

ABSTRACT

The unique problems of South African organisations and the projected changes regarding organisational structures and processes pose a challenge for South African organisations to look into the phenomenon of leadership and the effects thereof. The foundations of leadership rest in the way a manager or any other person influence the behaviour of other people. Managers or supervisors use their power in ways that influence others to work hard and willingly apply their efforts in the given work (worker motivation).

The present study seeks to look into the impact of different leadership styles on worker motivation in the organisation under study (Falke Hosiery). Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory is used as a theoretical framework in this study. Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory proposes that there is no one best way to influence people but the leadership style to be employed is guided by the given situation. This model also integrates the Maslow's hierachy of needs theory and Herzberg' motivation- hygiene theory and establishes the tendency that each leadership style has on triggering certain motivational factors i.e. the selling leadership style triggering the physiological and safety needs. This model is used as a benchmark in this study as it clearly highlights the relationship between the leadership styles used and worker motivation.

The findings in this study are that the telling leadership style is used to a larger extent in this organisation owing to the fixed procedures that have to be employed to get the work done. The selling, participating and the delegating leadership styles are minimally used in this organisation and the motivational factors as indicated in the Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory are stimulated to a lesser extent. In conclusion the basic aims of this study are achieved as the findings clearly highlighted the motivation level of employees by looking into the motivational factors apparent in this organisation and the leadership styles as used in this organisation. The relationship between the leadership styles and worker motivation was also established by looking into the tendencies that each leadership style has in triggering certain motivational factors as proposed in the Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory.

OPSOMMING

Die unieke probleme van Suid Afrikaanse organisasies en die geprojekteerde veranderinge wat betref organisatoriese strukture en   —prosesse, hou 'n uitdaging in Suid Afrika organisasies in om die fenomeen van leierskap en die effek daarvan te ondersoek. Die fondamente van leierskap is gebaseer op die manier wat 'n bestuurder of enige ander persoon die gedrag van ander beinvloed. Bestuurders gebruik hulle mag op maniere wat ander beinvloed om hard te werk en vrywilliglik hulle pogings aan te wend in 'n werksituasie (werker motivering).

Die studie oog om die impak van verskillende leierskapstyle op werker motivering in die organisasie (Falke Hosiery) te bepaal. Hersey en Blanchard se situasionele teorie word bgebruik as teoretiese raamwerk in hierdie studie. Hierdie teorie neem aan dat daar nie een beste manier is om persone te beinvloed nie, maar dat die leierskapstyl bepaal word deur 'n gegewe situasie. Hierdie model integreer ook Maslow se teorie van 'n hierargie an behoeftes en Herzberg se motivering-higiene teorie.   Dit bevestig die tendens dat elke leierskapstyl 'n snellerfaktor is vir sekere motiveringsfaktore, byvoorbeeld, die verkoopstyl is 'n snellerfaktor vir fisiologiese- beskermingsbehoeftes. Hersey en Blanchard se model word gebruik as 'n vertrekpunt in hierdie studie, aangesien dit die verhouding tussen leierskapstyle en werker motivering beklemtoon.

Die bevindinge van die studie vertel dat die verkoops-leierskapstyl tot 'n groter mate in oranisasie gebruik word, as gevolg van die vasgestelde prosedure wat gevolg moet word om 'n taak af te handel. Die verkoops-, deelnemende-, en delegerende style word minimaal gebruik in hierdie organisasie en die motiveringsfaktore soos aangedui deur Hersey en Blanchard se situasionale teorie word tot 'n mindere mate gestimuleer.

In konklusie, is die basiese doelwitte van die studie bereik, aangesien die bevindinge duidelik die motiveringsvlakke van werknemers beklemtoon deur te kyk na die motiveringsfaktore en leierskapstyle wat op die voorgrond is in hierdie organisasie.   Die verhouding tussen die leierskapstyle en werkersmotivering is ook gevestig deur die tendense wat elke leierskapstyl het in die afset van sekere motiveringsfaktore soos voorgestel in Hersey en Blanchard se situasionale teorie.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1
GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH RESULTS

CHAPTER FIVE
INTERPRETATION OF DATA

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1
GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Background of the study

Our future and quality of life depend on the quality of our leaders. Leadership is a crucial factor in the success, or failure, of South African organisations. Leaders in organisations have to realise that good leadership largely determines the smooth running of an organisation. The ongoing working relationship between the leader and the worker calls for leadership styles that stimulate employees to give of their best. The organisation under investigation here requires high productivity from employees as it operates in a highly competitive market. It has to meet stringent monthly targets and produce products of consistent high quality.

Falke Hosiery, as a manufacturing company with interdependent sections (products moving from one section to the other), requires leaders who can influence subordinates to work willingly to avoid backlogs in the overall production; in other words leaders who can motivate employees to contribute to the success of the business. In order to maximise production from workers, to satisfy customers, to maintain a competitive advantage and to compete globally, the leaders at Falke have to employ work behaviours that will stimulate employees to work consistently towards achieving organisational goals. This is depicted in the following model:

1

Figure 1: Relationship between leadership style and worker behaviour

LEADER		**WORKER**

Unit of analysis in this study

Leadership style e.g. autocratic		Worker motivation : High or Low

Leadership behaviour (action) e.g. giving orders		Worker behaviour (reaction) e.g. worker coming early or not

PRODUCTS e.g. productivity or lack thereof
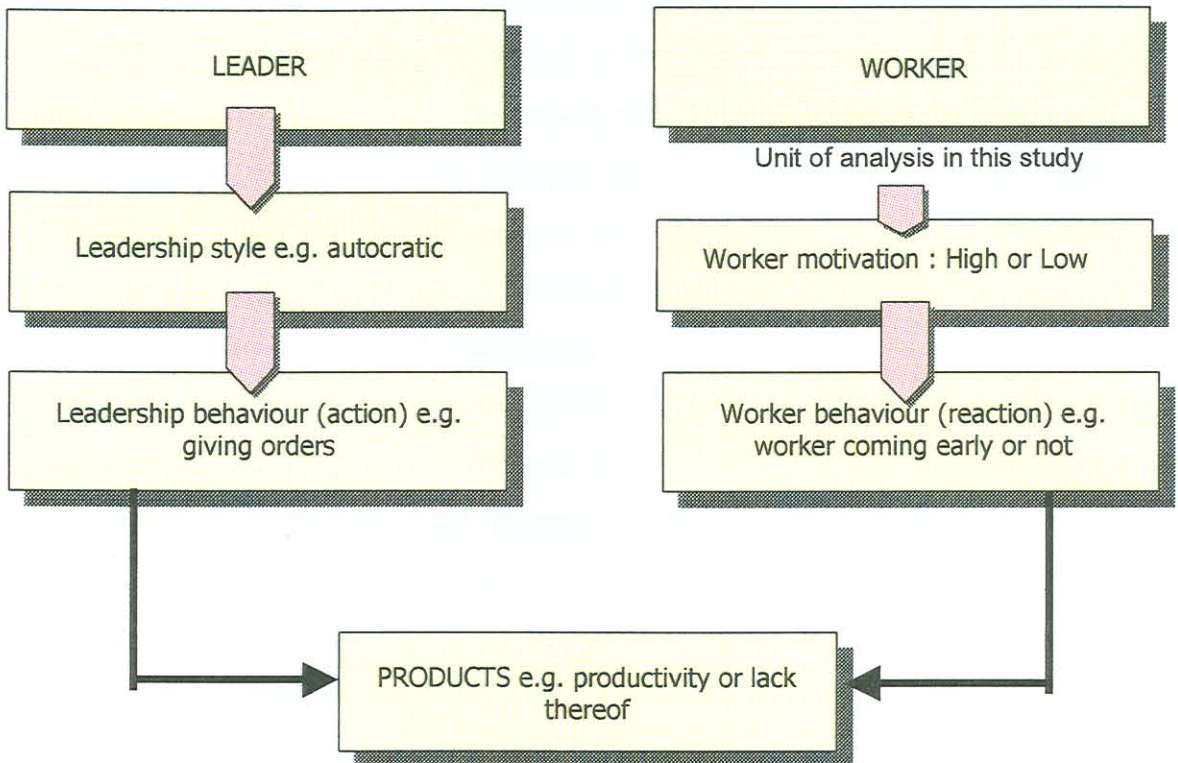
In employing different leadership styles, leaders have to ensure that their work behaviours are congruent with employees' work behaviours so that organisational goals such as high productivity can be achieved.

Leaders have to assess the nature of their business to ensure appropriate leadership behaviour. In the case of Falke Hosiery the following factors determine the nature of the business: black labourers from different ethnic groups, level of literacy in the organisation – postschool qualifications, geographical location of the company and the gender composition of the workforce. The leaders have to identify the work behaviours of their subordinates and see such behaviours in the context of the situations and problems brought to their attention. As a result they will interact with their subordinates on a more individual level and consequently know which leadership style to employ to motivate them optimally.

2

It is also essential to realise that organisational structures are changing. Organisations are becoming flatter as entire layers of hierarchies are being done away with. Many organisations are restructuring their operations due to changes in technology, mergers and the introduction of virtual offices. These changes have a powerful impact on production and workers, compelling leaders to ascertain how well their subordinates can work on their own: in other words the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour (motivation). Once the maturity level (ability to work autonomously) of the employees has been established, the leaders will know which leadership style will be most consistent with specific motivational factors in a particular situation – this is called situational leadership. Situational leadership is based on the interplay between (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behaviour) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader provides, and (3) the readiness (maturity) level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task or function (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 150). The basic assumption of situational leadership is therefore that there is no one best way of influencing people. The leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups will depend on the maturity or motivation level of the people the leader is attempting to influence in a given situation.

1.2   Statement of problem

There is a growing need for a situational approach to leadership in South African organisations, that is matching leadership styles to the maturity level of employees, to different situations and to the problems encountered in the workplace. An adversarial approach to labour conflict, which attributes blame and focuses on past injustices rather than attempting to resolve conflict jointly, currently pervades in many South African businesses. According to Saunders (1998:32), over the last ten to fifteen years, the power base in

organisations has shifted from management to labour. Managers can no longer coerce employees. To obtain the co-operation of people in organisations, managers need to develop co-operative relationships with employees, based on an understanding of employees' needs. Failure to achieve this kind of relationship between management and labour often results in psychological withdrawal on the part of workers. They will produce just enough to keep their jobs and no more. In other words, they become alienated from a work environment that provides no personal satisfaction or fulfillment.

The onus is therefore on managers not to coerce their subordinates to get work done, but to adapt their leadership styles to particular situations in order to gain the co-operation of workers. The various labour movements in South Africa in the pursuit of democracy enlightened employees about their rights in the workplace. Employees, too, pursue "win win" situations and not "I will work and you pay" situations. Thus the need for managers to take into consideration task behaviour and relationship behaviour when working with subordinates. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 96), task behaviour is the extent to which leaders are likely to organise and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each member has to carry out, and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished.

Relationship behaviour is the extent to which leaders maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support and facilitating behaviours. Relationship behaviour involves actively listening to people and supporting them in what they do; it includes motivating employees. Once the leader has established the task and relationship behaviours of his/her subordinates, he/she then decides which leadership

style to employ in a particular situation. Therefore the appropriateness of the leadership style chosen will be evident in the willingness of the employees to do their work efficiently or not.

1.3   Aims of the study

The aims of this study are:

- To use Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory to explore the relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation in a South African context (Falke Hosiery). The theory serves as a theoretical framework for this study as it deals with the relationship between different leadership styles, the maturity level of employees and the different motivational factors derived from Maslow and Herzberg's research. The theory will be explained in more detail in Chapter 2.
- To investigate employee perceptions of the leadership styles used at Falke Hosiery.
- To examine the level of worker motivation at Falke Hosiery.

The following are some of the factors that will be looked into to determine the level of worker motivation in this company.

Table 1: Difference between high and low worker motivation

HIGH WORKER MOTIVATION	LOW WORKER MOTIVATION
• Less complaints about superiors. • Feelings of togetherness. • Willingness to work extra hours. • Optimism about the organization.	Complaints about superiors. Isolation. Unwillingness to work extra hours. Pessimism about the organization.

• Willingness to share problems with superiors. • Willingness to have continuous supervision and guidance.	Unwillingness to share problems with superiors. Unwillingness to have continuous supervision and guidance.

1.4   Basic assumptions of the study

After considering the background of the study, the problem statement and the aims of the study, the researcher had to create a model on which to base the study. The model has four dimensions, namely the manager/supervisor dimension, the organisation dimension, the working environment dimension and the external environment dimension:

Figure 2: Relationship between leadership style used and worker motivation
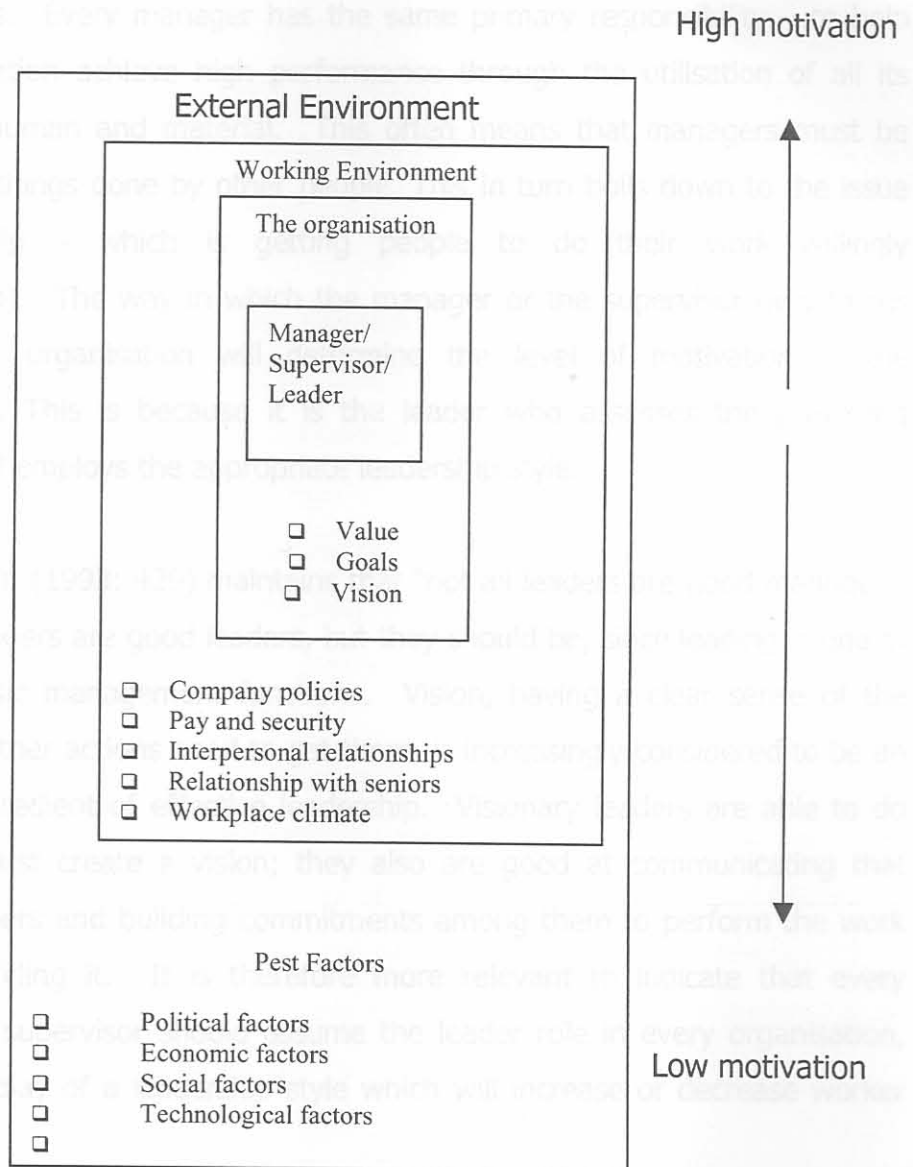
The manager/supervisor dimension: The principal assumption of this model is that the manager or supervisor is the driving force in an organisation. Among other things he/she determines the level of worker motivation. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 4), a manager is a person in an organisation responsible for the work performance of one or more other persons. Serving in positions with a wide variety of titles (supervisor, team leader, section head, administrator, vice-president, and so on), managers are

persons to whom others report. These other people are usually referred to as subordinates. Every manager has the same primary responsibility – to help the organisation achieve high performance through the utilisation of all its resources, human and material. This often means that managers must be able to get things done by other people. This in turn boils down to the issue of leadership – which is getting people to do their work willingly (followership). The way in which the manager or the supervisor gets things done in an organisation will determine the level of motivation in the organisation. This is because it is the leader who assesses the prevailing situation and employs the appropriate leadership style.

Schermerhorn (1993: 429) maintains that "not all leaders are good managers. Not all managers are good leaders, but they should be, since leading is one of the four basic management functions. Vision, having a clear sense of the future and other actions need to get there, is increasingly considered to be an essential ingredient of effective leadership. Visionary leaders are able to do more than just create a vision; they also are good at communicating that vision to others and building commitments among them to perform the work required fulfilling it. It is therefore more relevant to indicate that every manager or supervisor should assume the leader role in every organisation, thus the display of a leadership style which will increase or decrease worker motivation".

Organisation: Schermerhorn (1993: 5) says an organisation is a collection of people working together to achieve a common purpose. The assumption is that these people should be guided by others in terms of values, goals and vision. The values of the organisation are its mission, purpose, beliefs and what it stands for. The goals are articulated values which are more specific and in measurable form. Vision, as discussed earlier, is an important factor in any organisation. Furthermore it is valid to mention that good communication

starts with articulating a realistic vision. Every employee needs to know where the company is headed and whether it is meeting its mark on an ongoing basis". Those in the higher echelons (supervisors/managers) are the chief initiators of values, goals and visions in organisations. Suggestions and modifications may be made by subordinates but senior staff have the final say.

Working environment: The working environment is characterised by factors such as company policies, pay and security, interpersonal relationships, relationship with supervisors, and the workplace climate. These factors directly or indirectly affect the level of worker motivation in an organisation. In the company under discussion, the supervisors or managers are the key role players in creating a working environment conducive to greater productivity, profitability, performance and worker motivation.

Outside environment: Various external factors directly or indirectly affect worker motivation in an organisation: political factors (such as association with specific political parties), economic factors (e.g. the collapse of the rand in the case of South Africa), social problems (e.g. family problems) and technological factors. These factors are external to the organisation and beyond the control of the manager or supervisor.

The supervisor or manager should ensure that all the needs, including the physical needs, of workers are met in the organisation. The responsibility of the supervisor or manager is to encourage and motivate workers to do their work irrespective of any external factors that may affect them. This will also determine the leadership style used and the level of worker motivation. In the final analysis, the manager or supervisor is the captain of the ship (organisation) and determines the destiny of the organisation (level of worker motivation, profitability, productivity, workplace climate and level of job

satisfaction). This theoretical model will be used in Chapter 5 (Findings) to establish whether the basic aims of the study were achieved.

1.5   Operational definitions

According to Singleton et al. (1988: 100), "operational definition is the detailed description of the research operations or procedures necessary to assign units of analysis to the categories of a variable. The complete operational definition would consist of specific questions asked, together with response categories and instructions for gathering the data and assigning cases to categories". Basically, operational definitions are helpful as they indicate how variables are measured and whether good indicators were used to describe variables.   For the purposes of this study the researcher formulated the following definitions:

1.5.1 Leadership

- According to Hollander (1978) quoted in Muller (1991: 10), leadership is a process and not a phenomenon. The central figure in the leadership process is the leader. Without the leader, leadership cannot take place, and leadership styles cannot be determined. Consequently it is crucially important to differentiate between leadership, leadership styles and leaders.
- According to Rue and Byars (1995: 375), leadership is the ability to influence people willingly to follow one's guidance or adhere to one's decisions.
- Daft (1995: 376) maintains that leadership is the ability to influence people to strive for the attainment of organisational goals.
- Hemphill (1980) quoted in Muller (1991: 11) believes that leadership is the initiation of acts that result in a consistent pattern of group interaction directed toward the solution of common problems.

1.5.2 Leader

- Bateman and Zeithmahl (1990: 481) state that a leader is someone who influences others to attain goals. The greater the influence, the greater the number of followers. The more successful the goal attainment, the more evident the leadership.

- Homans (1976: 35) quoted in Muller (1991: 11) maintains that the leader is the person who comes closest to realising the norms the group values the most. This conformity gives the leader his high rank, which attracts people and implies his right to assume control of the group.

1.5.3 Leadership style

According to Fiedler and Chemers (1974: 49-50) quoted in Muller (1991: 17), a leadership style is a relatively enduring set of behaviours characteristic of the individual regardless of the particular situation.

Aspects of leadership derived from the definitions. From the above definitions it appears that leadership consists of the following:

- Interaction, that is communication between leader and followers.
- The leader and followers work towards a specific goal.
- The leader must fulfil his role in such a way that the followers do what is required of them in order to meet organisational and individual goals.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 83) concur and assert that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group toward goal achievement in a given situation. Thus it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables – L = f (s,f,s).

