Leadership styles of lower and senior level management within a mining company

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"… one person can be a change catalyst, a transformer in any situation, any organization. Such an individual is yeast that can leaven an entire loaf. It requires vision, initiative, patience, respect, persistence, courage, and faith to be a transforming leader." ~ Stephen R. Covey

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Chapter 1

Introduction and Problem Formulation

1.1   Introduction

With South Africa becoming a democracy and the full opening up of commerce and industry to foreign competition, major transformations of both public and private organizations is the order of the day (Spangenberg & Theron, 2002). The new millennium requires a rapid rate of change and leadership is an essential factor in the change process. According to Coetzee (2001), leadership involves bringing about change, envisioning a new future as well as impassioning people to dedicate themselves to new directions.

South Africans look back with nostalgia at a time of well-known leaders in business and government. Hard-pressed to identify such leaders today, South Africans are concerned about the system of selection, and the influence of the mass media that make it difficult for great leaders to emerge (Joseph, 1991). The general impression one gains of the leadership styles of those currently in power in South Africa, is that these leadership styles are inadequate (Kemp, 2001). Therefore, the issue of leadership style needs to be addressed if one is to raise the level of motivation in organizations.

The days of looking for leaders with the right endorsements and the right credentials as defined by an established elite, are over. Leaders of the future will not ride out of the sunset on white charges; many will instead be ordinary people with extraordinary commitments.   It is often sad and strange to see that leaders destroy their organizations with inappropriate leadership styles, thereby leaving wasted human resources in their wake (De Vries, 1998).

There is a tendency for individuals within an organization to become what their leaders give them reason to feel they should and can become. Leaders who strive to establish a setting, which is supportive of employees and their development, also help to instil within those individuals a loyalty. The latter serves to enhance the continued achievements of the organization (Darling, 1999).

Rost (1991) proposes that leadership is an influence-relationship between followers' and leaders who intend real changes that would reflect their mutual purposes. The new paradigm of leadership focuses on the exchange-relationship between leader and subordinate (relational leadership) rather than stressing the leader's qualities or behaviours (personal leadership), or matching the leader's style with the followers' task (situational leadership).

The pendulum of leadership studies swing through a number of planes. The most recent of these is in the direction of transformational leadership, a term which may be defined as: "When one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (Flanagan & Thompson, 1993, p. 9). This definition gives rise to new leadership styles.

Leadership style is an important topic. Recently there has been a renewed interest in leadership style. Den Hartog, van Muijen and Koopman (1997), note that the recent resurgence of interest in studying the topic of leadership style appears to be accompanied by an acceptance of the distinction between transactional and transformational leadership styles with an emphasis on the latter. Bass (1990) is of the opinion that the transactional-transformational model is a new paradigm, neither replaced nor explained by other models.

A transactional leadership style is based on an exchange process in which the leader provides rewards in return for the subordinate's efforts and performance. The primary factors of a transactional leadership style include, contingent reward (followers and leaders have a positively reinforcing interaction), management-by-exception (the leader intervenes only when things go wrong), and laissez-faire (leadership is absent) (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

On the other hand, transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations by activating followers' higher order needs, fostering a climate of trust, and including followers to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organization. The primary factors of a transformational leadership style include charisma or idealized influence (followers trust in and emotionally identify with the leader), inspirational motivation (followers are provided with symbols and emotional appeals directed at goal achievement), intellectual stimulation (followers are encouraged to question their own way of doing things or to break with the past), and individualized consideration (assignments are delegated to followers to provide learning opportunities) (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Accordingly, Maritz (2000) is of the opinion that a transformational leadership style predicts higher performance across a diversity of cultures and organizations. Due to the fact that most South African organizations do not apply the transformational style of leadership, South Africa's competitiveness in relation to the world, is below average (Grobler, 1996).

Research by Saunders (1998) indicates that there were very few significant behavioural changes in South African leaders, which contributed to the harnessing of the intrinsic motivational energy of people. As a result, South African organizations have difficulty with issues such as world-class competitiveness and productivity. In addition, South African leaders still exercise more transactional leadership, due to a variety of reasons (Maritz, 2000). According to the latter author, South African leaders still spend a lot of

time actively correcting mistakes and practicing crisis management. Maritz (2000) proposes the following mistakes. The organization is designed for the 1980s and has a culture of decentralized philosophy, but centralized behaviour. The organizational structures and reward systems are formal and rigid. In addition, human resources systems reinforced stability versus shaping and moulding boundarylessness. Added to this, some leaders see some large-scale changes as a flavour of the month. As soon as the pressure is off, they revert back to the old ways of doing things. Finally, leaders have a narrow perspective of what the global world is about. The world out there is still a foreign country and leaders lack the understanding of the opportunities and implication.

According to Maritz (2000), for South African organizations to become more competitive and effective, these organizations need to be successful in developing the behaviour and characteristics of transformational leadership. He further purports that the delay to move towards a new way of thinking about leadership can be attributed partly to politics and bureaucratic inertia and partly to a fear of changing to something people do not understand.

1.2   Problem Statement

The process of South Africa's reintegration internationally is well under way. South Africa will be shaping its own destiny without the need to apologize, make excuses, or seek special favours. However, this freedom is accompanied by a number of challenges. As pressures related to international competition intensify, South African companies will be obliged to make rapid organizational and cultural changes, and these can only be affected through people. Unless the right people are in the right places at the right time with the right skills and attitudes, the necessary changes will not come about. The key to the desired result is, therefore, effective leadership (Grobler, 1996).