1.5.4 Worker motivation

In this study the focus was on the worker's motivation to work hard day in and day out. Worker motivation is not only difficult to define but also difficult to identify and apply. Steers and Porter (1991: 37) maintain that motivation is a complex concept largely because of the nature of motives. Motives are not observable; they can only be inferred. If one sees people working a great deal of overtime, one is not sure whether they are doing so because of the extra money they will earn or because they enjoy the work. For the purposes of this study, work motivation is traced to three sources:

Figure 3: Sources of worker motivation

WORKER MOTIVATION
(1) Individual (employee) - the basic needs of employee being met e.g. food.
(2) Job itself - employee finding the tasks given enjoyable e.g. dying the hoses.
(3) Organization (employer) - employee getting positive reinforcement from the supervisor.
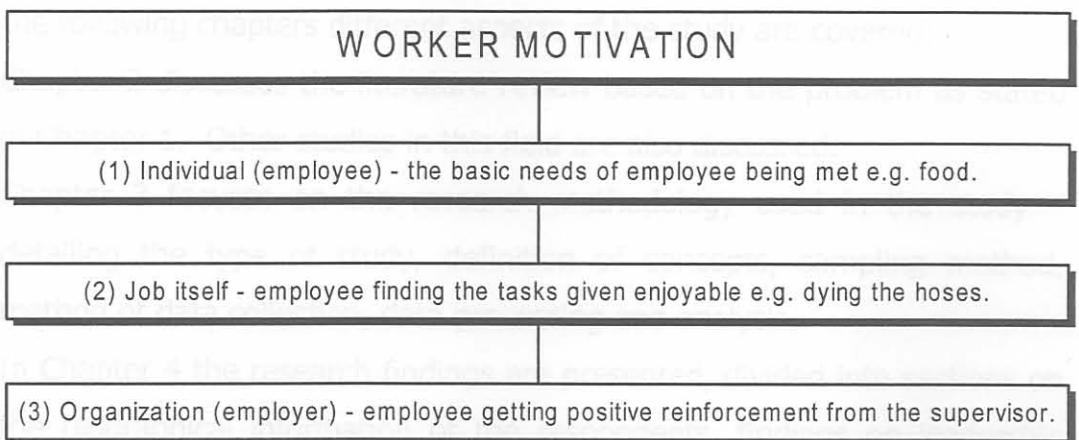
Factors such as punctuality and willingness to work extra hours were used to determine worker motivation. Questions relating to worker motivation were based on these factors and inferences drawn from the responses given.

1.5.5 Leader and supervisor

Leader, supervisor and manager are used interchangeably in this study. Leader or supervisor refers to any person who is in direct contact with his/her subordinates, especially on a daily basis.

12

1.6   Rationale for the study

- In South Africa insufficient research has been done on the textile industry (e.g. the hosiery industry), particularly on leadership and worker motivation.
- The researcher believes the study can help develop an awareness of the need for situational leadership styles in organisations.
- The researcher believes that the study will help leaders develop structures and styles that will increase worker motivation and thus also productivity and profitability.

1.7   Outline of chapters

In the following chapters different aspects of the study are covered:

- Chapter 2 discusses the literature review based on the problem as stated in Chapter 1. Other studies in this field are also discussed.
- Chapter 3 focuses on the research methodology used in the study – detailing the type of study, definition of concepts, sampling method, method of data collection, data processing and analysis.
- In Chapter 4 the research findings are presented, divided into sections on the biographical information of the respondents, findings on leadership styles and worker motivation, and relationships with other variables.
- Chapter 5 focuses on the research results and interpretations.
- Chapter 6 reviews the study and also makes recommendations on the research findings. Certain conclusions are drawn and the limitations of the study addressed.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will focus on the literature review for the study and will discuss the following points: general introduction, differences between leadership and management, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model which focuses on the task and relationship behaviours of leaders and the maturity level of employees, leadership styles as used in organisations, motivation theories as used in organisations, and the applicability of the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model to the organisation under investigation.

2.1   Introduction

Organisations of one form or another are an essential part of our society and serve many important needs, for instance the need for employment.   They compete openly to gain a competitive advantage over others and to reach their core objective, which is enhancing productivity and profitability.   Given the reality of surviving in the present turbulent times and keeping abreast of business challenges, effective leadership is needed in organisations. "Management is more usually viewed as getting things done through other people in order to achieve stated organisational goals.   The manager may react to specific situations and be more concerned with solving short-term problems" (Mullins, 1996: 247). In the changing organisations of today, it is not so much a matter of achieving organisational goals and maintaining the status quo, but of getting ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity – to the long-term benefit of the individual (employee), the industry (work itself) and the organisation (employer).   This is what constitutes effective leadership.

14

As there is a clear shift from management to leadership here, we need to distinguish between the two and to highlight the importance of leadership over management.

2.1.1 Differences between leadership and management

Zaleznik quoted in Mullins (1996: 247) outlines the differences between leadership and management as follows:

- Managers tend to adopt an impersonal or passive attitude towards goals. Leaders adopt a more personal and active attitude towards goals.
- In order to get people to accept situations, the manager continually co-ordinates and balances in order to reach compromise between conflicting values. The leader creates excitement in the work and develops choices that give substance to images that excite people.
- In their relationships with other people, managers maintain a low level of emotional involvement. Leaders have empathy with other people and give close attention to what events and actions mean.
- Managers see themselves more as conservators and regulators of the existing order of affairs with which they identify, and from which they gain rewards. Leaders work in, but do not belong to, the organisation. Their sense of identity does not depend upon membership or work roles as they search out opportunities for change.
- Management is viewed in terms of planning, organising, directing and controlling the activities of the subordinate staff. Leadership, however, is concerned more with communicating with, motivating, encouraging and involving people.

Based on these differences between leadership and management, it is evident that leadership in one way or another leads to win-win situations in organisations. Leadership takes into consideration human factors as well as output factors, unlike management which is mainly concerned with output

factors, that is organisational goals. According to Christenson et al. (1982: 155), output factors are the end result in an organisation. They indicate to what extent the organisation is achieving its objectives. In a business organisation, output factors include (1) productivity, (2) quality, (3) profitability, and (4) cost-effectiveness. Human factors reflect the state of human resources in an organisation. They indicate how well people are working together and how satisfied they are with their work. Human factors include (1) morale, (2) amount and type of communication, (3) level of motivation, (4) commitment to objectives, and (5) level of interpersonal and intergroup conflict. It needs to be emphasised that output and human factors are crucial, as they jointly determine the success of the organisation. Christenson et al. (1982: 156) maintain that "if a leader is unable to work with and through people to achieve output factors, the organisation (or at least part of the organisation) will not accomplish its goals. Similarly, if a leader fails to attend to human factors, communication breakdowns and disagreements are likely to result. In addition, motivation will decrease, and absenteeism and turnover may become a problem. Eventually, such problems are likely to have a negative impact on output factors. That is likely to result in lower levels of performance, higher costs, and poorer quality of work over time".

Taking human factors into consideration means that the way employees are led comes under scrutiny. The way in which employees respond to different leadership styles also indicates the extent of followership. Weihrich and Koontz (1993: 437) maintain that the essence of leadership is followership. In other words, it is the willingness of people to follow that makes a person a leader. Moreover, people tend to follow those whom they see as providing a means of achieving their own desires and wants – this is what constitutes worker motivation.

It is therefore appropriate to discuss Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, which describes the relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation in organisations in given situations. We will also use this model to determine whether one of the basic aims of the study was achieved, that is to explore the relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation and the tendency of certain leadership styles to elicit certain work behaviours from employees, as proposed in the model.

2.2   Guideline for interpreting the literature review

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│     HERSEY AND BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP      │
│                       MODEL                          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
│  TASK BEHAVIOUR OF   │        │ RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOURS │
│      LEADERS         │        │      OF LEADERS         │
└──────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────┘

        ┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
        │     MATURITY LEVEL OF EMPLOYEES       │
        └──────────────────────────────────────┘
```

LEADERSHIP THEORIES:
- ❖ **Two dimensional approaches**
- - **Ohio State Studies**
- - **Michigan Studies**
- - **The Management Grid**
- ❖ **Contingency approach**
- - **Fielder's contingency theory**

MOTIVATION THEORIES:
- - **Content theories i.e. Maslow's and Herzberg's theories**
- - **Process theories i.e. Vroom's and Adams' theories**

```
┌──────────────────────────────┐
│       ACHIEVEMENT OF         │
│       INDIVIDUAL AND         │
│   ORGANISATIONAL GOALS.      │
└──────────────────────────────┘
```

17

2.2.1 Background

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model proposes that there is no single best leadership style in organisations but instead that the leadership style to be employed should be guided by the particular situation. The task behaviour of the leader (the extent to which a leader provides direction for people with regard to the tasks to be done) and the relationship behaviour of the leader (the extent to which a leader engages in a two-way communication with employees) will be considered.

The task and relationship behaviours of leaders are closely linked to the maturity level of employees, that is the ability and willingness of employees to do their work. Organisation leaders have to establish an explicit link between their task and relationship behaviours and the maturity level of their employees in order to know which leadership theory or motivation theory to apply in particular situations. The effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of the leadership styles used and the motivation theories applied will be evident from the achievement and non-achievement of individual and organisational goals.

2.2.2 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Situational leadership theory is taken as the theoretical framework for this study because of its propositions, which are applicable to today's organisations. This theory is also considered applicable to the organisation under investigation, since it has nine sections with different supervisors. Because these sections fulfil different tasks in the company the leadership styles are assumed not to be the same, for example the work in the dye house is more technical than the work in the ironing house, which is labour intensive; thus the leadership styles will differ as may the level of motivation. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 150), situational leadership is based on the interplay between (1) the amount of guidance and direction

The above diagram shows the four leadership quadrants with a specific leadership style in each:

"Telling" is for low-maturity subordinates. People who are unable and unwilling (M1) to take responsibility for undertaking certain tasks are neither competent nor confident. In many cases, their unwillingness is a result of their insecurity regarding the particular task. Thus, a directive "telling" style (S1) that provides clear, specific directions and supervision has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. This style is called "telling" because it is characterised by the leader's defining roles and telling people what, how, when and where to do various tasks.

"Selling " is for low to moderate maturity subordinates. People who are unable but willing (M2) to take responsibility for certain tasks are confident but lack skills at this time. Thus, a "selling" style (S2) that provides directive behaviour to reinforce their willingness and enthusiasm is probably the most appropriate for individuals at this maturity level. Through two-way communication and explanation, the leader tries to get the followers psychologically to "buy into" desired behaviours.

"Participating" is for moderate to high maturity subordinates. People at this maturity level are able but unwilling (M3) to do what the leader wants. Their unwillingness is often a function of their lack of confidence or insecurity. Thus, a supportive non-directive, "participating" style (S3) has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. This style is called "participating" because the leader and follower share in decision-making, the main role of the leader being to facilitate and communicate. This style involves high relationship behaviour and low task behaviour.

"Delegating" is for high-maturity subordinates. People at this maturity level are able and willing or confident to take responsibility. Thus, a low-profile

"delegating" style (S4), which provides little direction or support, has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. Even though the leader may still identify the problem, the responsibility for carrying out the particular plans is given to these mature followers. They are permitted to run the show and decide on the how, when and where. At the same time, they are psychologically mature and consequently do not need above average two-way communication or supportive behaviour. This style involves low relationship behaviour and low task behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 153-154).

In employing different leadership styles, leaders in organisations must find a match between their styles and their task behaviours and relationship behaviours with their subordinates in given situations. For example the leader may apply the "telling" leadership style when working with an employee who has completed only Standard 6, while the leader may use a different style when working with an employee who has a post-school qualification. The amount of support given may also differ between the two employees because of their differences in education. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) are of the same view and maintain that while all the situational variables (leader, follower(s), supervisor(s), associates, organisation, job demands and time) are important, the emphasis in situational leadership is on the behaviour of the leader in relation to his/her followers. Furthermore, the Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory focuses on the maturity level of employees and the components of maturity.

- **Maturity level of employees**

According to situational leadership theory, there is no single best way to influence people. Which leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups depends on the maturity level of the people the leader is attempting to influence. The maturity of followers is also taken into account

in this model. Some benchmarks for maturity are provided for determining appropriate leadership style by dividing the maturity continuum in the below of the Hersey and Blanchard's leadership model into four levels: low (M1), low to moderate (M2), moderate to high (M3) and high (M4). The appropriate leadership style for each of the four maturity levels includes the right combination of task behaviour (direction) and relationship behaviour (support). Maturity is defined in situational leadership as the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 151). It has been argued that the key to effective leadership is identifying the maturity level of the individual or group one is attempting to influence and then applying the appropriate leadership style.

- **Components of maturity**

Hersey and Blanchard discuss the components of maturity as follows:

Achievement-motivated people have certain characteristics in common, including the capacity to set high but obtainable goals, concern for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success, and the desire for task-relevant feedback (how well am I doing?) rather than for attitudinal feedback (how well do you like me?). Organisations should be more interested in task-relevant feedback.

Education or experience is important for organisations. One can gain task-relevant maturity through education or experience or a combination of both. Education is defined as formal classroom learning, while experience involves what one learns on one's own or on the job.

Education or experience affects ability and achievement, while motivation affects willingness. The concept of maturity accordingly has two dimensions: job maturity (ability) and psychological maturity (willingness) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 157). Thus the need for leaders to consider the components of maturity as they may be helpful in accelerating the desired behaviours.

(task behaviour) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader provides and (3) the readiness (maturity) level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function or objective. Task behaviour is the extent to which a leader provides direction to subordinates: telling them what to do, when to do it, where to do it, and how to do it. It means setting goals for them and defining their roles. Relationship behaviour is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication with subordinates: providing support, encouragement, psychological help and facilitation. It means actively listening to people and supporting them in what they do. Leaders in organisations should accordingly employ task and relationship behaviours that stimulate employees to do their work willingly and thus contribute toward the achievement of individual and organisational goals. This concept was developed to help prospective leaders, regardless of their roles, be more effective in their daily interactions with others.

Figure 4: Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory
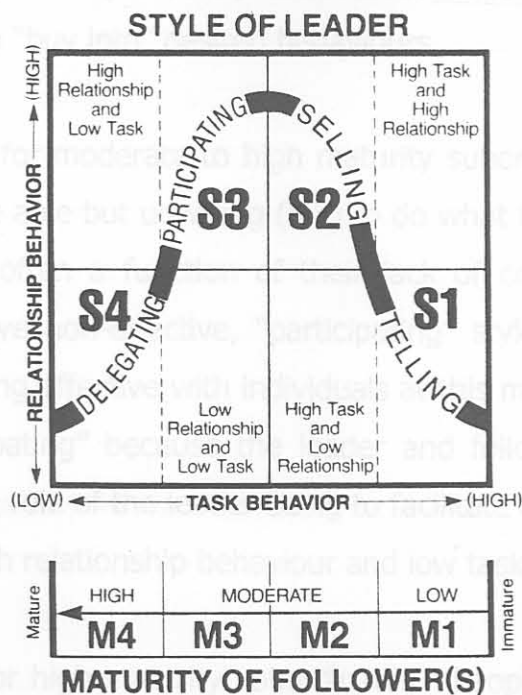
(Daft, 1995: 387)

In assessing the maturity of employees, leaders should evaluate their ability and willingness to work. Ability can be determined by examining past performance: Has the person done well in this area before, or has his/her performance been poor or non-existent? Does the staff member have the necessary knowledge to perform well in the area, or does he/she not know how to do what needs to be done? Willingness can be determined by watching a person's behaviour in a particular case: What is the person's interest level? Does he/she seem enthusiastic or apathetic? What is the person's commitment to the work in this area? Does he/she appear to enjoy doing the required tasks or merely anxious to get them over with? Is the person's self-confidence evident in this area or does he/she seem insecure? The person's maturity level gives a clue as to how he/she can be motivated in the specific area and which leadership style should be used with that specific individual. Determining employees' maturity level will help leaders in organisations decide which leadership theory or model and which motivational theory or model to apply when working with individual employees. This explains the need to consider different leadership theories as used in organisations and different motivational theories as used by leaders in working towards the achievement of individual and organisational goals.

2.3 Leadership styles as used in organisations

Different leadership styles are uniquely applied depending on the nature and goals of organisations, and the maturity level of employees. These approaches are discussed in order to establish the following:

- The initial studies that contributed to the development of different leadership styles in organisations.
- Which leadership styles are used in the organisation under question by considering these different approaches.

23

- Which leadership styles are effective or ineffective in motivating employees in organisations.

2.3.1 Two-dimensional approach

- **Ohio State University studies**

In 1945, a group of researchers at Ohio State University began extensive investigations of leadership, focusing on the study of leader behaviour. Their efforts uncovered many provocative insights and changed the conceptual foundation of leadership research from a trait-based approach to a behaviour base (Donnelly et.al, 1995:388). The studies identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour namely "consideration" and "initiating structure". These two dimensions described leadership behaviour in organisational settings. The researchers assessed how supervisors think they should behave in leadership roles. Leaders who scored high on the consideration dimension reflected a work atmosphere of mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas and consideration of subordinates' feelings. A low consideration score indicated that leaders were more impersonal in their dealings with subordinates.

Furthermore a high initiating structure score indicated that leaders structured their roles and those of subordinates toward the attainment of goals. They were actively involved in planning work activities, communicating pertinent information and scheduling work.

Daft (1995: 382) points out that consideration and initiating structures are independent of each other, which means that a leader with a high degree of consideration may be either high or low in terms of initiating structure. A leader may have any four styles: high initiating structure – low consideration structure; high initiating structure – high consideration structure; low initiating structure – low consideration structure; low initiating structure – high consideration structure. The Ohio State research found that the high

consideration structure – high initiating structure style achieved better performance and greater satisfaction than the other leadership styles. This study led to further studies in leadership like the Michigan studies on leadership.

- **University of Michigan studies**

Studies at the University of Michigan at about the same time adopted a different approach by comparing the behaviour of effective and ineffective supervisors. The most effective supervisors were those who focused on subordinates' human needs in order to "build effective workgroups with high performance goals". The Michigan researchers used the term employee-centred leaders for leaders who established high performance goals and displayed supportive behaviour towards subordinates. The less effective leaders were called job-centred leaders; they tended to be less concerned with goal achievement and human needs, and more concerned with meeting schedules, keeping costs low and achieving production efficiency (Daft, 1995: 382-383).

- **Managerial grid**

Blake and Mouton of the University of Texas proposed a three-dimensional leadership theory they called the managerial grid, which incorporates some of the findings of the Ohio State and Michigan studies. The three-dimensional model and five of its major management styles are shown in the following diagram.
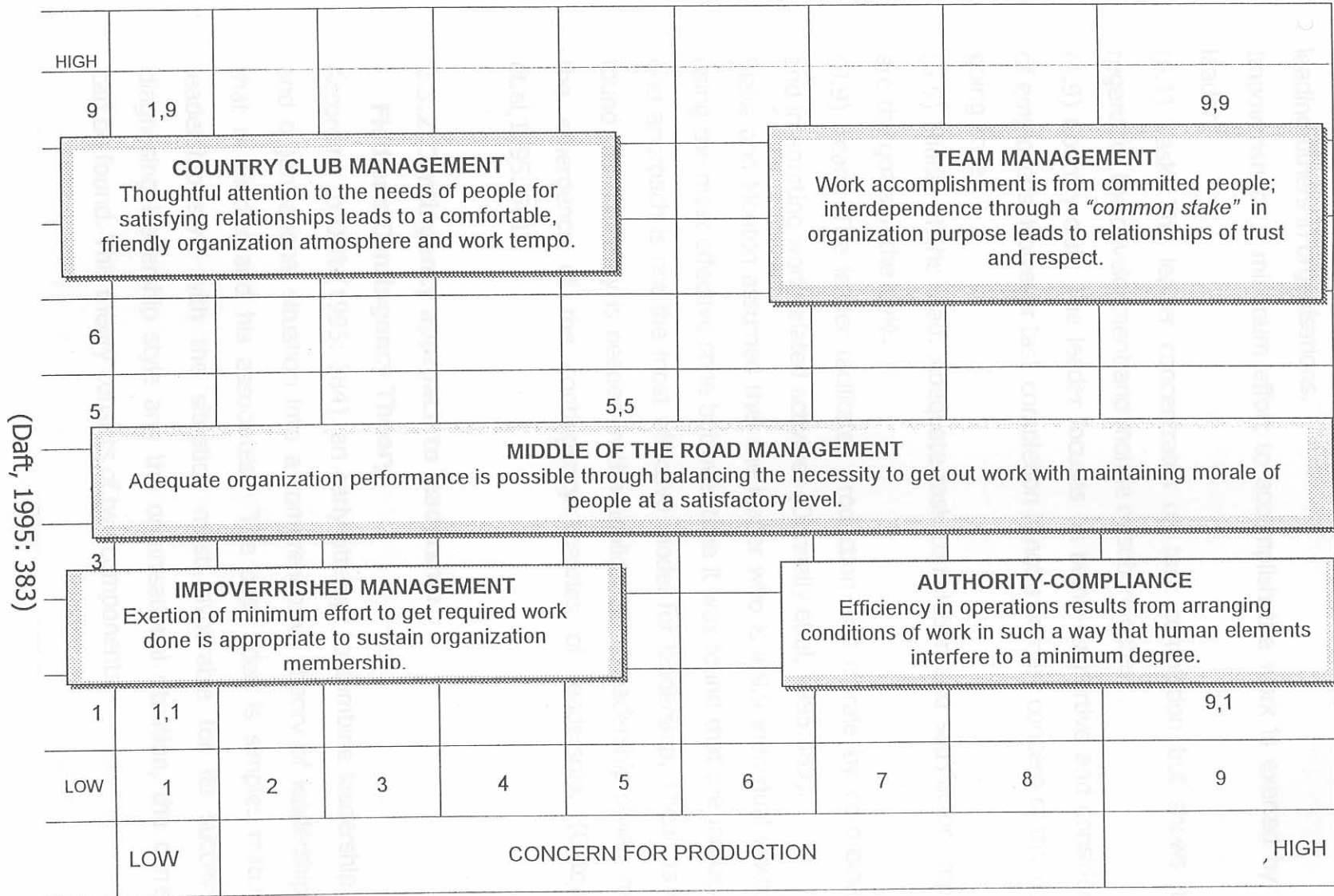
Figure 5: Blake and Mouton's managerial grid

(Daft, 1995: 383)

These five leadership styles are used to highlight different approaches to leading others in organisations.

Impoverished: A minimum effort to accomplish the work is exerted by the leader.

(9.1) Task: The leader concentrates on task completion but shows little regard for the development and morale of subordinates.

(1.9) Country club: The leader focuses on being supportive and considerate of employees. However task completion is not a primary concern of this easy-going style.

(5.5) Middle of the road: Adequate task completion and satisfactory morale are the goals of the style.

(9.9) Team: The leader facilitates production and morale by co-ordinating and integrating work-related activities (Donnelly et.al, 1995:389).

Blake and Mouton assumed that the leader who is a 9.9 individual would be using the most effective style but over time it was found that the managerial grid approach is not the most effective model for leadership. Theorists later found that flexibility is needed in the application of leadership styles, hence the emergence of the contingency theories of leadership. (Gatewood et.al,1995: 501).

2.3.2 Contingency approach to leadership

- **Fiedler's Contingency Theory**

According to Daft (1995: 384), an early attempt to combine leadership style and organisational situation into a comprehensive theory of leadership was that of Fiedler and his associates. The basic idea is simple: match the leadership style with the situation most favourable for its success. By diagnosing leadership style and the organisational situation, the correct fit can be found. This theory consists of two components:-

a. Leadership style

According to Daft (1995: 384), the cornerstone of Fiedler's contingency theory is the extent to which the leader's style is relationship oriented or task oriented. A relationship-oriented leader is concerned with people. A task-oriented leader is primarily motivated by task accomplishment, which is similar to the initiating structure. Leadership style was measured with a questionnaire known as the least-preferred co-worker (LPC) scale. The LPC scale used by Fiedler has a set of 16 bipolar adjectives:

Open --guarded

Quarrelsome -- harmonious

Efficient --- inefficient

Self assured -- hesitant

Gloomy --- cheerful

If the leader describes the least preferred co-worker using positive concepts, he/she is considered relationship oriented, that is cares about and is sensitive to other people's feelings. Conversely, if a leader uses negative concepts to describe the least-preferred co-worker, he/she is considered task oriented, that is sees other people in negative terms and places greater value on task activities than on people.

b. Situation

According to Daft (1995: 384), leadership situations can be analysed in terms of three elements: the quality of leader-member relationships, task structure and position power. Each of these elements can be described as either favourable or unfavourable for the leader.

- Leader-member relations refers to the group atmosphere and members' attitude toward and acceptance of the leader. When subordinates trust, respect and have confidence in the leader, leader-member relations are considered good. When subordinates distrust, do not respect and have

little confidence in the leader, leader-member relations are considered poor (Daft 1995: 384).

- Task structure refers to the extent to which tasks performed by the group are defined, involve specific procedures, and have clear, explicit goals. When task structure is high, the situation is considered favourable to the leader; when low, the situation is less favourable (Daft, 1995: 385).

- Position power is the extent to which the leader has formal authority over subordinates. Position power is high when the leader has the power to plan and direct the work of subordinates, evaluate it and reward or punish subordinates. Position power is low when the leader has little authority over subordinates and cannot evaluate their work or reward them. When the position power is high, the situation is considered favourable for the leader; when low, the situation is considered unfavourable (Daft, 1995: 385). Fiedler examined the relationship between leadership style, situational favourability and task performance, and came up with the following patterns:

Figure 6: Fiedler's Contingency Theory

How Leader Style Fits the Situation
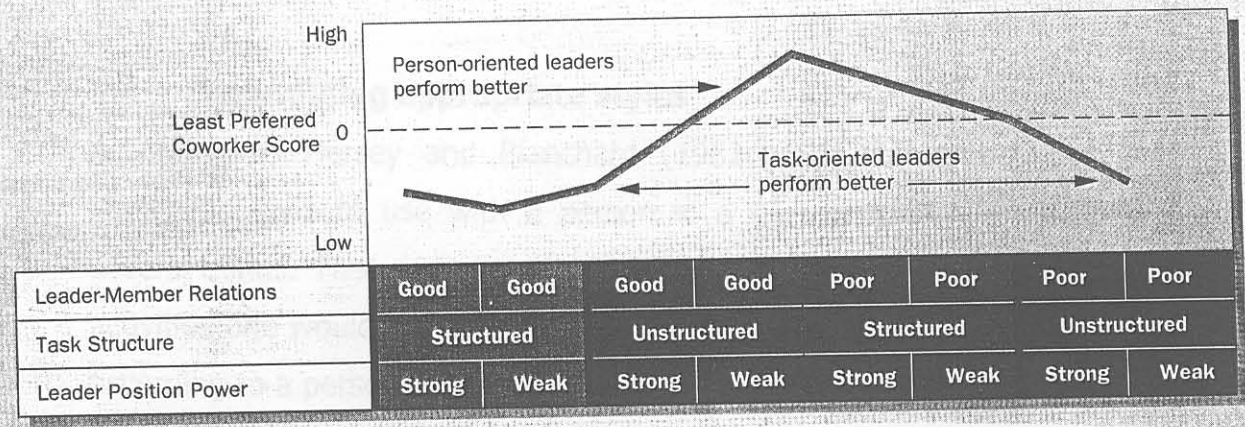
Leader-Member Relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task Structure	Structured		Unstructured		Structured		Unstructured	
Leader Position Power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

Person-oriented leaders perform better

Task-oriented leaders perform better

Least Preferred Coworker Score

High / 0 / Low

(Daft, 1995: 386)

29

According to this theory, task-oriented leaders are more effective when the situation is either highly favourable or highly unfavourable. Relationship-oriented leaders are more effective in situations of moderate favourability. Considerable research has been done on Fiedler's model, generating support for as well as criticism of his ideas. Criticism of the model includes its neglect of leaders who score in the middle on the LPC scale, the use of the LPC scale itself, the fact that many leaders can and do change their behaviours, and the relative lack of consideration given to other situational characteristics concerning followers. Nonetheless, Fiedler's Contingency Theory was one of the first to recognise the importance of the situation for leadership effectiveness, and it sensitised leaders to the ineffectiveness of the one-best way approach to leadership. On the other hand this theory was criticised in terms of its applicability to organisations. According to Donnelly et.al. (1995:392) factors like unions, technology, time and costs of changes must be considered. For example, a unionised company that has a highly routine technology and is currently faced with intense competition in new product development may not have the patience, time and energy to modify the three situational dimensions so that its leaders become more effective. However, Fiedler's theory provided a stating point for situational leadership research.

2.4   Determining appropriate styles

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 156), in determining which leadership style to use with a person in a given situation one should do several things. First, one should decide what areas of an individual or group's activities one would like to influence. In the world of work these areas vary according to a person's responsibilities.

Before managers can determine the appropriate leadership style to use with a particular individual, they should decide what aspect of that person's job they want to influence.

Once this decision has been made, the second step is to determine the ability or motivation (maturity level) of the individual in each of the selected areas.

The third and final step is deciding which of the four leadership styles will be appropriate for this individual in each of these areas. Hersey and Blanchard's leadership model is appropriate in the firm under investigation as it has nine areas of operation within which different roles have to be fulfilled. Falke Hosiery has the following sections: knitting, auto assembly, manual house, quality department, greige store, dye house, courtesy, packing and dispatch. The different procedures used in each section call for different leadership styles for motivating workers. Leaders in the different sections should consider the ability and willingness (maturity) of their subordinates and then decide which leadership approach to apply. Various factors also influence the choice of a leadership style at a particular time. These factors are discussed below:

2.5   Factors that influence the choice of leadership style
2.5.1 Nature of workers

The nature of the particular workers is a major factor in determining the choice of leadership style. People are unique and they react differently to different leadership styles; leaders in organisations should therefore know their subordinates on an individual basis. The extent of subordinates' freedom also affects the way they function in organisations.

Figure 7: Leadership style and subordinate's freedom

Use of authority by manager						Area of freedom for subordinates
Manager makes decision and announces it.	Manager sells decision.	Manager presents idea and invites questions.	Manager presents tentative decision, subject to change.	Manager presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision.	Manager defines limits, asks group to make decision.	Manager permits subordinates to function within limits defined by superior.

Rue and Byars (1995: 383)

The above diagram illustrates the relationship between a leader's behaviour (leadership style) and subordinates' degree of freedom. Rue and Byars (1995: 384) maintain that a leader's behaviour is acceptable to subordinates to the degree that they see it as a source of satisfaction now or as a step toward future satisfaction. Leader behaviour (leadership style) influences worker motivation when it makes the satisfaction of their needs contingent on successful performance; and when it provides the guidance, support and rewards needed for effective performance.

If workers are able and motivated to perform a particular job, they can be given extensive freedom. A participating or delegating style can be used, since the workers have the necessary abilities. They can be allowed to participate in determining what should be done and how it should be done. More involvement from the leader will be needed if the workers are not capable or motivated to do the job. If workers lack the ability to perform a specific task, more direction has to be provided. Considerable time needs to be spent on telling them what to do and explaining how the task should be performed. If workers are unwilling to accept responsibility for a job, fairly

32

close supervision is required. Clear instructions should be provided, follow-ups done and corrective action taken if necessary (Christenson et al., 1982: 165).

2.5.2 Amount of time available

Christenson et al. (1982: 165) maintain that when ample time is available any of the supervisory leadership styles may be used. When there is limited time, the leadership styles to be utilised will also be limited. The participatory style requires a lot of time for discussion to get everyone to agree on a course of action, but this will not be possible if time pressures are high. The consulting style is also time consuming as the supervisor has to get ideas and opinions from the workers before deciding on how to approach the task. The telling style is therefore appropriate when there is time pressure; it can be used with workers who are capable and motivated to perform the task.

2.5.3 What the leader wants to accomplish

Christenson et al. (1982: 166) say that if the job to be performed is complex and requires creativity, a delegating or participatory style may be the most effective. These styles allow discussion on the optimal use of workers' talents. If the workers do not have the abilities to handle complex jobs, the supervisor should adopt a more supervisor-centred style. He/She can use directing and consulting styles when jobs are specialised and routine, but with close supervision as some workers may dislike routine work. If they like routine work, the delegating style may be used.

2.5.4 The employer's expectations

The expectations of the employer and his leadership style can influence the style his subordinates use as supervisors. Directing and consulting styles are more supervisor-centred and can be used if workers lack the ability or motivation to perform a specific job, if time is limited to accomplish the task,

or if the employer expects a supervisory-centred style. The employer is probably the person who best knows the expectations of the overall organisation, which he/she should communicate to subordinates. Once workers know what is expected of them, their commitment and motivation may be enhanced. Maude (1980: 157) is of the same view and holds that "motivation is closely linked with communication. If success is to be continuous the employee must fully understand his job with relation to the group activity. An assembly worker may not worry about quality control or output figures – until he learns that he is assembling a vital component for an important order".

2.6   Studies on situational leadership

Recent research on leadership has revealed that the most effective executives use a collection of distinct leadership styles – each in the right measure, at the right time. According to Goleman (2000: 78), research done by consulting firm Hay/McBer, using a sample of 3 871 executives drawn from a database of more than 20 000 executives worldwide, takes much of the mystery out of effective leadership. The research identified six distinct leadership styles, each springing from different components of emotional intelligence. The styles, taken individually, appear to have a direct and unique impact on the working atmosphere of a company, section or team, and, in turn, on their financial performance. "And perhaps most important, the research indicates that leaders with the best results do not reply on only one leadership style, they use most of them in a given week – seamlessly and in different measure depending on the business situation" (Goleman, 2000: 79-80). The six styles of leadership are: (1) Coercive leaders who demand immediate compliance, (2) authoritative leaders who mobilise people toward a vision, (3) affiliate leaders who create emotional bonds and harmony, (4) leaders who build consensus through participation; (5) pacesetting leaders

who expect excellence and self-direction, and (6) coaching leaders who develop people for the future.

Table 2: The six leadership styles of Goleman

	Coercive	Authorita-tive	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
The leader's modus operandi	Demands immediate compliance	Mobilises people toward a vision	Creates harmony and builds emotional bonds	Forges consensus through participation	Sets high standards for performance	Develops people for the future
The style in a phrase	"Do what I tell you"	"Come with me"	"People come first"	"what do you think"	"Do as I do, now"	"Try this"
Underlying emotional intelligence competencies	Drive to achieve, initiative, self-control	Self confidence, empathy, change catalyst	Empathy, building relationships communicat-ion	Collaboration, team leadership, communicat-ion	Conscientiousness, drive to achieve, initiative	Developing others, empathy self-awareness
When the style works best	In a crisis, to kick start a turnabout, or with problem employees	When changes require a new vision, or when a clear direction is needed	To heal rifts in a team or to motivate people during stressful circumstances	To build buy-in or consensus, or to get input from valuable employees	To get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team	To help an employee improve performance or develop long-term strengths
Overall impact on the climate	Negative	Most strongly positive	Positive	Positive	Negative	Positive

(Goleman, 2000:82)

According to Goleman (2000: 83), research has shown that of the six leadership styles, the authoritative style is the most effective. The authoritative leader is a visionary; he motivates people by indicating how

their work fits into a larger vision for the organisation. People who work for such leaders understand that what they do matters and why.   Authoritative leadership also maximises commitment to the organisation's goals and strategy.   By framing their individual tasks within a grand vision, the authoritative leader defines standards that revolve around that vision. When he/she gives performance feedback – whether positive or negative – the overriding criterion is whether or not the performance furthers the vision. The standards for success are clear to all, as are the rewards. Finally, one should consider the style's flexibility. An authoritative leader states the end but generally gives people plenty of leeway to devise their own means. Authoritative leaders give subordinates the freedom to innovate, experiment and take calculated risks.

Because of its positive impact, the authoritative style works well in almost any business situation.   But it is particularly effective when a business is struggling. An authoritative style, powerful though it may be, will not work in every situation. The approach fails, for instance, when a leader works with a team of experts or peers who are more experienced than he is; they may see the leader as pompous or out of touch.

Although the leadership styles identified in this research are differently labelled, most of them fit into the four quadrants of the Situational Leadership Model of Hersey and Blanchard. Organisations in the current business environment still need to adapt leadership styles to different situations – the principal assumption of this study. According to Goleman (2000: 87-88), effective leaders switch easily between the leadership styles as required. Such leaders do not mechanically match their style to fit a checklist of situations – they are far more fluid. They are sensitive to the impact they have on others and seamlessly adjust their style to get the best results. They can tell immediately that a talented but underperforming

employee has been demoralised by an unsympathetic, do-it-the-way-I-tell you manager and that he/she needs to be reminded why his/her work matters. The present study is of paramount importance to this research undertaking, as it will be used for comparison purposes. It will be used as a benchmark to judge whether the organisation under consideration is flexible enough or not in the employment of leadership styles. The study has shown that flexibility of leadership styles is still vital in organisations today; hopefully, it will sensitise the organisation under investigation to continue with their current leadership styles or to make adjustments as required. This will help to stimulate employees to do their work willingly and effectively, thus the need to discuss the concept of worker motivation in organisations.

2.7 Worker motivation

Worker motivation is crucial for the survival of any organisation. Motivation is the driving force that makes individuals perform better at work and thereby achieve overall organisational goals such as making profits. Thus the need for leaders in organisations to understand worker motivation and to know which motivational approaches to apply with subordinates. Steers and Porter (1991: 37) define motivation as "that which energises, directs and sustains behaviour". Robbins (1989: 147) says it is the "willingness to exert higher levels of efforts toward organisational goals, conditioned by the efforts and ability to satisfy some individual need". Landy (1989: 316) believes motivation is only one aspect of a more general process – "motivation concerns the conditions responsible for variations in the intensity, quality and direction of ongoing behaviour". Mohl (1991: 20) urges managers to differentiate between "moving" an employee and motivating him/her. Employees are moved to work when they do something they do not enjoy doing (Mohl, 1991). He believes dedication and commitment to a task occur only when the worker finds the task, in itself, enjoyable (Mohl, 1991: 20).

Motivation is a complex concept largely because of the nature of motives. People differ not only in their ability to do something, but also in their willingness to do it, that is their motivation. Motivation depends on the strength of people's motives. Motives are sometimes defined as the needs, wants, drives or impulses in an individual. Motives are directed towards goals, which may be conscious or subconscious. Motives are the "why" of behaviour. They arouse and maintain activity and determine the general direction of the behaviour of an individual. In essence, motives or needs are the mainsprings of action (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 15).

The difficulty of measuring motivation in human beings is that motives are not observable, but inferred. If you see someone doing a great deal of overtime, you are not sure whether he/she is doing so because of the extra money he/she will earn or because he/she likes the job. There are five primary reasons why it is difficult to infer motives from observed behaviour:

- *Several motives may be expressed by a single act.*
- *Motives may appear in disguised form.*
- *Several motives may be expressed through similar or identical acts.*
- *Similar motives may be expressed in different behaviour.*
- *The expression of certain motives may be significantly moderated by cultural and personal characteristics* (Steers and Porter, 1991: 38).

Any inference is further complicated by the fact that motives are dynamic in nature. In addition, every worker is unique. Workers may have a variety of needs, desires and expectations at any one time; there may even be an element of conflict present (Steers and Porter, 1991: 40). Consequently the intensity with which workers pursue certain activities differs not only from person to person, but also intra-individually, and from occasion to occasion. This diversity of human responses complicates matters for management.

How does a manager or supervisor motivate a diverse group of subordinates? Mather (1991: 16) states that managers cannot assume that workers at all levels will spontaneously develop adequate involvement and commitment. Mere exhortation will also not result in this response – conditions, which meet the socio-psychological needs of workers, must be created.

Thus the need for leaders in organisations to take into consideration their task behaviours, relationship behaviours and the maturity of their subordinates in any attempt to trigger the desired level of motivation.

Numerous motivation theories have been developed over the years – each, with its own perspective, an attempt to explain motivation. For the purposes of this study the following motivation theories will be considered.

2.8   Motivation theories

It is the duty of leaders to provide an environment that encourages employees to work hard.   Different motivation   theories are applied in organisations,   classified   in   this   study   as   classic   and   contemporary approaches. The classic approaches are those that have been used since the evolution of motivation, while the contemporary approaches are more recent conceptual frameworks.

2.8.1 Classical approaches

- **Traditional approach**: The study of employee motivation began with the work of Frederick W. Taylor on scientific management – which pertains to the systematic analysis of an employee's job for the purpose of increasing efficiency. For example, economic rewards are provided to employees for good performance. The emphasis on pay evolved into the perception of workers as economic units – who would work harder for

higher pay. In other words, paying the highest possible wages is the most efficient and productive way to motivate workers (Daft, 1995: 403).

- **Human relations approach**: Beginning with the landmark Hawthorne studies, non-economic rewards such as congenial work groups that met workers' social needs, appeared more important than money as a motivator of work behaviour. Further studies led researchers to conclude that simply paying attention to workers could change their work behaviour for the better. This was called the Hawthorne effect. They emphasised the importance of the social needs of individuals, and highlighted the work organisation as a social organisation.

- **Human resources approach**: The human resources approach carries the concepts of economic man and social man further to introduce the concept of the whole person. Human resources theory suggests that employees are complex and motivated by many factors. By assuming that employees are competent and able to make major contributions, managers can enhance organisational performance (Daft, 1995: 404).The human resources approach laid the groundwork for contemporary perspectives on worker motivation.

2.8.2 Contemporary approaches

Contemporary approaches to employee motivation are dominated by three types of theories, namely content, process and reinforcement theories.

2.8.2.1   *Content theories*

Content theories provide insight into the needs of people in organisations. They attempt to explain those specific things that actually motivate the individual at work. These theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy their needs. Content theories place emphasis on what motivates

people (Mullins, 1996: 488). They include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory and McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory. These theories were chiefly used in the formulation of questions in the attached questionnaire.

1) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory: The most famous content theory was developed by Abraham Maslow. Maslow's theory proposes that humans are motivated by multiple needs and that these needs exist in a hierarchical order (Daft, 1995: 403).

Physiological needs: These are the most basic human physical needs and include food, water and sex. In an organisational setting, these needs are reflected in the need for adequate heat, air and a basic salary to ensure survival.

Safety needs: These are the needs for a safe and secure physical and emotional environment, and freedom from threat. In an organisational workplace, safety needs are the need for safe jobs, fringe benefits and job security.

Belonging needs: These needs reflect the desire to be accepted by one's peers, to have friends, to be part of a group, and to be loved. In the organisation, these needs influence the desire for good relationships with co-workers, participation in work groups, and a positive relationship with supervisors.

Esteem needs: These needs relate to the desire for a positive self-image and to receive attention, recognition and appreciation from others. Within organisations, esteem needs are the need for recognition, an increase in responsibility, high status and credit for contributions to the organisation.

Self-actualisation needs: These represent the need for self-fulfilment, which is the highest need category. It concerns developing one's full potential, increasing one's skills and becoming a better person. Self-actualisation needs can be met in the organisation by providing people with

the opportunity to grow and be creative, training them for challenging assignments, and offering them advancement (Daft, 1995: 403).   These needs are illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 8: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Fulfillment of the Job	Need hierarchy	Fulfillment on the job
Education, religion, hobbies, personal growth	SELF-ACTUALIZATION NEEDS	Opportunities for training, advancement, growth, and creativity
Approval of family, friends, community	ESTEEM NEEDS	Recognition, high status, increased responsibilities
Family, friends, community groups	BELONGINGNESS NEEDS	Work groups, clients, co-workers, supervisors
Freedom from war, pollution, violence	SAFETY NEEDS	Safe work, fringe benefits, job security
Food, water , sex	PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS	Heat, air, base salary

(Daft, 1995: 403)

Maslow's theory helps explain worker motivation in organisations. One of his main propositions is that once a lower need has been satisfied it no longer acts as a strong motivator. The needs of the next higher level then act as a strong motivator. The needs of succeeding higher levels in the hierarchy demand satisfaction and become a motivating factor. Only unsatisfied needs motivate a person (Mullins, 1996: 490). This poses a problem because it is difficult to ascertain if the lower needs of employees have been satisfied (food), before the following level of needs can be addressed and satisfied.

2) Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory: Fredrick Herzberg developed another popular theory of motivation called the two-factor theory.   Herzberg interviewed hundreds of workers with regard to times when they were highly motivated to work and other times when they were dissatisfied and unmotivated to work. The two-factor theory is illustrated below.
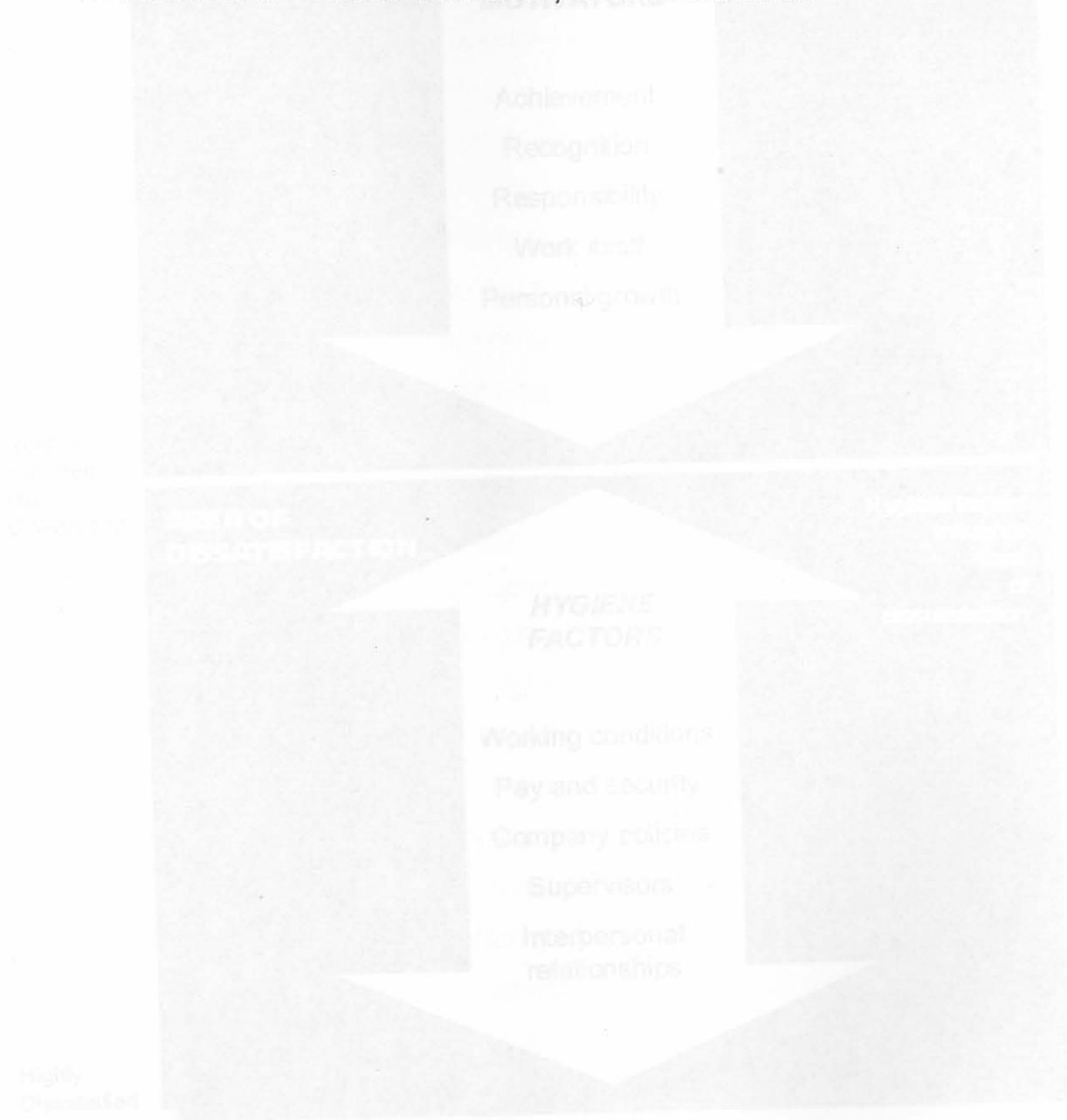
Figure 9: Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory
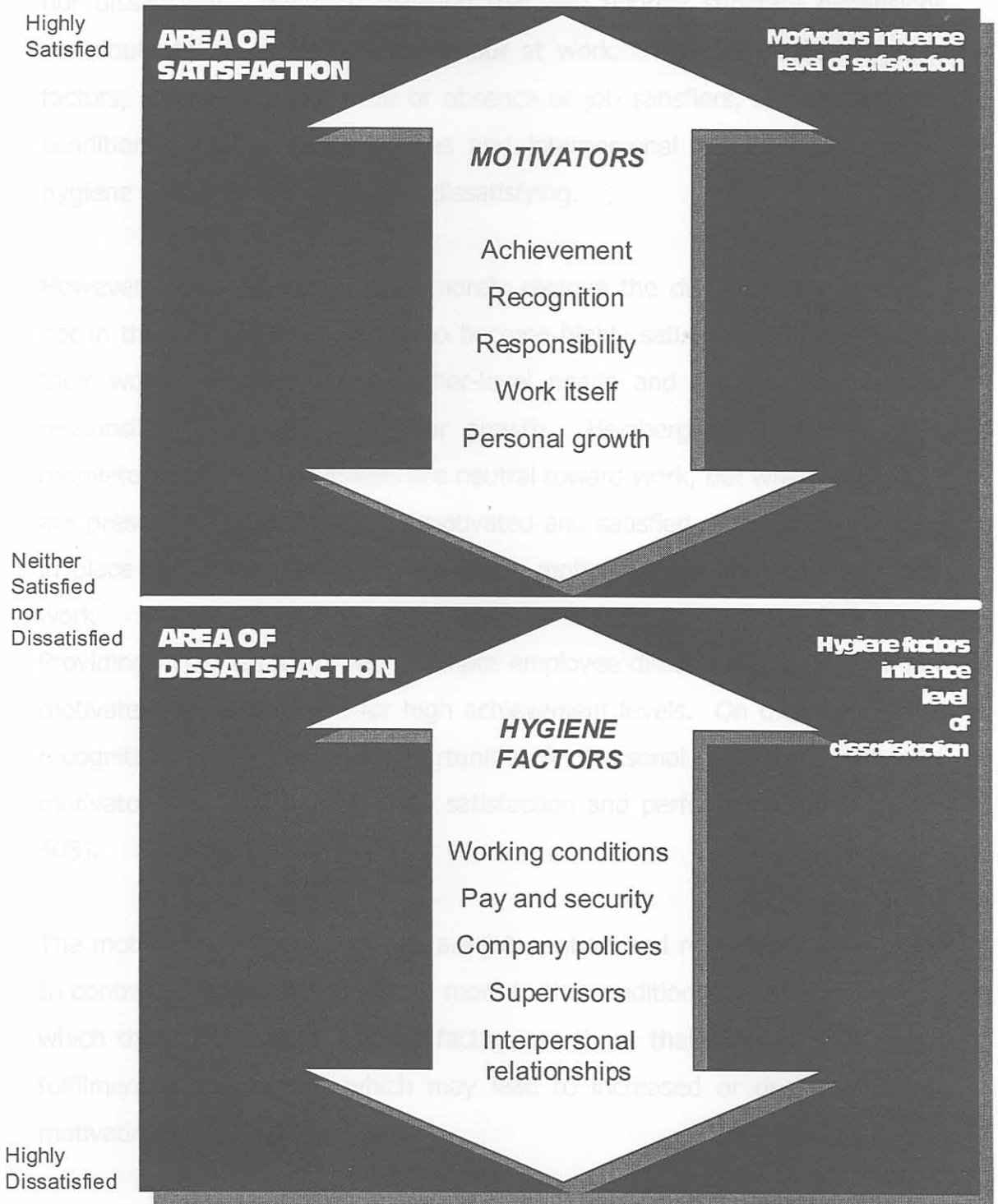
Highly
Satisfied

AREA OF
SATISFACTION

Motivators influence
level of satisfaction

MOTIVATORS

Achievement

Recognition

Responsibility

Work itself

Personal growth

Neither
Satisfied
nor
Dissatisfied

AREA OF
DISSATISFACTION

Hygiene factors
influence
level
of
dissatisfaction

**HYGIENE
FACTORS**

Working conditions

Pay and security

Company policies

Supervisors

Interpersonal
relationships

Highly
Dissatisfied

(Daft, 1995: 408)

44

The centre of the scale is neutral, meaning that workers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Herzberg believed that two entirely separate dimensions contribute to an employee's behaviour at work. This first, called hygiene factors, involves the presence or absence of job satisfiers, such as working conditions, pay, company policies and interpersonal relationships. When hygiene factors are poor, work is dissatisfying.

However, good hygiene factors merely remove the dissatisfaction, they do not in themselves cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work. Motivators are higher-level needs and include achievement, responsibility and opportunity for growth. Herzberg believed that when motivators are absent, workers are neutral toward work, but when motivators are present, workers are highly motivated and satisfied. Motivators must be in place before employees are so highly motivated that they excel at their work. The implication of the two-factor theory for managers is clear. Providing hygiene factors will eliminate employee dissatisfaction, but will not motivate workers to strive for high achievement levels. On the other hand, recognition, challenges and opportunities for personal growth are powerful motivators and will promote high satisfaction and performance (Daft, 1995: 408).

The motivators or growth factors are job centred and relate to the job itself. In contrast, hygiene factors relate more to the conditions and environment in which the work is done. These factors are those that determine the need fulfilment of employees, which may lead to increased or decreased work motivation.

3) McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory: The final content theory was developed by David McClelland. It proposes that certain types of needs are acquired during the individual's lifetime. In other words, people are not born

45

with these needs but may acquire them through their life experiences. The three needs most frequently studied are:

The need for achievement: This is the desire to accomplish something difficult, attain a high standard of success, master complex tasks and surpass others.

The need for affiliation: This is the desire to form close personal relationships, avoid conflict and establish warm friendships.

The need for power: This is the desire to influence or control others, be responsible for others and have authority over others (Daft, 1995: 409).

2.8.2.2   *Process theories*

Process theories attempt to identify the relationship between the dynamic variables that make up motivation. These theories are concerned more with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. Process theories place emphasis on the actual process of motivation (Mullins, 1996: 488). They include the equity theory, the path-goal theory and the expectancy theory.

1) **Adam's Equity Theory**: Equity theory is a process theory of motivation known best through the work of Stacy Adams. The essence of the theory is that perceived inequity is a motivating state, that is when people believe they have been inequitably treated in comparison to others, they will try to eliminate the discomfort and restore a sense of equity to the situation.   Such equity comparison typically occurs when managers allocate extrinsic rewards, especially monetary incentives or pay increases. A sense of inequity arises whenever people feel the rewards they receive for their work are unfair, given the rewards other persons appear to be getting. Adams predicted that people will respond in one or more of the following ways to perceived inequity:

- *Change their work inputs.*
- *Try to change rewards received.*
- *Use different comparison points.*
- *Rationalise the inequity.*
- *Leave the situation* (Schermerhorn, 1993 : 449)

The research of Adams and others, largely conducted in the laboratory, lends some support to his theory. People who feel overpaid, that is experience positive inequity, often increase the quantity and quality of their work. Those who feel underpaid, that is perceive negative inequity, tend to reduce their work efforts to compensate for the inadequate rewards; in other words, they are less motivated to work hard in the future

Figure 10: Adam's Equity Theory

(Schermerhorn, 1993: 449)

47
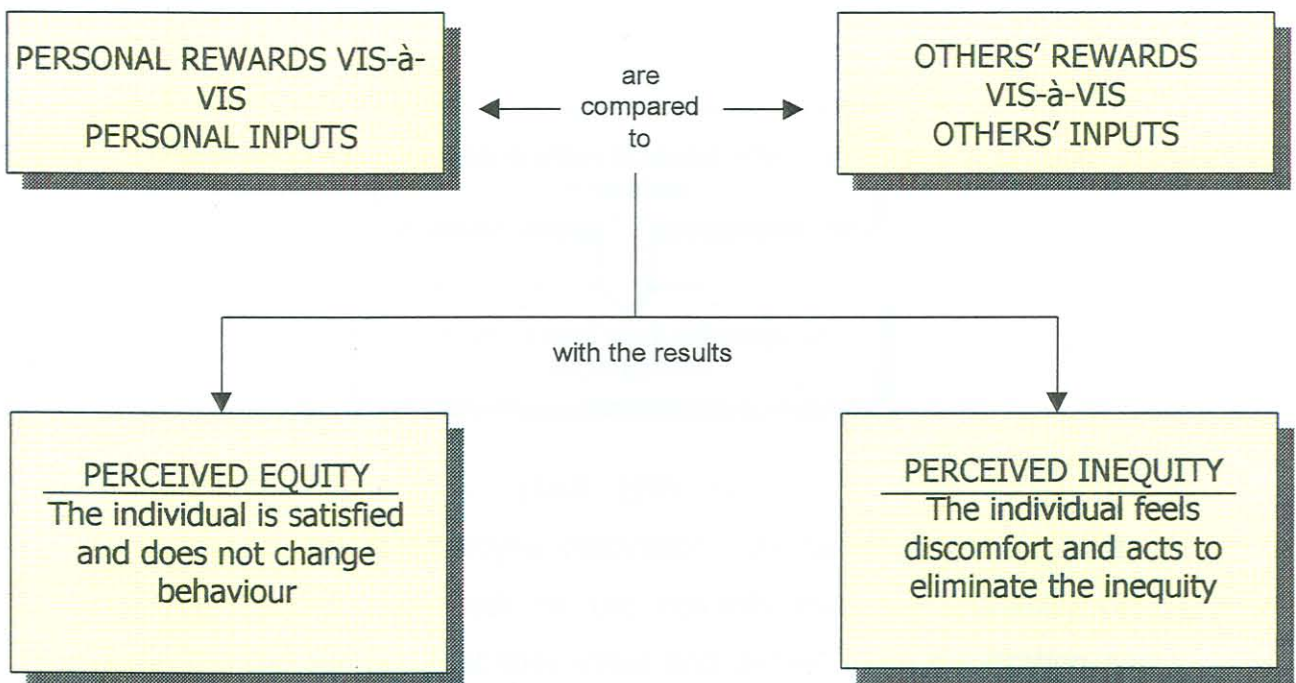
2) Path-goal theory: Another process theory, called the path-goal theory, proposes that individual motivation depends on the leader's ability to clarify the behaviour needed for task accomplishment and reward. The path-goal is illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 11: Leader roles in the path-goal model

Path clarification   Increase rewards

Leader defines what follower must do to attain work outcomes	Leader learns follower's needs
Leader clarifies follower's work role	Leader matches follower's needs to rewards if work outcomes are accomplished
Follower has increased knowledge and confidence to accomplish outcomes	Leader increases value of work outcomes for follower

Follower displays increased effort and motivation

Organizational work outcomes are accomplished

(Daft, 1995: 412)

As illustrated above, employee motivation may be increased by either (1) clarifying subordinates' path to the rewards that are available, or (2) increasing the rewards that they value and desire. Path clarification means that the leader works with individuals to help them identify and learn the behaviours that will lead to successful task accomplishment and organisational rewards. Daft (1995: 411) further maintains that increasing

48

rewards means that the leader talks with subordinates to learn which rewards are important to them, that is whether they desire intrinsic rewards from the work itself or extrinsic rewards such as raises or promotions. The leader's job is to increase personal payoffs to subordinates for goal attainment and to make the paths to these payoffs clear and easy to travel.

3) Expectancy theory: Victor Vroom introduced another process theory of work motivation that has made an important contribution to management literature. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 450), expectancy theory asks a central question: What determines the willingness of an individual to work hard at tasks important to the success of the work unit and organisation? To answer it, expectancy theory is based on the argument: "People will do what they can do when they want to." More specifically, Vroom says a manager should understand the relationships between the three expectancy factors depicted in the following figure:

Figure 12 : Vroom's Expectancy Theory

(Schermerhorn, 1993: 451)

49

Expectancy: A person' belief that working hard will result in the achievement of a desired level of task performance (effort-performance expectancy).

Instrumentality: A person's belief that successful performance will be followed by rewards and other potential outcomes (performance-outcome expectancy).

Valence: The value a person assigns to the possible rewards and other work-related outcomes.

The expectancy theory proposes that motivation (M), expectancy (E), instrumentality (I), and valence (V) are related to one another in a multicative fashion: M = E x 1 x V. In other words, motivation is determined by expectancy times instrumentality times valence. If any of the three factors are low, motivation will suffer. Therefore, managers should create a work environment within which task efforts serving the organisation's needs are also viewed by subordinates as paths to highly desirable rewards (Shermerhorn, 1993: 451). In many ways, leading through motivation is best accomplished by managers who enable people to be rewarded for fully using their talents to achieve high performance – and this can be maintained by applying the following model:

Figure 13: Model for applying expectancy theory

To Maximize Expectancy

Make the person feel competent and capable of achieving the desired performance level	•Select workers with ability •Train workers to use ability •Support work efforts •Clarify performance goals

To maximize instrumentality

Make the person confident in understanding which rewards and outcomes will follow performance accomplishments	•Clarify psychological contracts •Communicate performance-outcome possibilities •Demonstrate what rewards are contingent on performance

To maximize valence

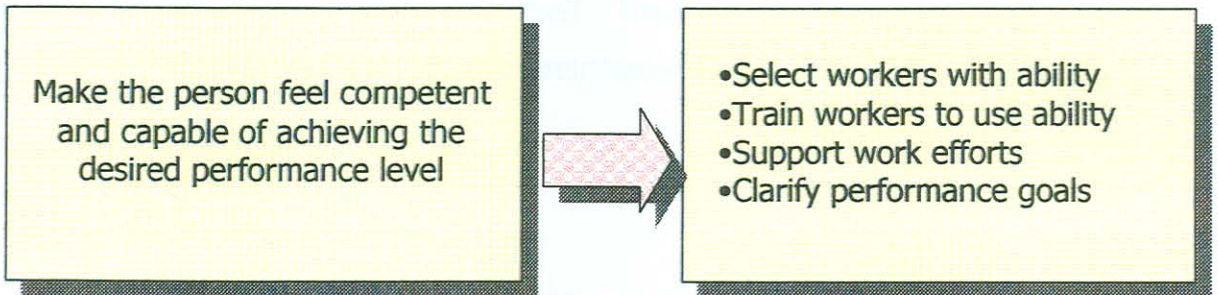|	
Make the person understand the value of various possible rewards and work outcomes	•Identify individual needs •Adjust rewards to match the needs

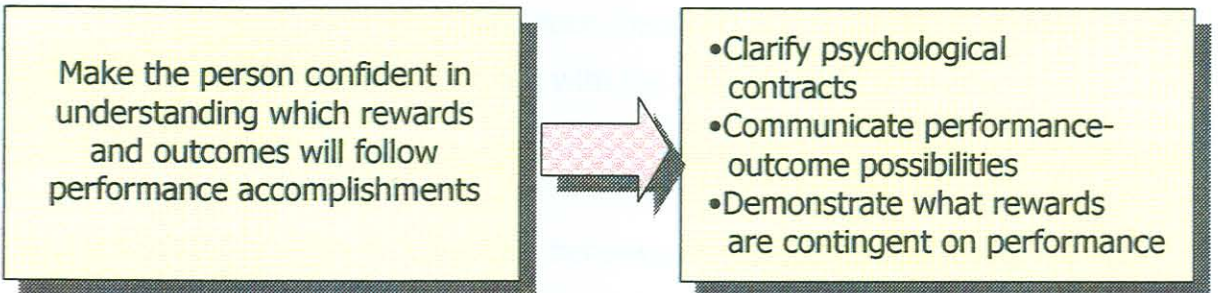(Schermerhorn, 1993: 452)

4) Reinforcement theory

According to Gatewood et al. (1995: 474), reinforcement theory is a type of process theory which assumes that behaviour can be reintroduced by relating it to its consequences. The most widely discussed application of reinforcement theory is behaviour modification, which involves changing

51

behaviour and encouraging appropriate action by relating the consequences of behaviour to the behaviour itself. There are four types of reinforcements: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement or avoidance, punishment and extinction.

- **Positive reinforcement**

Positive reinforcement strengthens a desired behaviour by rewarding it or providing other positive outcomes. Traditional employment rewards include praise and recognition, raises, bonuses and promotions for doing a good job. These rewards reinforce behaviour because the desirable consequences encourage employees to continue with the behaviour.

- **Avoidance**

Avoidance strengthens a desired behaviour by enabling individuals to avoid negative consequences by performing the behaviour. For example, employees are likely to return from lunch on time to avoid being reprimanded or docked for taking long lunch breaks.

- **Punishment**

Punishment weakens or eliminates an undesired behaviour by providing a negative consequence. An employee who uses work time to deal with personal matters for example may be reprimanded, have his/her pay reduced or even be fired if the situation is serious enough.

- **Extinction**

Extinction weakens an undesired behaviour by providing positive consequences. It occurs typically when positive reinforcement is withdrawn from a previously positively reinforced behaviour. When the behaviour is not reinforced, it will subside and eventually stop. A manager faced with an

employee who complains needlessly and endlessly may reduce the complaints by ignoring the behaviour (Gatewood et al. 1995: 474).

- **Applying reinforcement theory**

According to Gatewood et al. (1995: 476), managers who want to motivate employees to behave appropriately should carefully consider the long-term effects of punishment and reward before selecting an approach. Punishing unacceptable behaviour provides quick results but may lead to undesirable long-term side effects such as employee dissatisfaction and increased staff turnover. Consequently, punishment should occur only in certain situations in which the nature of the offence is so serious, dangerous or in violation of corporate codes of ethics that a message must be sent to all employees

The process theories of motivation emphasise what really motivates someone to work in an organisation. For example, equity theory suggests that how much people are willing to contribute to an organisation depends on their assessment of the equity of the rewards they will receive in exchange for their input, while expectancy theory holds that motivation depends not only on how much a person wants something but on the person's perception of how likely he/she is to get it. The path-goal also involves the achievement of rewards at the end of the job done. Reinforcement theory assumes that behaviour may be strengthened by relating it to its consequences. Behaviour modification concerns changing behaviour and encouraging appropriate actions by relating the consequences of behaviour to the behaviour itself.

As mentioned earlier, employee motivation comes from within. Hence it is crucial for leaders in organisations to identify motivational factors relevant to their subordinates and, most importantly, the given situation.   One motivational theory may work in one situation and fail in another. Leaders are significant forces in motivating subordinates – thus their need to know their subordinates at an individual level (maturity level) so that they can

apply the appropriate motivational theory in situations brought to their attention. Leaders should establish a clear link between the maturity level of their subordinates, the given situation, the leadership style to be applied, and which motivational factors should be promoted in the daily functioning of organisations. Hence the use of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory as the principal theory informing this study.

2.9   Manifestations of blocked worker motivation

- Coping: Timm and Petersen (1982: 49) maintain that one possible response to a blocked need is simply to cope with it. Coping means that people struggle or contend with the problem, often through trial and error, until they achieve some degree of satisfaction.

- Substituting another goal: When it becomes clear that a goal is blocked, people may seek a substitute goal. Workers who find on-the-job satisfaction elusive often channel their efforts toward off-the-job goals.

- Resignation, repression or retaliation: Simply giving up goal attainment is another option available. People also often repress their goals or relegate them to the back of their minds until another time. Occasionally, people retaliate against the person or force that is blocking achievement of the goal.

- Fixation or obsession: An unhealthy response to a blocked goal is fixation or obsession. This involves focusing on the goal and continuing to "beat one's head against a brick wall" in an effort to achieve the blocked goal.

- Frustration: One final result of blocked needs is individual frustration. Frustration is a phenomenon that is defined in terms of the individual rather than in terms of the external environment. In other words, frustration exists within the mind of a person (Timm & Petersen, 1982: 52).
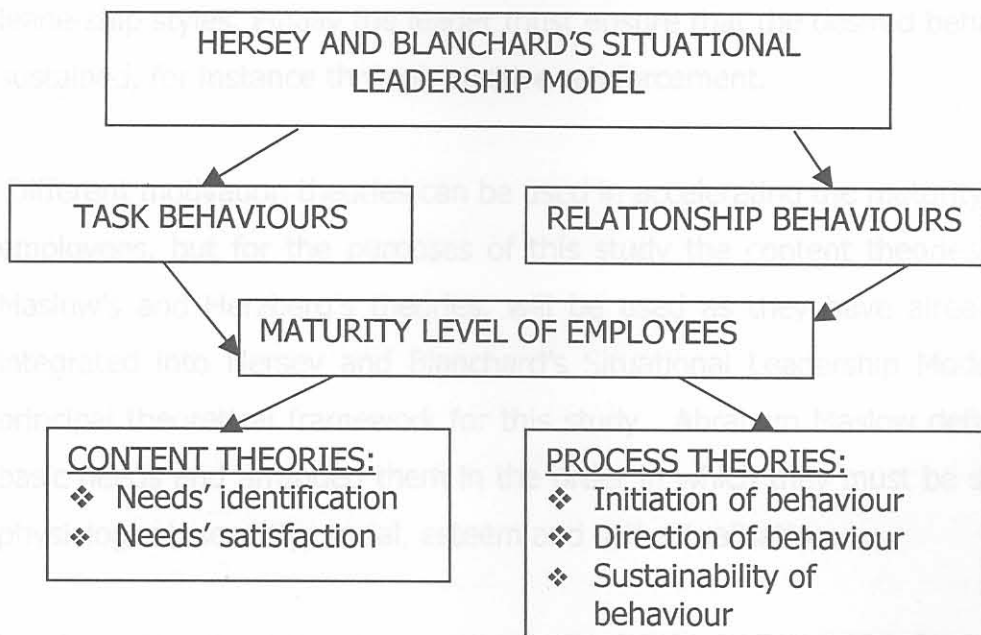
The manifestation of such work behaviours demands the attention of leaders, as it suggests low worker motivation. Such manifestations are not uncommon

in the hosiery industry and require leaders to use their discretion in dealing with specific individuals and situations. The application of the appropriate leadership style in the particular situation will help motivate subordinates.

2.10 Relevance of motivation theories to this study

As discussed earlier, according to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model, leaders should employ task and relationship behaviours in their organisations. The task and relationship behaviours should be closely linked to the maturity level of employees.

Figure 14: Relationship between Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model and the motivation theories

```
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │   HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL      │
        │              LEADERSHIP MODEL             │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
          ↙                                    ↘
 ┌────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
 │  TASK BEHAVIOURS   │          │  RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOURS │
 └────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
          ↘                                    ↙
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │      MATURITY LEVEL OF EMPLOYEES          │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
          ↙                                    ↘
 ┌────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────────────┐
 │ CONTENT THEORIES:  │          │ PROCESS THEORIES:        │
 │ ❖ Needs' identification      │ ❖ Initiation of behaviour │
 │ ❖ Needs' satisfaction        │ ❖ Direction of behaviour  │
 │                    │          │ ❖ Sustainability of      │
 │                    │          │    behaviour             │
 └────────────────────┘          └──────────────────────────┘
```

In identifying the maturity level of employees (the ability and willingness to do the work), leaders have to apply either the process or the content motivation theories or both. The content theories are concerned with identifying peoples' needs and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy those needs. Process theories are concerned with how behaviour is initiated,

directed and sustained. The content and process theories are not mutually exclusive; their motivational factors are interrelated and they can be simultaneously used in accelerating the motivation level of employees.

In accelerating a component of employee maturity, for example ability (the examination of present and past performance in the given work), the leader may apply the content theories by looking into current working conditions such as the safety needs of employees. In considering the willingness (a person's behaviour in a particular case) of employees, the leader may use the process theories. For example the leader may examine an employee's interest in a particular area and initiate tasks that may suit the particular employee. The leader will have to direct the employee to the desired behaviour, for example how to knit the thread for the hose, through different leadership styles. Finally the leader must ensure that the desired behaviour is sustained, for instance through positive reinforcement.

 Different motivation theories can be used in accelerating the maturity level of employees, but for the purposes of this study the content theories, that is Maslow's and Herzberg's theories, will be used as they have already been integrated into Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model – the principal theoretical framework for this study. Abraham Maslow defined five basic needs and arranged them in the order in which they must be satisfied: physiological, security, social, esteem and self-actualisation.

Herzberg identified two types of factors linked to motivation, that is the hygiene factors and the motivational factors. Herzberg's hygiene factors can be compared to Maslow's physiological, security and social needs, while motivational factors may include Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs, and McClelland's achievement, affiliation and power needs. The

integrated approach to leadership and motivation is shown in the following figure:

Figure 15: Integrated approach to leadership styles and motivation
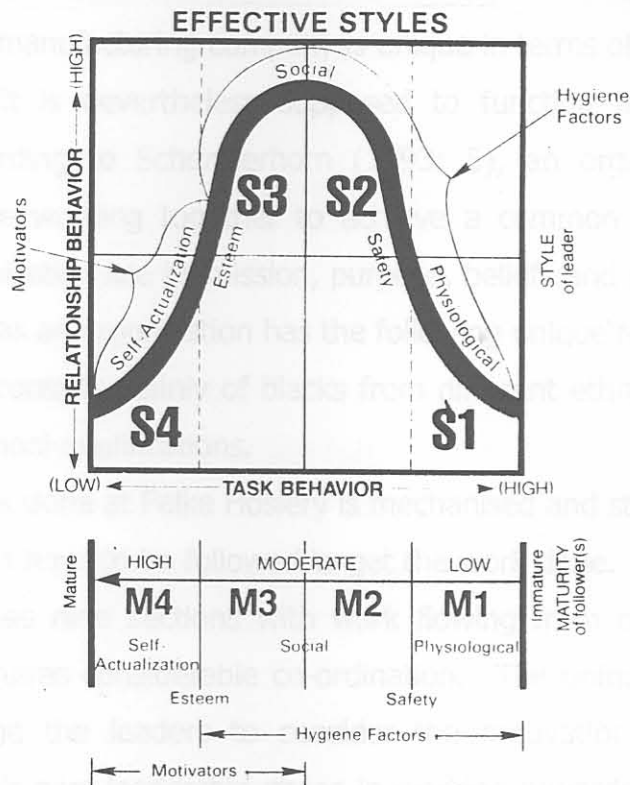
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 296)

This integrated approach plots the consistency of different leadership styles in satisfying certain motivational factors. According to the approach, the telling, selling and participating leadership styles tend to provide goals consistent with satisfying hygiene factors as given in Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, and the physiological, safety and social needs as given in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. The participating and delegating leadership styles seem to facilitate the occurrence of the motivators (Herzberg) and the esteem and self-actualisation needs (Maslow). This approach will be examined in Chapter 5 where the researcher will consider the consistency of these leadership styles in promoting certain motivational factors in the organisation under discussion (Falke Hosiery).

2.11 Applicability of the situational leadership theory to the organisation under consideration

Falke Hosiery as a manufacturing company is unique in terms of the nature of its business, but it is nevertheless supposed to function like any other organisation. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 5), an organisation is a collection of people working together to achieve a common purpose. The values of the organisation are its mission, purpose, beliefs and what it stands for. Falke Hosiery as an organisation has the following unique features:

- The workforce consists mainly of blacks from different ethnic groups and with no post-school qualifications.
- Most of the work done at Falke Hosiery is mechanised and standardised.
- Strict procedures have to be followed to get the work done.

The organisation has nine sections with work flowing from one section to another, which requires considerable co-ordination. The unique features of the company oblige the leaders to consider the motivation level of the employees and their own leadership styles in working towards the common goal of productivity and profitability. The uniqueness of Falke Hosiery implies the occurrence of different situations and problems which call for different leadership styles in the different sections – hence the appropriateness of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model in this company.

This model is used as a benchmark to check as to whether the leadership styles used in the organisation under study are consistent with the motivational factors as proposed by Hersey and Blanchard. Situational leadership contends that strong direction (task behaviour) with immature followers is appropriate if they are to become productive. The model also suggests that an increase in maturity on the part of immature people should be rewarded through positive reinforcement and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour). As followers reach high levels of maturity, the

leader should respond by not only continuing to decrease control over their activities but also by continuing to decrease relationship behaviour as well. With very mature people, the need for socio-emotional support is no longer as important as the need for autonomy (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:156). It is assumed that the leaders in the organisation under discussion know the maturity level of their followers – hence the extent of the task and relationship behaviours of the leaders will be guided by the maturity level of workers and the extent of their motivation.

In providing socio-emotional support and direction, leaders will have to take into account the consistency of certain leadership styles in eliciting certain work behaviours in employees which indicate the employees' level of motivation. In Hersey and Blanchard's model Maslow's theory is helpful in identifying needs and motives, while Herzberg provides insight into the goals and incentives that tend to satisfy these needs. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982:60), in a motivating situation one has to know the high-strength needs (Maslow) of the individuals one has to influence, and then determine what goals (Herzberg) to provide in the environment to motivate those individuals. Hence the need for leaders in organisations to establish an explicit link between the motivation level of their subordinates and the leadership styles to be employed.

If a leader knows the goals his/her subordinates want to satisfy, he/she can predict the high-strength needs and apply the appropriate style in the given situation. For example, money and benefits at work tend to satisfy needs at the physiological and security levels; interpersonal relations and supervision are examples of hygiene factors that tend to satisfy social needs; while increased responsibility, challenging work, and growth and development are motivators that tend to satisfy needs at the self-esteem and self-actualization levels. As a result, as soon as the leaders have established the level of worker

motivation by considering their subordinates' different needs, they will employ the appropriate leadership style in the given situation. Thus the aim of this study is to examine the effects of leadership styles on worker motivation, that is the consistency of certain leadership styles in eliciting certain motivational factors at Falke Hosiery.

2.12 Conclusion

The principal assumption of this study is that the manager or the supervisor is the driving and significant force in any organisation. He/She determines the general functioning of the organisation, for example worker motivation and reaching of monthly targets. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 4), a manager is a person in an organisation who is responsible for the work performance of one or more other persons. Serving in positions with a wide range of titles (supervisor, team leader, section head, administrator, vice-president, and so on), managers are persons to whom others report. Every manager's job entails one primary responsibility – to help an organisation achieve high performance through the utilisation of all its resources, human and material. Managers must therefore be able to get things done through other people. This boils down to the issue of leadership, that is getting people to do their work willingly (followership). The way in which the manager or the supervisor get things done will determine the level of motivation in the organisation. The leader is the person who has to apply the appropriate leadership style in the situation brought to his/her attention in working towards individual and organisational goals. Hence the appropriateness of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model in this organisation as it accelerates the flexibility of leadership styles in different situations. Leaders in organisations should accordingly play their rightful roles in getting work done and in keeping their subordinates happy.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1   Research methodology

This chapter will outline the methodology used in this study, which includes type of research, research design, data collection, sampling, data coding and data analysis. The methodology indicates the procedure and techniques used to carry out the study. According to Hagan (1977: 14), methodology points to the philosophy of the research process, which includes the assumptions and values that serve as the rationale for the research, as well as the criteria used for interpreting the data.

3.2   Type of study

Qualitative and quantitative methods were used for the study.   The qualitative method was used to describe and probe the relationship between the leadership styles and worker motivation.

Qualitative research was also conducted to confirm and gain insight into the work behaviour of the respondents and how they were affected by the leadership styles employed. According to Royse (1991: 217), researchers who use a qualitative research methodology seek to understand styles and social phenomena at first hand. In so doing, they endeavour to describe subgroups or cultures (e.g. middle management workers) from the point of view of the persons being studied. The researcher was dependent on what she observed and what she was told by the respondents. Bailey (1994: 244) supports qualitative methods, maintaining that the "primary nature of the relationship between the observer and the subjects allows an in-depth study of the whole individual".

In contrast, the quantitative paradigm has a factual basis, measurable data, and involves analytical and mathematical deductions. In carrying out the quantitative method the researcher had to assign numerical values to concepts and items, such as female (1), male (2) for comparison and measurement purposes. The rationale for using qualitative and quantitative methods was to create an interactive process – the quantitative method would help with the assignment of measures i.e. numerical values and the qualitative method would help the researcher to understand how the subjects make sense of their lives and what significance they attach to their workplace.

3.3   Research design

Basic or fundamental research, as opposed to applied research, aims to generate knowledge in particular fields of interest (Sekaran, 1992: 6), rather than to apply the findings to the resolution of a specific problem. The objective of basic research is to obtain a greater understanding of phenomena and problems as they exist in society or in the workplace (Sekaran, 1992: 6). Descriptive and exploratory studies are classified as forms of basic research. The researcher opted for a descriptive study as such studies describe what already exists as accurately and comprehensively as possible (Garbers, 1996:287). This approach is appropriate for this study as it is in line with Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model, which explicitly depicts the relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation. In order to gain insight into the phenomena of worker motivation and leadership styles the researcher looked into the consistency that exists between specific leadership styles and motivational factors in the organisation under consideration.

In the qualitative description the researcher employed some of the research procedures stipulated for descriptive and exploratory studies, namely

literature study, informal interview schedule and observation. For the quantitative description, she used frequency tables.

3.3.1 Literature studies

Royse (1991: 221) says that ideally the literature review should be done before the data collection in qualitative research. The purpose of the literature review in this instance is to enable the researcher to look for answers to questions posed by the present study, as well as to compare findings. The researcher undertook the literature study to review theories relevant to the phenomena under investigation and to see what other researchers had done, for example in-depth investigations into Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model and how this model integrates leadership styles and motivation theories.

3.3.2 Informal interview schedule

Bailey (1994: 188 189) defines an interview schedule as a data collection method in which one person puts questions to another from a list of topics and/or subtopics within an area of inquiry. In this study unstructured interviews were conducted with employees due to the low response rate in some questions. The rationale for conducting such interviews was to elicit general comments from the respondents on the questions that had generally been left unanswered. This method helped create a holistic picture of how the organisation under consideration (Falke) operates, without adhering to the uniform questions as initially posed in the questionnaire. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 106-107) hold that a method of getting people to express their views on a certain issue is the non-scheduled interview, which consists of asking respondents to comment on broadly defined issues. They are free to expand on the topic as they see fit, to focus on particular aspects, and to relate their experiences. The interviewer intervenes only to ask for

clarification or further explanation, but not to give directives or to confront the interviewee with probing questions. Usually no time limit is stipulated for completing an interview. During such interviews the researcher made notes on the responses, which helped in drawing inferences about the general level of motivation of the employees and how they perceived their leaders. The interviews took place on a voluntary and random basis. This technique is closely linked to the researcher's observations as discussed below.

3.3.3 Observation

According to Bailey (1994: 242), observation is the primary technique for collecting data on non-verbal behaviour. He identifies the following advantages of observation:

The observer can discern ongoing behaviour in respondents as it occurs, as well as make field notes that record the salient features of the behaviour.

Behaviour takes place in a natural environment and is thus less likely to be manipulated than other data collection techniques, such as interviewing and experimentation. During the data collection process the researcher in this particular study was taken through the different sections of the company, such as the dye house. During these visits the researcher observed the work behaviour of the respondents. Questions like "How long have you been working in this section", "How do you find the work" were asked. Verbal as well as non-verbal responses were noted and they were instrumental in understanding the phenomena under investigation.

The researcher formulated the following research design to clarify the direction of the study. Mouton (1996: 108) maintains that "the rationale for a research design is to plan and structure a research project in such a way that

eventually validity of the findings is maximised through either minimising or, where possible, eliminating potential error".

Figure 16: Research design for the study
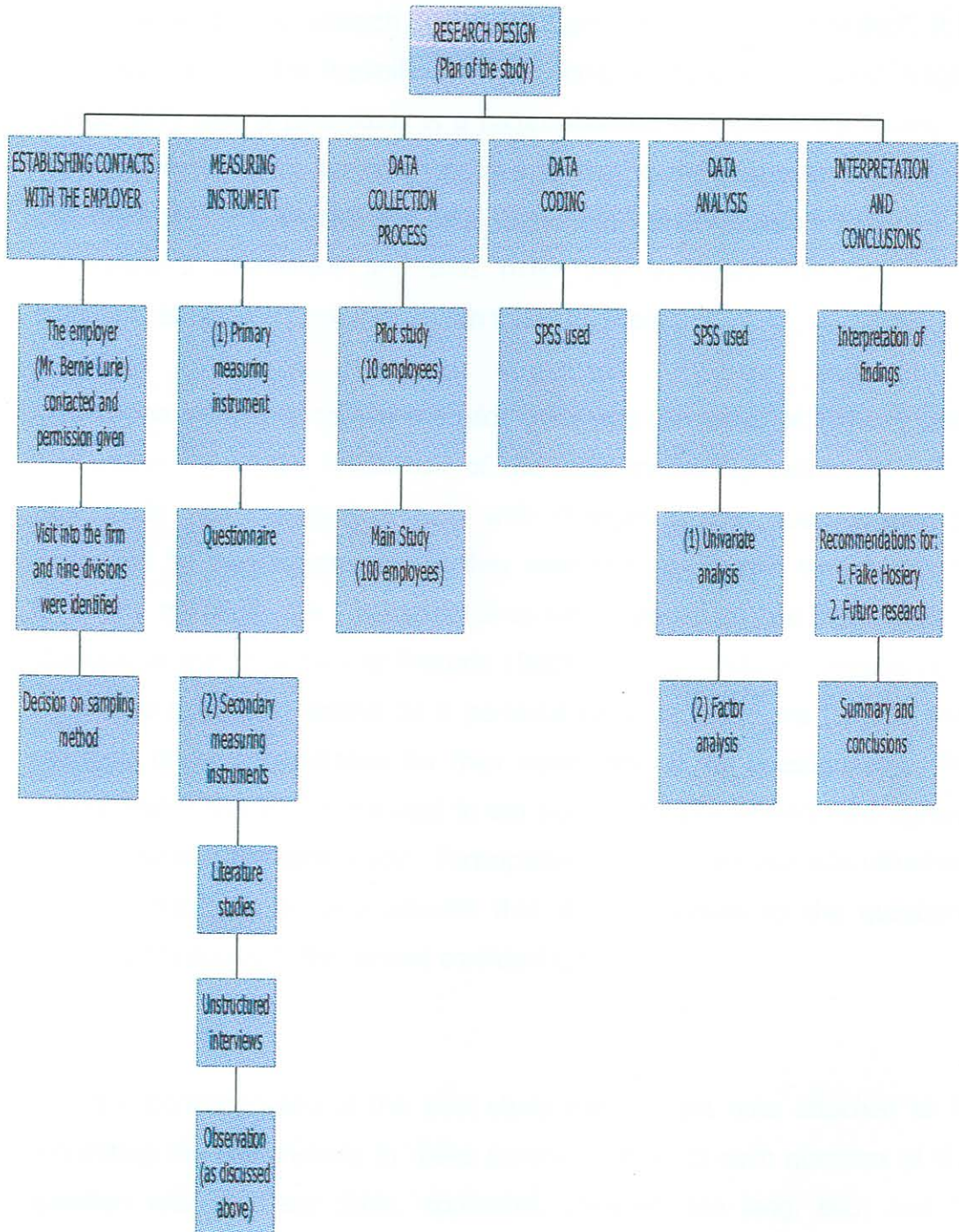
3.4   Data collection

3.4.1 Pilot study

According to Strydom (1998) quoted in de Vos (1998:179), "a pilot study is a process whereby the research design for a prospective survey is tested". It is the process where the feasibility of the planned study is investigated. Hagan (1992: 147) says a pilot study is a reconnaissance or explanatory testing of the instrument, using subjects who are similar to the group to be studied. The rationale for undertaking a pilot study is to identify possible problems in the research instrument and thus make the necessary corrections and adjustments before commencing with the actual research.

Prior to the main data collection a pilot study was conducted at Falke Hosiery two weeks before the finalisation of the main measuring instrument. The pilot study was intended to help with changes to the questionnaire as suggested by the respondents, as they were the people who would have to fill in the questionnaire. Questionnaires were handed to two postgraduate students at the University of Pretoria (Department of Industrial Psychology) whom the researcher knows on a personal basis and who are familiar with the topic under consideration for their comments on the questionnaire. The questionnaire was also distributed to ten people in Falke Hosiery who agreed to participate in the pilot study. Participation in the pilot study was voluntary and the respondents were assured that their responses to the questions would be treated with the utmost confidentiality.

The questionnaire used in the pilot study had a short note attached to it, requesting the respondents to make comments next to each question (if the question was understandable, applicable, relevant, too long, etc.) and to suggest changes. The respondents were also asked to give reasons for their

proposed changes and to add anything they felt was necessary. They indicated the following difficulties:

- *The way some questions were formulated.*
- *Syntax or grammar problems.*
- *Inappropriate questions.*
- *Unclear questions.*

They also offered suggestions and gave reasons for the proposed modification of certain questions. This information was used to make changes to the actual questionnaire. Once the trial questionnaires had been completed the researcher collected them personally. Data were gathered over one week.

3.4.2 Measuring instrument

Primary data were collected by means of a questionnaire. The researcher opted for this measuring instrument because of the overall advantages of questionnaires as given by Weiers (1988).

Weiers (1988: 227-299) indicates specific benefits and limitations of questionnaires.

3.4.2.1   Benefits
- Cost per questionnaire is relatively low.
- Questionnaires can be given good geographical exposure.
- Analysing questionnaires is relatively simple because of the structured information in the questionnaire and few open questions.
- Questionnaires give respondents sufficient time to formulate accurate responses.

3.4.2.2 Limitations

- The negative reaction of the public to questionnaires.
- Use of questionnaires is limited to literate respondents.
- No control over who completes the questionnaire as well as the validity of the information.
- Time consuming due to the time taken to construct a questionnaire and the response time of respondents.

The research instrument (questionnaire) consisted of an introductory part followed by two sections. The introductory part supplied the respondents with information about the questionnaire and instructions on the completion of the questionnaire.

The first section of the questionnaire was aimed at eliciting biographical information such as age, sex, marital status, highest academic qualification, home language and occupation. These questions were included because the researcher wanted to know the type of sample she was working with. Demographic characteristics were also useful for comparison, for instance analysing the responses given by respondents of different age groups.

The second section of the questionnaire consisted of closed questions, which the researcher used for the reasons given by Neuman (1996: 214):

- They are easier and quicker for respondents to answer.
- The answers of different respondents are easier to compare.
- Answers are easier to code and analyse statistically.
- The response choices clarify the meaning of questions for respondents.
- Respondents are more likely to answer sensitive questions.
- There are fewer irrelevant or confused answers to questions.
- Replication is easier.

This section consisted of statements, which were measured on a 7-point semantic differential scale with two extremes, namely strongly disagree and strongly agree.

The scale looked as follows:

Strongly disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly agree

This scale was central to the study as the results from a semantic differential tell a researcher how one person perceives different concepts or how different people view the same concept (Neuman, 1997: 165). The questions included in the questionnaire were derived from the principal theory of this study (Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model) and the questionnaire intended to measure the type of leadership styles at Falke Hosiery and the level of worker motivation.

In response to the problems encountered by participants in the pilot study, the researcher in conjunction with the study leader made some changes to the questionnaire for the main study. (The questionnaire appears as Appendix A.) After the finalisation of the questionnaire, the employees were told about the research and its purpose. They were informed that not all of them would participate in the research due to time constraints and the sampling procedure to be used. A list of employees and supervisors was obtained and the subjects selected (see Sampling) for the final sample were given the questionnaire. They were allowed to keep it and complete it in their own time, but the return date was stipulated. On completion the questionnaires had to be submitted to the chief supervisor. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the chief supervisor.

3.4.3 Sampling

The general idea behind sampling is to obtain information on a small number of individuals who can be generalised to the larger aggregate from whom the sample was drawn.

Population description: A target population consists of all the elements or units about whom survey information is collected. These elements are usually individual persons (Dooley, 1990: 140-141). To draw a sample it is necessary to select a specific population and identify population parameters to obtain a benchmark population. The population for this study was all the permanent employees at Falke Hosiery (Rosslyn). The respondents were selected from the operating and the office units (supervisors). This offered the distinct advantage of extending the number of comparisons and information that could be acquired from these two units.

Sampling method: Two different sampling methods can be distinguished, namely probability and non-probability sampling (Bailey, 1994: 93). In the first instance, the probability of selection of each respondent is known (the universe boundaries are known). In non-probability sampling, the probability of selection is not known (universe boundaries are not known).   A proportionately stratified sample was drawn from the target population. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:91) the principle of stratified sampling is to divide a population into different groups, called strata, so that each element of the population belongs to one and only one stratum. This guarantees representativeness or fixes the proportion of different strata within a sample.

A list of all employees in accordance with their respective sections was obtained from the Human Resources Division of the company. Nine sections were identified: knitting, auto assembly, manual, quality department, greige store, dye house, courtesy (ironing), packing and dispatch (distribution). The

sections were used as strata for the study. The total number of respondents for each stratum was obtained – the total number of employees was 195 (see table below). A simple random sample was then selected from each stratum. Numbers were assigned to the names obtained for each stratum (section) and then randomly selected by the researcher. The intended sample size for the study was 100 respondents who had to be selected from the total population (195 employees).

To obtain a proportionate sample, the sampling fraction in each stratum was made equal to the sampling fraction for the population as a whole. In this study a total sample size n = 100 was decided on because the size was considered to be manageable, and with the total population of Falke Hosiery being 195. It follows that the sampling fraction in each stratum would then be 195/100 = 1,95 (2) and this indicated the total number of respondents to be selected from each stratum. The values with decimals were rounded off, as illustrated in the table below.

Table 3: Sampling in the study

SECTIONS	(N) IN STRATUM	NO. OF SELECTED PEOPLE
Knitting	9	5
Auto assembly	40	20
Manual	20	10
Quality department	9	5
Greige store	13	7
Dye house	10	5
Courtesy	17	9
Warehouse	45	23
Dispatch	32	16
Total	195	100

3.4.4 Data coding

Data coding means systematically reorganising raw data into a format that is read by the computer. The researcher developed a coding list with certain numbers assigned to variable attributes, for instance coding the variable of gender (1) as male and (2) as female. Such codes were punched into the computer. Neuman (1997: 295) stresses the importance of accuracy when coding data. Errors made when coding or entering data into the computer threaten the validity of measures and cause misleading results. To ensure the accuracy of the data entered, the researcher employed the possible coding cleaning technique (or wild code checking), which involves checking all variable categories for impossible codes. The researcher went through the whole data set to check for such errors.

3.4.5 Data analysis

According to Denzin (1990: 31), in the social sciences nothing speaks for itself and so all data must be interpreted. Confronted with numerous impressions, documents and field notes, the researcher had to try to make sense of all the data gathered. Accordingly, the following techniques were used for the data analysis:

- **Qualitative analysis**

As mentioned earlier, unstructured interviews and observations were concurrently used with the main measuring instrument, the questionnaire. Inferences were drawn through simple observation, for example how the employees interacted with each other when they were working. Such observations helped the researcher to link the observed behaviour with data obtained from the questionnaire. The researcher also made inferences based on the unstructured interviews where the employees were given the

opportunity to express their views freely on the topic under investigation. The qualitative analysis will be expanded on in the Findings chapter.

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 107) believe non-scheduled interviews are very useful in exploratory and descriptive research where the research questions cannot be narrowly defined. It is also an excellent technique when no comparison is sought between the responses of different participants, but when each participant is considered a specific case. The descriptive nature of the present study called for these qualitative measures and helped the researcher gain more insight into how the employees felt about their work and how they perceived the leadership styles used by their superiors.

- **Quantitative analysis**

Frequency distribution, means and standard deviations were used to describe the characteristics of the respondents, their perceptions, attitudes and needs. In other words, univariate analysis was done mainly on the biographical information of the respondents. These statistics are presented in graphic form in Chapter 4.

Most of the questions in this study were at a measurement scale termed interval. According to Leedy (1997: 33), an interval scale is a scale that measures in terms of equal intervals or degrees of difference but whose zero point, or beginning point, is arbitrarily established. The questionnaire consisted of a seven-point scale, in terms of which the respondent had to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with a series of given statements.

Factor analysis was firstly done on motivational factors because of the data reduction capability of this kind of analysis. The motivational factors were grouped according to the factor loading and nine factors were derived from

the loading: working conditions, pay and security, relationship with supervisors, employees' interpersonal relations, achievement, recognition, responsibility, work itself and personal growth. Factor loading reflected the qualitative relationships. The further the factor loading is from zero, the more one can generalise from that factor to the variable (Gorsuch, 1974: 2). The researcher had to relate the nine motivational factors derived from the factor analysis to the perceptions of the leadership styles in the organisation under investigation. The consistency or the inconsistency of certain leadership styles had to be established in eliciting certain motivational factors as given by Hersey and Blanchard.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH RESULTS

Research is best conceived as a process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through the planned and systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data.

(Cohen and Manion: 1980: 29)

4.1   Introduction

This chapter focuses on the results of the study. Inferential statistics were used in the research findings, as inferences were drawn regarding the properties of the population studied, on the basis of the results obtained for appropriately selected samples from the particular population (Huysamen, 1990: 210). Firstly, the frequency relating to the demographic information will be discussed such as age, sex, home language, race, marital status, job title, educational qualifications, salaries received by employees, years of service, name of sections where employees work, and occupation of supervisory or non-supervisory positions in the organisation. The count item on the left-hand side of the graphs indicates the number of respondents who responded to a particular question and the numbers are converted to percentages in this study e.g. gender variable: 56/70 multiply by 100 which is 80% (refer to figure 18). Factor analysis on the motivational factors will be highlighted and the perceptions of employees regarding leadership styles examined. The consistency of certain leadership styles in eliciting certain motivational factors as suggested by Hersey and Blanchard will also be looked into.

4.2   Biographical information

4.2.1 Age of respondents

The research results indicate that the majority (53%) of the respondents was between 21 and 30 years of age at the time of the study. Twenty-five employees who form 37% of the sample fell in the category 31-40 years.

Most of the employees at Falke Hosiery are in their middle adulthood stage that is neither particularly young nor particularly old.
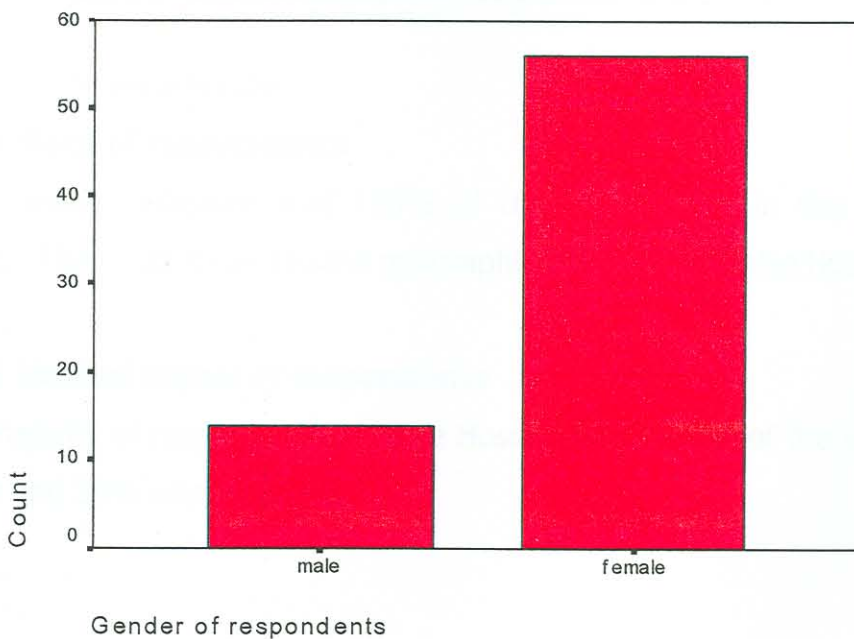
Figure 17: Age of respondents
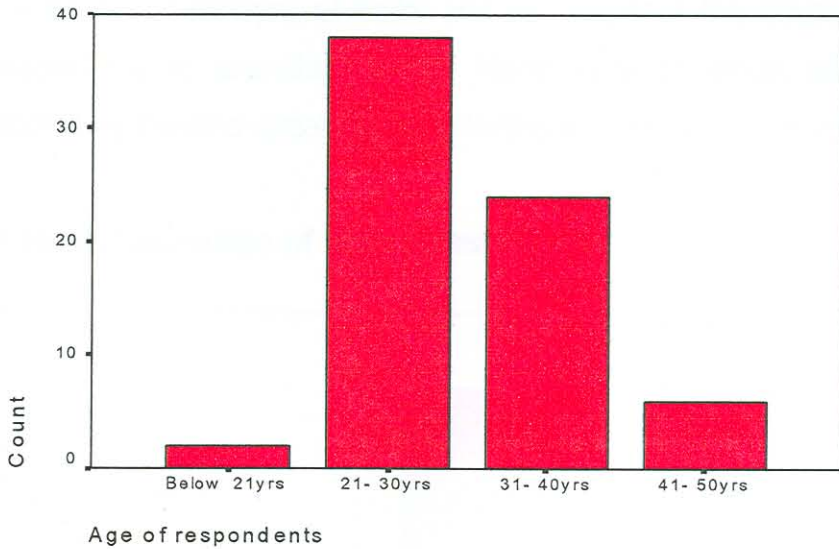
4.2.2 Gender of respondents

Most of the respondents in the sample (80%) were females and only 20% were males. This is attributed to the fact that little hard labour is required as most of the work in the company is mechanised.

Figure 18: Gender of respondents

4.2.3 Home language of respondents

Most of the respondents, that is 50% of the sample, were Tswana speaking and 40% were Northern Sotho speaking. This is attributed to the geographical location (Rosslyn) of Falke Hosiery. Most of the employees in this organisation live in townships in the North West Province, which are largely inhabited by Tswana-speaking and Northern Sotho-speaking residents.

Figure 19: Home language of respondents
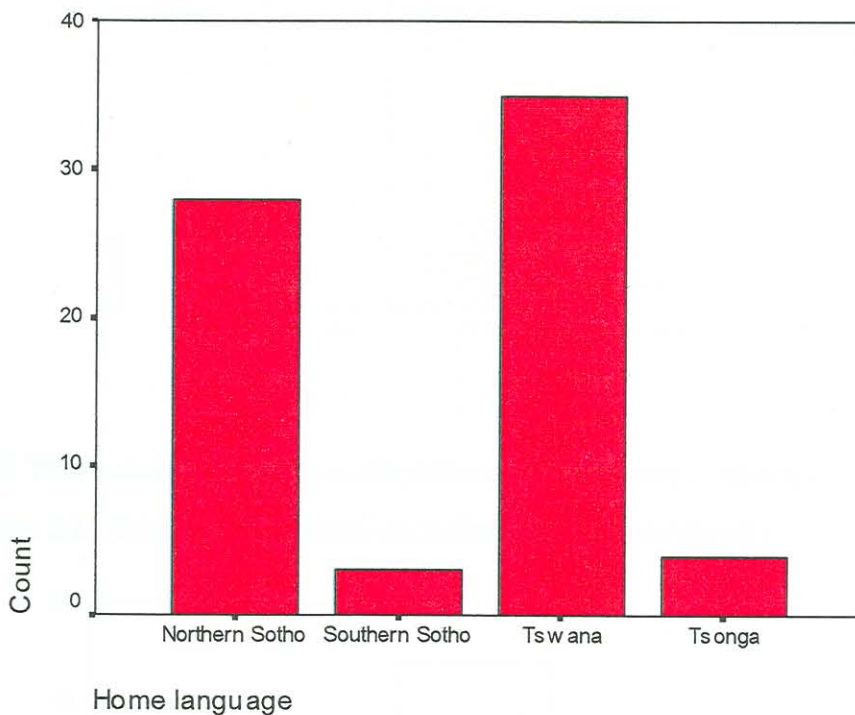
4.2.4 Race of respondents

The research indicated that 100% of the respondents in the study were blacks. This is attributed to the geographical location of Falke Hosiery.

4.2.5 Marital status of respondents

The majority of respondents at Falke Hosiery that is 50% of the sample were single and 36% were married.

Figure 20: Marital status of respondents

Marital status
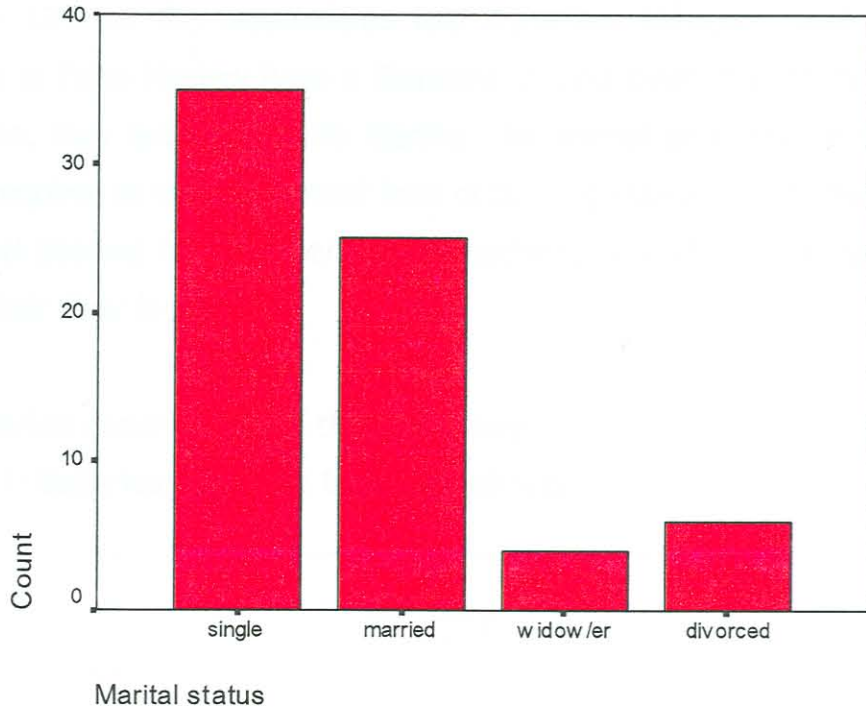
4.2.6 The educational qualifications of the respondents

Figure 21: Educational qualifications of respondents

Educational qualifications

The above diagram indicates that most (77%) of the respondents at Falke Hosiery had Standard 10, and 13% had qualifications lower than Standard 10.   Only 10% of the respondents had diplomas. Although most of the employees at Falke Hosiery have a Standard 10 and lower than Standard 10 qualification, they are functionally literate.   No formal education or specific skills are required at the operational level of this organisation. Employees are trained and showed how to operate the machines and which procedures to follow in their daily tasks.
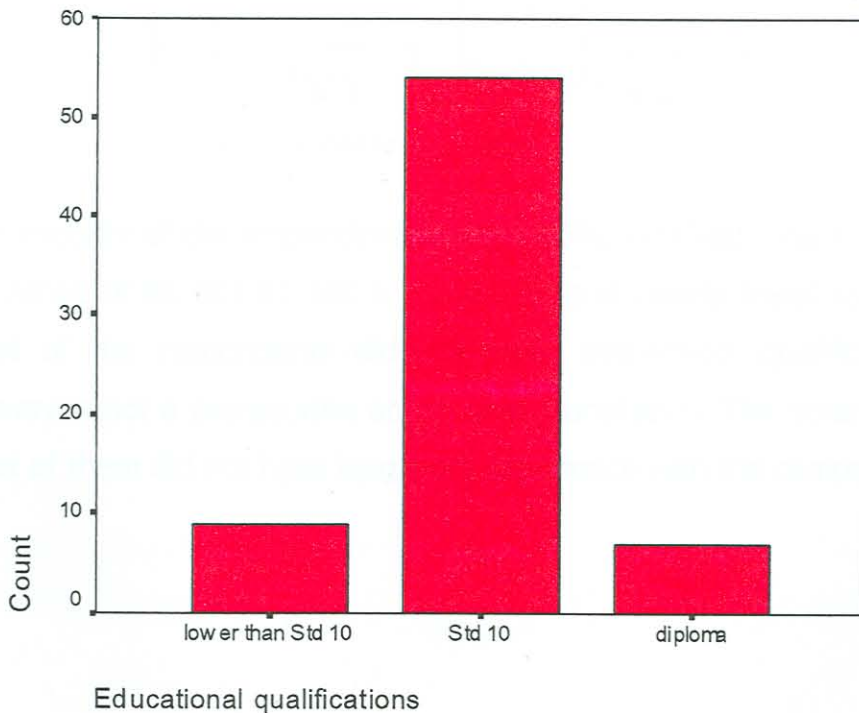
4.2.7 Salaries received from the company

Figure 22: Salaries received by respondents

Salary received by employees
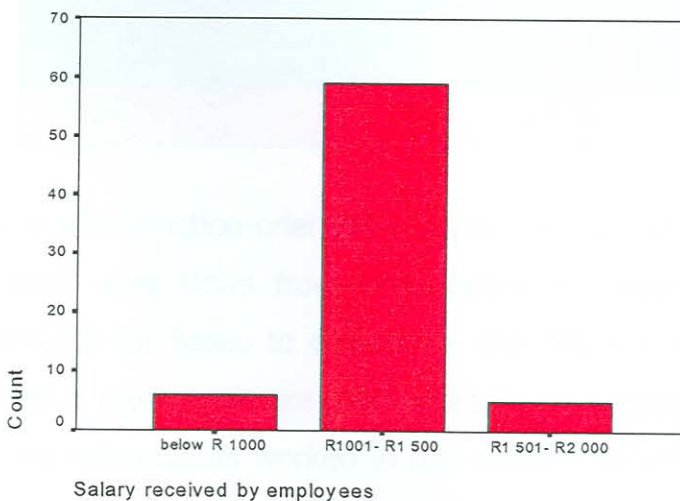
The majority of the respondents, that is 86%, received salaries falling within the range of R1 001-R1 500 a month. This is closely linked to the fact that most of the respondents did not have post-school qualifications, which anyway is not a prerequisite at the operational level. The other factor is that most of them did not have long work experience with the company.

4.2.8 Sections at Falke Hosiery

Table 4: Sections at Falke Hosiery

SECTIONS IN FALKE HOSIERY	NO. IN EACH SECTION
Knitting	9
Auto assembly	40
Manual	20
Quality department	9
Greige store	13
Dye	10
Courtesy	17
Warehouse	45
Dispatch	32
TOTAL	195

Falke Hosiery is a production-oriented organisation consisting of the above sections in which work flows from one section to another, that is from knitting the threads for hoses to dispatch – the distribution of products to customers which in most cases are chain stores such Edgars and Stuttafords. Most (45) of the respondents worked in the warehouse where they labelled and packed the end products of the company. The other big group (40 respondents) worked in the Auto Assembly Section where the merging of the knitted threads takes place.

4.2.9 Occupation of a supervisory or non-supervisory position

Most of the respondents, that is 94% of the sample, occupied non-supervisory positions in the organisation. The holding of a supervisory position or not can influence the level of motivation and the perception of leadership styles used. The assumption is that employees who function at a

supervisory level give instructions that have to be carried out by subordinates on a non-supervisory level. Hence the importance of looking into this variable, as motivation level and perception of leadership styles used will differ between these two groups.

4.3 Research results on worker motivation

4.3.1 Introduction

The following motivational factors were formulated by taking into account the principal propositions of the motivational theories used in this study, that is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. The motivational questions were formulated by the researcher in order to establish the following:

Which motivational factors were prevalent at Falke Hosiery at the time of the study (see page 83- 87). The responses to different motivational questions would indicate the level of motivation of the employees. Also, which were the most important of these factors. Factor analysis was done on the factors and the results concerning different motivational factors are indicated graphically (see below).

4.3.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis was used in the study because of its distinctive data reduction capacity, which accounts for most of the reliable variance of the initial variable pool. The researcher followed the three steps of factor analysis as given by Kinnear and Gray (1994: 216).

A matrix of correlation coefficients was generated for all the variable combinations. A correlation matrix was then run for all the motivational factors. Factors were extracted from the correlation matrix. The most common method is called principal factor extraction and this method was

employed in the study.   The main characteristic of the principal factor extraction procedure is that each factor accounts for the maximum possible variance of the variables being factored (Gorsuch, 1994: 86).

The factors (axes) were rotated to maximise the relationships between the variables and some of the factors. The most common method is varimax, a rotation method which maintains independence among the mathematical factors. Factor analysis was run on the motivational factors, applying the above steps, and nine factors were derived. The variables were grouped according to the size of their factor loading under each factor. The results are highlighted below. The factors were as follows: working conditions, pay and security, supervisors' relations, interpersonal relations, achievement, recognition, sense of responsibility, work itself and personal growth.

The table also shows the means for the motivational factors.   The   "N" indicates the total number of respondents for each question. The "X" is the mean, which indicates the central tendency for each question asked, or the average feeling the respondents had about a specific motivational factor. The questions were rated on a seven-point scale, that is from one to seven. The cut-off point for analysing the result was 3,5. Any value in the mean column above 3,5 would signify that the respondents experienced that motivational factor to a larger extent, and any value less than 3,5 would signify that the respondents experienced that motivational factor to a lesser extent. The responses in the mean column reflect the level of motivation at Falke Hosiery. Agreement with a positively constructed statement would signify a high level of worker motivation, and disagreement with a positively constructed statement would signify a low level of worker motivation. Conversely, agreement with a negatively constructed statement would signify a low level of worker motivation, while disagreement with a negatively

constructed statement would signify a high level of motivation with regard to the specified motivational factor.

Table 5: Factor analysis on motivational factors

Motivational Factors	Factor 1: Security Conditions	N	X	Factor 2: Pay & Security	N	X	Factor 3: General Supervision	N	X	Factor 4: Interpersonal Relations	N	X
☐ There are no physical dangers in the workplace	0.40946	70	5.32									
☐ I am working in an orderly working environment	0.51120	70	5.04									
☐ There are no threats of dismissal in our company	0.60217	70	4.31									
☐ I find personal satisfaction in my work	0.29123	70	2.57									
☐ We are free from criminal acts in the workplace	0.48104	70	3.94									
☐ I will not get hurt in my workplace	0.34650	70	2.58									
☐ I receive sufficient money from this company				0.47140	70	2.31						
☐ I know I can always make a living in this company				0.39412	70	2.40						
☐ I feel that people who started working in this company long after me are better off financially than I am				0.30172	70	2.70						
☐ I have a feeling of economic security				0.40072	70	2.28						
☐ My present circumstances are much better than those of people who are newly appointed I this company				0.36029	70	4.22						
☐ I have good relations with my supervisors							0.50324	70	3.68			
☐ My supervisor puts the sub-ordinate where his/her potential can be realised							0.26781	70	2.18			
☐ My supervisor values my skills							0.41043	70	3.68			
☐ My supervisor notices my hard work and gives me the necessary recognition for it							0.52317	70	5.37			
☐ My supervisor trusts the insights of their sub-ordinates							0.24751	70	3.02			
☐ There are good interpersonal relationships with co-workers										0.60724	70	5.41
☐ There is good social atmosphere in this company										0.48704	70	6.05
☐ My colleagues appreciate my work efforts										0.39314	70	2.41

83

Motivational Factors	Factor 5 Achievement			Factor 6 Recognition			Factor 7 Responsibility			Factor 8 Work Itself			Factor 9 Personal Growth		
	load	N	X	load	N	X	load	N	X	load	N	X	load	N	X
☐ I feel that I have really achieved something since being appointed in this company	0.41740	70	2.75												
☐ My potential is fully utilised	0.42996	70	2.41												
☐ My supervisor notices my hard work and gives me the necessary recognition				0.40102	70	5.84									
☐ My supervisor regards me as a good worker				0.41976	70	4.82									
☐ I am part of this organisation								70	5.15						
☐ I am always working towards the achievements of the company's objectives							0.36363	70	5.88						
☐ My present working environment contributes to my job satisfaction										0.22922	70	3.08			
☐ My work makes me happy										0.37193	70	3.85			
☐ I feel that I am being kept in one section too long										0.58130	70	5.84			
☐ The team spirit in our branch or section is very interesting										0.43850	70	5.38			
☐ People work in well-functional teams in this organisation										0.55089	70	5.92			
☐ I feel that I am overburdened with work										0.34092	70	2.17			
☐ I have sufficient time to familiarise myself with new work										0.35090	70	5.42			
☐ There are many opportunities to improve my skills													0.48183	70	2.37
☐ My personal value as a worker increases because I learn a lot from this organisation													0.34910	70	2.82
☐ I envisage a career for myself in this organisation													0.40103	70	2.02
☐ If I do my part, I have sufficient opportunities for promotion													0.51219	70	2.68

84

It needs to be emphasised that the nine factors were extracted through factor analysis, and that the factors were pay and security, working conditions, the work itself, interpersonal relations, supervisors' relations, achievement, recognition, sense of responsibility and personal growth. These motivational factors fit into Hersey and Blanchard's model, which integrates the situational leadership theory and the motivational theories of Maslow and Herzberg (see table below).

Table 6: Integration between the factor analysis results and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	Herzberg Two-Factor	Factor Analysis Results
Physiological needs		Pay and security
Safety needs	Hygiene factors	Working conditions
		Work itself
Social needs		Interpersonal relations
		Supervisors' relations
Self-esteem needs		Achievement
Self-Actualisation needs	Motivators	Recognition
		Sense of responsibility
		Personal growth

4.3.3 Motivation factors that the respondents experienced to a greater extent

Most of the respondents felt that they had good relations with their supervisors. This item has a mean of 5,84 and standard deviation of 1,24.

The mean (X) 5,92 in the case of teamwork is an indication of a good working relationship between employees.

Most of the respondents agreed that they were kept too long in a particular section.

The mean of 5,84 is an indication of this variable. This is attributed to the specialisation of the work at Falke Hosiery.

Most of the respondents agreed that they were working towards the achievement of the company's objectives. This is also confirmed by the mean of 5,88 and indicates that most of the respondents had a sense of commitment towards the company.

4.3.4 Motivation factors that the respondents experienced to a lesser extent

Most of the respondents disagreed with the statement that they received sufficient money from the company. This indicates that not all the extrinsic needs of the respondents were being met by the company at the time of the survey.

Most of the respondents disagreed that their present working environment contributed to their job satisfaction – a mean of 2,35.

The mean of 2,15 indicates that the respondents disagreed with the statement that "my supervisor puts the subordinate where his/her potential can be realised". This may be attributable to the abovementioned factor that workers are kept in one section for a long time. The other contributing factor may be that work in this form is standardised and monotonous, resulting in this general feeling among the respondents.

"I envisage a career for myself in this organisation." The mean of 2,35 indicates that the respondents disagreed with this statement. This can be related to the way the company operates, that is there are fixed tasks in each section.

The mean of 2,17 indicates that most of the respondents disagreed that they were overburdened with work. This implies that employees in the company have enough time to complete their tasks.

4.4 Results on the leadership styles used

The questions on leadership styles were formulated on the basis of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, which postulates four leadership styles, namely telling, selling, participating and delegating.

4.4.1 Results of questions relating to the telling leadership style

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 153), this style is "telling" because it is characterised by the leader's defining roles and telling people what, how, when and where to do various tasks. Most (78,6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement that if they disagreed with any decisions taken, their supervisors ignored them. The majority (65%) of the respondents also agreed that when their supervisors gave instructions they had to obey them. Furthermore, 55% of the respondents agreed that their supervisors had the final say. The majority (75%) of the respondents agreed that their

supervisors clarified job requirements for subordinates, and 69% also agreed that their supervisors initiated the structures to be used for particular tasks. Most (65%) of the respondents agreed that their supervisors always told subordinates what to do, and 72% agreed that their supervisors used their authority to get tasks done at the predetermined time. It should be noted that this leadership style is mainly used in this organisation due to the nature of the work done there. The way in which Falke Hosiery is structured calls for specific standard procedures to be followed to ensure that market standards and targets are met.

4.4.2 Results of questions relating to the selling leadership style

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 153), this style is called "selling" because most of the direction is still provided by the supervisor. Yet, through two-way communication and explanation, the supervisor tries to get the followers psychologically to "buy into" desired behaviours. Followers at this maturity level will usually go along with a decision if they understand the reason for the decision and if their supervisor also offers help and direction. The majority (70%) of the respondents agreed that their supervisors had the ability to influence subordinates to do the required work properly, while 60% agreed that their supervisors communicated with them in a very acceptable manner. Most of the respondents (55% of the total sample) agreed that their supervisors understood them and also understood their points of view when they had problems. Fifty per cent of the respondents agreed that their supervisors encouraged them to learn new things, while 50% disagreed with this statement. Most (65%) of the respondents agreed that their supervisors showed them how to do the job. This leadership style is used minimally at Falke Hosiery.

4.4.3 Results of questions relating to the participating leadership style

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 153), this leadership style is called "participating" because the leaders and the followers share in decision making, the main role of the leader being facilitating and communicating. Most (68%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that if they disagreed with decisions, their supervisors discussed the decisions with them; 62% disagreed that their supervisors gave them the opportunity to participate in decision making in the company. The majority (72%) of the respondents disagreed that their supervisors wanted them to come forward with creative ideas in the organisation. Most (69%) of the respondents indicated that their supervisors were not prepared to accept inputs from them; 64% of the respondents disagreed that their supervisors allowed them to make suggestions in respect of the assignments they had to carry out. This leadership style is used to a minor extent at Falke. This is attributed to the fact that most of the work is mechanised and standardised, and that therefore there is not much that the employees can do concerning the job itself.

4.4.4 Results of questions relating to the delegating leadership style

Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 154) state that in terms of this style, followers are permitted to run the show and decide on the how, when and where. They are psychologically mature and consequently do not need above average two-way communication or supportive behaviour. Generally, this leadership style is also used minimally at Falke Hosiery. According to most (75%) of the respondents, employees are not given a chance to try out new ideas in the company. The majority (80%) also disagreed that their supervisors allowed them to get on with the job in their own way. This is also attributed to the nature of the work structures in this organisation.

4.5   Qualitative analysis of data

Due to many unanswered questions in the collected questionnaires the researcher had to conduct unstructured interviews with the respondents. The problem of the low response rate in respect of the main measuring instrument was conveyed to the company management and permission was granted to the researcher to conduct the unstructured interviews with the respondents who had initially filled in the questionnaires. The respondents were individually interviewed and the questions were related to those in the questionnaire. Due to the descriptive nature of the study the respondents were allowed to express their opinions freely on the questions posed to them and they were assured of the confidentiality of the exercise. The responses were noted and the following results emerged:

4.5.1 Questions relating to the leadership styles used at Falke Hosiery

"Telling" leadership style: Most of the respondents agreed that the telling leadership style was used widely at Falke. Most also agreed that they were generally told what to do and which procedures to follow when doing their work. Deadlines are given for the completion of the particular tasks. Employees are not allowed to put forward new ideas, as the leaders are the initiators of the structures and procedures to be used and implemented in the organisation (refer to the findings in paragraph 4.4.1).

"Selling" leadership style: With regard to the selling leadership style, most of the respondents agreed that they were shown how to do their work and that their supervisors had time to see how well the work had been done. They also received some form of support and help from their supervisors in the given tasks (refer to the findings in paragraph 4.4.2).

"Participating" leadership style: With regard to the participating leadership style, most of the respondents said they were not involved in decision making

in the company. Their supervisors decided on what must be done, especially in terms of the work itself and the general functioning of the organisation. (refer to the findings in paragraph 4.4.3).

"Delegating" leadership style: The respondents agreed that the delegating leadership style was used minimally at Falke: employees cannot initiate anything concerning their work and there is no form of delegation at the operational level in the organisation. The delegating leadership style is employed by management in respect of the supervisors to ensure that the work is done in their respective sections. This is attributed to the mechanised nature of the work in the company (refer to the findings in paragraph 4.4.4).

4.5.2 Questions relating to motivational factors at Falke Hosiery

Physiological needs: In terms of the physiological needs at Falke, most of the respondents mentioned that they were not satisfied with the remuneration and benefits they received. They felt that they were underpaid when compared to the value of the final products they produced on a daily basis.

Safety needs: The respondents mentioned they had no fringe benefits such as medical aid and housing subsidies, which they considered important in their daily lives. In terms of the working environment, the respondents said that the workplace was safe, for example the ventilation in the buildings. They also said that extra care had to be taken when working with the machinery in their daily tasks.

Social needs: Most of the respondents said the social environment at Falke was positive. They mentioned that they had good working relationships with their supervisors. There was also some form of teamwork in the different sections and they enjoyed good interpersonal relations among themselves.

Esteem needs: The respondents stressed that they received recognition from their supervisors when their work was well done and monthly targets were reached. They added that they did not get increased responsibilities in their

work as they were kept in particular sections for a long time doing the same work.

Self-actualisation needs: The respondents mentioned that the opportunities for training and advancement were very slim. During their general orientation and induction employees are shown the work they will have to do. The respondents also said that growth and creativity were not promoted in the organisation.

4.6   Relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation

The aim of this study was to describe the relationship between the leadership styles and motivational factors as expounded by Hersey and Blanchard. The descriptive nature of the study, that is describing the existing situation, would be fulfilled by describing the consistency of certain leadership styles in eliciting certain motivational factors in the organisation under consideration. In describing the relationship between these two variables, the qualitative and the quantitative results were taken into consideration. According to Hersey and Blanchard's model (1982: 296), the leadership styles S1 (telling) and S2 (selling) tend to provide goals consistent with satisfying hygiene factors which are physiological, safety and social needs, whereas S3 (participating) and S4 (delegating) seem to facilitate the occurrence of motivators which are self-esteem and self-actualization needs.

4.6.1 Relationship between the telling leadership style and the physiological and safety needs

The telling leadership style is used fairly widely at Falke Hosiery. As mentioned earlier, this leadership style is employed as various fixed procedures have to be followed to get important work done, such as the time needed to dye the hoses. Most of the respondents indicated that they received low monetary rewards and did not have fringe benefits. Most also said their working place was safe and that they were continually told what

safety measures to take when carrying out their daily tasks, for example care had to be taken when working with certain machinery. The consistency of the telling leadership style in satisfying physiological needs (Maslow) and hygiene factors (Herzberg) is evident, even if the satisfaction is fairly low.

4.6.2 Relationship between the selling leadership style and the safety and social needs

The selling leadership style is also fairly widely employed at Falke Hosiery. The good communication between supervisors and subordinates promotes the working environment in the company. Supervisors' understanding of their subordinates and showing them how to do the work affects the working environment positively. The selling leadership style also promotes team spirit and proper functioning in the various sections in the organisation. Employees are given the opportunity to familiarise themselves with the work they have to do. This leadership style promotes safety and social needs to a considerable extent.

4.6.3 Relationship between the participating leadership style and the self-esteem and self-actualisation needs

The participating leadership style is used minimally at Falke Hosiery. Most of the respondents indicated that they were not involved in general decision-making processes in the company, especially concerning the nature of their work. Most also contended that recognition and opportunities for increased responsibilities at Falke were very slim, largely because employees were kept in one section for extensive periods. Thus the conclusion is drawn that the participating leadership style promotes the self-esteem and self-actualisation needs of employees to a fairly low extent.

4.6.4 Relationship between the delegating leadership style and the self-esteem and self-actualisation needs

The delegating leadership style is also used minimally at Falke Hosiery. The tendency of this leadership style to promote self-esteem needs and self-actualisation needs (Maslow) and motivators (Herzberg) is fairly low. The weak relationships are attributed to the nature of the organisation, as employees are not expected to contribute much to the functioning of the company. Most of the work is mechanised and standardised, thus prompting supervisors to be directional, for example telling subordinates how to prepare the threads for knitting the hoses. Such specific instructions need to be conveyed to subordinates to get the work done and to achieve the main organisational goal, that is profit making.

It should be noted that one leadership style may work well in one section and poorly in another, depending on the nature of the employees and the given situation. It should also be noted that the tendency of the leadership styles to promote the motivational factors as integrated by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) is neither particularly low or particularly high at Falke.

It can be concluded that the basic aims of the study were achieved as the findings indicate the leadership style/s used in the company, the motivational factors prevalent in the company and the consistency and the inconsistency of certain leadership styles eliciting certain motivational factors in the organisation under study.

CHAPTER 5
INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter will focus on the interpretation of the collected data. Highlighting the results of the study will help the researcher to determine if the basic aims of the research have been achieved. The interpreted results will also enable comparisons with other studies. Kidder and Judd (1986: 313) maintain that "interpretation has to do with the search for broader meanings of those answers yielded, by linking them to other available knowledge". The chapter will outline the demographic characteristics of the population and look at the type of leadership style/s used and the level of worker motivation in the company. The integration of the findings and the theoretical framework for this study, which is Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory, will be highlighted.

5.1 Demographic and other characteristics of respondents

- The majority of the respondents were females.
- Most of the respondents fell in the age category 21-30 years.
- Most of the respondents had Standard 10 as their highest qualification. This is attributed to the fact that no formal education or skills are required at the operational level of the organisation. The respondents were shown how to do the work.
- The majority of the respondents fell in the category R1 001 to R1 500.
- The majority of the respondents were in non-supervisory positions.

5.2 Type of leadership style used

Supervisors (leaders) at Falke Hosiery use a variety of leadership styles. The respondents' perception was that their supervisors used all four of the leadership styles – telling, selling, participating and delegating, as proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). According to the respondents, the telling

leadership style was largely employed in the organisation under study. Most of the respondents responded positively to the statements characterising the telling leadership style:

- Supervisor assigns subordinates particular tasks. In other words, the supervisor is rated high in task behaviour – the S1 quadrant in the situational leadership model.
- Supervisor establishes standards of job performance.
- Supervisor informs subordinates of job requirements, for instance telling them to do quality checks on hoses.
- Supervisor encourages the use of uniform procedures.

Given the nature of Falke Hosiery, the telling leadership style is employed as certain procedures have to be followed and corporate standards met for greater profitability and productivity, and also to enable the company to compete internationally. The selling leadership style is also used at Falke as the supervisors have good two-way communication with their subordinates, thus ensuring that they know how to carry out their daily tasks.

The participating and the delegating leadership styles are used to a lesser extent, as the nature of work does not call for creative ideas from the employees. The work at Falke Hosiery is mechanised and standardised, and work procedures and structures are aimed at producing quality products and generating good profits.

5.3   Level of worker motivation at Falke Hosiery

Questions about why people do the things they do, are at the heart of the concept of motivation. Behaviour is complex and diverse. It can be, and often is, multi-determined. A single causal factor can lead to different kinds of behaviour in different individuals and to different behaviours in the same individual at different times. Hence the difficulty of defining motivation. The

complexity of motives also posed a problem in this study, but certain inferences had to be drawn from the responses given with regard to motivational factors, as mentioned in the questionnaire.

Agreement with the positively constructed statements meant high motivation with regard to the specified motivational factor, and disagreement with the positively constructed statements means low motivation with regard to the specified motivational factor. Likewise, agreement with the negatively constructed statements means low motivation with regard to the specified motivational factor, and disagreement with the negatively constructed statements means high motivation with regard to the specified motivational factor. The results on worker motivation will be presented by considering the different motivational factors obtained from the factor analysis process.

5.3.1 Job security and money
With regard to the job security and money factor, most of the respondents felt that the extrinsic rewards they were getting were unsatisfactory. This is attributed to the fact that no formal skills are required in the general functioning of Falke Hosiery.

5.3.2 Working conditions
Most of the respondents indicated that their working conditions were good, for example they said there were no physical dangers in the workplace. It is therefore evident that the safety needs of the employees are given attention at Falke.

5.3.3 Job itself
Relations between workers are good in the company. The respondents indicated that they worked harmoniously in functional teams and that there was a good team spirit in the different sections. The flow of work in the

company calls for good teamwork as work moves from one section to another, for example knitting of hoses to distribution. The tasks in each section have to be completed accurately before the product moves to the next section. On the downside, employees are kept too long in their sections, which can be attributed to the specialisation in each section. The respondents also felt they were restricted from making inputs in respect of their daily work, and this is also due to the fact that the work at Falke Hosiery is mechanised and standardised.

5.3.4 Recognition from supervisors

The respondents agreed that their hard work was recognised by their supervisors.

5.3.5 Achievement

Most of the respondents felt that they had not achieved much since working for the company, and that their potential was not fully utilised. This is due to the fact that they participate minimally in the working structures of the company; and their potential cannot be realised because they have to follow specified procedures and standards.

5.3.6 Responsibility

Most of the respondents felt that they were part of the organisation and that they were working towards the achievement of organisational goals. Paradoxically, most of them said they were not given increased responsibilities in the company.

5.3.7 Personal growth

Most of the respondents felt that there was no scope for personal growth in the company because (1) there were no opportunities for improving their skills and (2) there were no opportunities for promotion. This is also due to

the fact that employees are trained specifically to do the work in each section of the organisation. No specialised skills are needed. The level of motivation in the company differs from one motivational factor to the other, and it is neither particularly low nor particularly high. The critical issue at this stage is the relationship between the different leadership styles and worker motivation, that is the tendency of each leadership style to promote the specified motivational factors as postulated by Hersey and Blanchard in the theoretical framework of this study.

5.4   Integration of the findings and the theoretical framework of the study

The theoretical framework of this study proposes that the leadership styles S1 (telling) and S2 (selling) tend to provide goals consistent with hygiene factors, which are working conditions, pay and security, company policies, relationships with supervisors and interpersonal relationships (Daft, 1995: 407), and which are physiological, safety and social needs in terms of Maslow's Theory of Motivation. The S3 (participating) and S4 (delegating) leadership styles tend to facilitate the occurrence of motivators which, according to Herzberg's theory, are achievement, recognition, responsibility, personal growth and which, according to Maslow's theory, are the self-esteem needs and self-actualisation needs of employees.

Thus the aim of this study was to investigate the consistency of the specified leadership styles in promoting the specified motivational factors. This was done by analysing the qualitative and quantitative results obtained from the research. The telling leadership style promotes the physiological factors to a fairly low extent. The selling leadership style, also fairly widely used at Falke, motivates employees to a greater extent. The participating and the delegating leadership styles are minimally used in the company due to the nature of the production process. It can therefore be concluded that the

basic aims of the study were achieved as the study identified the leadership style/s used at Falke Hosiery, the level of worker motivation and the consistency and inconsistency of certain leadership styles in impacting on the level of worker motivation in the company.

5.5   Integration of the findings and the model for the study

The principal assumption of the model is that the manager, supervisor (leader) is the driving and significant force in any organisation. The results of the study revealed that four leadership styles are employed at Falke Hosiery and that the telling style is used the most widely owing to the nature of work in the company.

The research results validate the assumptions of the model in numerous ways. The supervisor (leader) is at the centre of the model. He/She is the person who drives individual and organisational goals.   Bateman and Zeithmahl (990: 481) maintain that "a leader is one who influences others to attain goals. The greater the influence, the greater the number of followers. The more successful the goal attainment, the more evident the leadership". The work structures at Falke call for supervisors to be directional and autocratic in order to achieve organisational and individual goals. For supervisors, reaching organisational goals means being more productive and more profitable. The achievement of individual goals differs from one person to another. The results of the study revealed that the leadership styles as mentioned by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) are practised in the company even if their tendency to promote certain motivational factors is fairly low.

It is the supervisors who develop organisational structures. Tunstall (1983: 15) quoted in Brown (1995: 7) maintains that corporate culture can be described as a general constellation of beliefs, mores, customs, value systems, behaviour norms, and ways of doing business that are unique to

each corporation, that set a pattern for corporate activities and action, and that describe the implicit and emergent patterns of behaviour and emotions characterising life in the organisation. The organisational culture governs the way a company processes information, its internal relations and its values. In more specific terms, the most significant functions of any organisation include conflict reduction, co-ordination and control, the reduction of uncertainty, motivation and competitive advantage (Brown, 1995: 57). At Falke the level of worker participation is low, which is ascribed to the organisational structures and processes (company policies). Even if workers were allowed to provide some input in respect of organisational developments, the supervisors have the final say. They are responsible for the way work is done through their leadership styles, and can therefore influence workers' level of motivation.

Andriole (1985: 11) argues that "the environment is the single most important factor affecting the activities of contemporary organisations. Modern organisations need to be externally oriented if they are to survive and be successful since crisis quite often originates from a firm's inability to cope with changes emanating from the external environment". The employees at Falke Hosiery generally compare themselves with their peers in the labour market. Some of the respondents were in agreement and some in disagreement with the statement: "I believe that the remuneration package I receive is in line with that of my peer group in other companies." This is an economic factor that is external to the organisation but nevertheless affects employees in one way or another. Therefore it can be concluded that irrespective of the external factors, supervisors are major determinants of the level of motivation in organisations. They assess situations brought to their attention and apply appropriate leadership styles, which may promote motivation to a lesser or to a greater extent.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   Introduction

This chapter contains the concluding remarks of the researcher. It provides an overview of the study, recommendations for the organisation under investigation, recommendations for future research, limitations of the study and general conclusions.

6.1.1 Overview of the study

The focus of the study was to look into the effects of leadership styles on worker motivation. It is clear from the background of the study and literature studies that leadership in organisations is an instrumental phenomenon. Supervisors (leaders) get things done through others, and if they cannot motivate their subordinates through their work behaviour, they will be destined to fail as supervisors or leaders.

It is evident from the findings that the basic aims of this study were achieved. The findings indicate that the telling, selling, participating and delegating leadership styles are used at Falke Hosiery, with the telling leadership style employed to the greatest extent. The nature of the organisational structures calls for a leadership style where the supervisor or leader is directional, as certain procedures and steps have to be followed to get the work done. It is therefore evident that supervisors or leaders in organisations are significant forces. They have to apply leadership styles appropriate to the given situation and ensure that these styles are aimed at the achievement of organisational and individual goals.

6.2 Recommendations of the study

6.2.1 Recommendations for the organisation under investigation (Falke Hosiery)

- **Human resources**

According to Burnes (1992: 61): "A cherished principle is that companies treat their workers with respect and dignity. This is because people, rather than systems or machines are seen as the primary source of quality and productivity gains." Despite the mechanised nature of this organisation, supervisors or leaders should therefore direct their work behaviour towards the attainment of employees' needs. If machines and organisational targets are put first in organisations, people, as key resources, will be demotivated and organisational goals will accordingly be forfeited. This study holds that employees are key instruments in every company and that Falke Hosiery should focus resources on meeting most of the needs of their employees.

- **Decision making**

Employees at Falke Hosiery have limited participation in organisational processes and developments. The company needs to involve employees in one way or another (e.g. quality circle groups) as this may motivate them to work harder.

- **Reward system**

Supervisors or leaders at Falke Hosiery should give careful attention to extrinsic rewards. The employees are generally not satisfied with the monetary rewards they receive – this serves as a demotivator. Intrinsic rewards also need attention, especially in an organisation of this nature. For example the meeting of monthly targets means workers have worked hard, so an intrinsic reward of some sort will motivate them further.

- **Organisation as a total system**

Supervisors or leaders at Falke Hosiery can work towards managing the company using the total systems approach. According to Daft (1995: 54), " systems approach is an extension of the human resources perspective that describes organisations as open systems that are characterised by entropy, synergy and subsystem interdependence". If leaders are aware of the subsystems interdependence in their organisations, they will involve every person in the organisation in all organisational processes and developments, as the non-inclusion of one part will affect the whole. It is therefore recommended that leaders in Falke Hosiery should include every subsystem in whatever they are doing, for greater profitability and productivity.

The critical factor is that the organisation as an employer should keep employees informed about the organisation in general. Caudron (1995: 30) says employees need to be given information about the business and how their work fits into the overall operation. If employees know what they are working towards and understand how their work affects other employees and the organisation as a whole, they start to find meaning in their work. People want to feel that they are doing something of value, then personal needs may be satisfied (i.e. sense of belonging) and work will be accurately done (job itself), and thus employees will work towards organisational goals (productivity and profitability).

6.2.2 Recommendations for future research

The textile industry contributes significantly to the general economy in South Africa. Insufficient research is done in this industry as a whole, and consequently researchers need to identify research problems with specific reference to the hosiery industry.

- A questionnaire for managers and supervisors should also be designed on leadership styles and motivational factors, for comparison purposes.

- Due to the elusive nature of motivation, there is also a need for subtle observation, for instance observing the participants in their workplace before presenting the final results.

- The same measuring instrument should also be used over a period of time to ascertain the consistency of the motivation level and leadership style used, and other pertinent information that may arise.

6.3   Limitations of the study

The study had a number of limitations:

- Insufficient time allowed by the company to conduct the research.
- The changing of shifts by respondents posed a problem during data collection, as some respondents were on different shifts when questionnaires were collected.
- Omission of some important questions by the respondents.
- The non-response of some of the respondents.
- Most of the literature consulted, if not all, was based on international viewpoints. There is little literature on this topic with regard to the South African context.

6.4   Summary and conclusions

This research report has six chapters: the first chapter covers the background of the study and the problem statement, including the main assumptions of the study. Operational definitions had to be clearly stated for applicability purposes and the scale used for measuring the motivation of workers had to be explained. The aims for the study had to be listed to drive the whole research process.   Literature studies focused on the background of the

research problem and the principal theoretical framework of the study, that is Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model. This model was used as a benchmark in describing the types of leadership styles employed in the organisation under investigation and the level of worker motivation. The research procedures were also covered in the research design. The findings were discussed first and later integrated with the propositions of the theoretical framework of the study, that is Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model, which also integrated the motivational theories of Maslow and Herzberg. The findings revealed that the telling and the selling leadership styles as used in the company affect worker motivation to some extent, and that the participating and the delegating leadership styles affect worker motivation to a lesser extent. Recommendations for the organisation and for future research were covered as were the limitations of the study.

In conclusion, supervisors or leaders in organisations should play their rightful role and direct their work behaviour towards the needs of their subordinates, making their work interesting and creating an organisational climate conducive to the attainment of individual and organisational goals, thus enhancing worker motivation. Employees are key elements in any organisation and if they are highly motivated, organisations, including those in South Africa, will perform well and be able to compete internationally.

7.   BIBLIOGRAPHY

Andriole, S.J. 1985. *Corporate Crisis Management*. Petricelli Brooks: New Jersey.

Bailey, K.D. 1994. *Methods of social research*. New York : Free Press.

Bateman, T.S. and Zeithmahl, C.P. 1990. *Management: Function and Strategy*. Homewood: Irwin.

Bless, C. and Higson-Smith, C. 1995. *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods*: An African Perspective. Kenwyn: Juta & Co.

Brown, A. D. 1995. *Organisational Culture*. Prentice Hall: New York.

Burnes, B. 1992. *Managing change: a strategic approach to organisation development and renewal*. Prentice Hall: London.

Caudron, A. 1995. "Create an empowering environment." Personnel Journal, Vol. 74, No. 9, pp. 1-4.

Christenson C, Johnson, T.W. Stinson, J.E. 1982. *Supervising*. Milton Keynes: Addison Wesley.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. 1980. *Research methods in Education*. London: Croom Helm Ltd.

Daft, R.L. 1995. *Understanding Management*. Forth Worth: The Dryden Press.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1994. *Handbook of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage.

De Vos, A.S. 1998. *Research at grass roots: A primer for the caring professions.* Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Donnelly, J.H. et.al. 1995. *Fundamentals of management.* Plano: Business Publications.

Dooley. D. 1990. *Social research methods.* Prentice-Hall International: Englewood Cliffs.

Garbers, J.G. 1996. *Effective research in human sciences: research management for researchers supervisors and master's and doctoral candidates.* Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Gatewood, R.D., Taylor, R.R., Ferrnell, O.C. 1995. *Management: comprehensive analysis and application.* Irwin: Chicago.

Goleman, D. 2000. "Leadership that gets results." Harvard Business Review, Vol 78, No 2, pp. 78- 88.

Gorsuch, R.L. 1974. *Factor Analysis.* L. E. L Baum Associates: New Jersey.

Hagan, F.E. 1997. *Research methods in criminal justice and criminology.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. 1982. *Management of organisational behaviour: utilizing human resources.* Prentice-Hall Boston: Engelwood Cliffs.

Huysamen, G. K. 1990. *Beskrywende statistiek vir die sosiale wetenskappe.* Academia: Pretoria.

Kidder, L.M. and Judd, C.M. 1986. *Research Methods in social relations.* CBS Publishers: New York.

Kinnear, P. R. and Gray, C.D. 1994. *SPSS for windows made simple.* Erlbaum: Hove.

Landy, F.J. 1989. *Psychology of work behaviour.* Chicago: The Dorsey Press.

Leedy, P.D. 1997. *Practical research: planning and design.* Prentice Hall: Ohio.

Mather, P.A. 1991. *Some factors influencing worker motivation.* Unpublished Master's dissertation. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.

Maude, B. 1980. *Leadership in management.* Business Books: London.

Miller et al. 1992. *Supervision in the Hospitality Industry.* Canada: John Wiley and Sons.

Milton, C.R. 1981. *Human behaviour in organisations: three levels of behaviour.* Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs.

Mohl, A. 1991. 'Motivation Theories and Black Workers." South African Journal of Labour Relations, Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 15 – 20.

Mouton, J. and Marais H.C. 1996. *Basic concepts in the methodology of social research methods.* HSRC: Pretoria.

Muller, C.C.   1991.   The Validity of Leadership Inventory. Unpublished Master's thesis. University of Pretoria: Pretoria.

Mullins, L. J. 1996.   *Management and organisational behaviour*. Pitman Publishers: London.

Neuman, L.   1997.   *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. London: Allyn and Bacon.

Robbins, S. P. 1989. *Essentials of organisational behaviour*. Prentice Hall Boston: Englewood Cliffs.

Royse. D. 1991. *Reserch methods in social work*. Nelson-Hal: Chicago.

Rue, L.W. and Byars, L.L.   1995.   *Management: Skills and Application*. Chicago: Irwin.

Saunders, E. 1998. "Leadership the South African way." People's Dynamics, 16(1): pp 31-34.

Schermerhorn, J.R.   1993.   *Management for Productivity*.   New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Sekaran, U. 1992. *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Singleton, R. et al. 1988. *Approaches to social research.* Oxford University Press: New York.

Steers, R.M. and Porter, L.W. 1991. *Motivation and Work Behaviour*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Timm, P.R. and Peterson, B.D. 1982. *People at work: human relations in organisations*. West Pub. Co. St. Paul.

Weiers, R.M. 1988. *Marketing Research*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Weihrich, H. and Koontz, H. 1993. *Management: A Global Perspective*. New York: McGraw-Hill.