The mining industry in South Africa has been a cornerstone of South Africa's economy. Thus, mining is vitally important as it provides employment to millions of people and contributes to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (South Africa Survey, 1999/2000).

Changes in labour legislation and the introduction of employment equity legislation, as well as the reform of the environmental regulatory system, create a dynamic context. Changes, which have come about in the mining industry, make it necessary to prepare the industry for the challenges, which are facing South Africans in the 21st century (White paper: Minerals, 1998).

It is the belief of the mining industry that leadership is the key element in cultivating a culture of respect for individuals, as well as collaboration and teamwork. Moreover, the mining industry strives to achieve an inclusive cultural climate in which all employees will feel comfortable, valued and accepted.

As a result of the mining industry's changing business environment, the transformation of leaders' leadership style is critical for the managing of cultural diversity and organizational effectiveness.

According to De Beer, Rossouw, Moolman, Le Roux and Labuschagne (1998), management (lower, middle and upper) is mainly concerned with assisting the organization to adjust to continuously changing environments. Since demands, tasks and responsibilities at different hierarchical levels are different, it seems likely that leadership attributes also differ for the different levels of management (Lord & Maher, 1991). According to Hunt (1991), top-level managers are characterized as being innovative, visionary, persuasive, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous. These attributes in top-level management were strongly associated with transformational leadership. Research by Shamir

(1995) supports the research by Hunt (1991), which suggests that top-level management is characterized by transformational leadership. This is evident in the fact that top-level strategic leadership is concerned with the development and communication of a vision. Lower level managers are usually responsible for daily operations and interact more often with their subordinates, as compared with top managers. Furthermore, lower level management places more emphasis on operational skills and social interaction than the articulation of a vision, and is therefore characterized by transactional leadership (Hunt, 1991). Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam (1996) hypothesized that transformational leadership is more prevalent at higher levels of management. Not only is it important to investigate the perceived styles of leadership at different organizational levels, but also the perceived behaviours of leaders and followers.

Lord and Maher (1991), is of the opinion that followers' perceptions are used by the perceivers to evaluate and distinguish leaders from non-leaders or effective from ineffective leaders. Early research by Bass and Hater (1988) indicated a difference in the perception of the leaders' leadership style to that of the followers. In addition, the perception of the superiors' motives, goals and leadership style are crucial determinants of their pro-activity (Morrison, 1993). According to Madzar (2001), the discrepancy between leaders' and followers' perceptions, influence subordinates' information inquiry in an organizational setting. Madzar (2001) is of the opinion that subordinates who perceive their leaders to be transactional will seek more technical and referent information. On the other hand, subordinates who perceive their leaders to be transformational will seek information relating to performance and social feedback.

Despite the resurgence of South African leadership research, few investigations have examined the association between leadership style and biographical characteristics, which include, age, tenure and cultural diversity.

Lord and Maher (1991), argue that culture plays a strong role in the content of leadership. According to Bass (1990), transformational leaders in organizations are more likely to emerge from societies with traditions of support. Research by Triandis (1993) indicates that subordinates from different cultural groups will perceive the leadership style of their leaders differently. A collectivist culture will identify more with a transformational leader and an individualist culture with a transactional leader (Triandis, 1993). Booysen (2001) is of the opinion that cultural differences influence individual expectations and assumptions about management. Leadership philosophies have to evolve in harmony with the cultures within which they function (Booysen, 2001). According to Booysen (2001, p. 32), "The face of South African leadership is becoming more diverse and inclusive of all race groups posing a challenge to the dominant values and practices". Relatively few studies in South Africa have focused on culture-based differences in leadership; as a result there is a growing awareness of a need for better understanding in which leadership is enacted in various cultures. Not only does one anticipate differences in leadership style based on cultural difference, but one also anticipates a difference in leadership style based on the individuals' tenure within the organization.

Early research by Katz (1982), points out that managers with organizational experience tend to rely increasingly on their past experiences and routine information sources rather than on new information, thus such leaders are more traditional (transactional). Research by Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990), found that managers with long organizational tenure tend to have a restricted knowledge base that impedes their response to environmental changes. Such leaders hold fast to traditional values and beliefs thereby characterizing them as transactional leaders.

In addition to tenure in organizations, differences in leadership style may also be affected by age. Research by Zenger and Lawrence (1989), postulated that younger managers emerge as results driven. As they experience more developmental opportunities, these managers are able to simultaneously develop their subordinates. Such managers will display a transformational style of leadership. Older managers, for example, bureaucrats, on the other hand, see themselves as having little or no exposure to development; hence such managers emerge as intolerant and are characterized by a traditional style of leadership (Carroll & Harrison, 1994).

In the light of the above-mentioned, the management of a mining organization in South Africa would like to undertake a study in order to establish the current situation with regards to leadership in the company. Management is specifically interested in determining whether different management levels in the organization exercise different styles of leadership and whether the perceptions of leadership competencies differ between leaders and followers. In addition, management wishes to determine whether there is a difference in leadership style based on biographical variables, which include cultural diversity, age and tenure. For the purpose of this study, the following research questions have been formulated.

1.3   Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated.

- Is there a difference in leadership style between lower and senior management within a mining company in the Northern Cape?

- Is there a difference between the perceptions of leaders and followers with regard to leaders' leadership styles?

- Are there differences in leadership style based on biographical variables such as age, tenure and cultural groupings based on home language of the leaders in a mining company in the Northern Cape?

1.4   Research Objectives

This study aims to:

- Determine by means of a non-experimental research design whether there are differences in leadership style between lower and senior management within a mining company in the Northern Cape.

- Determine by means of a non-experimental research design if there are differences between the perceptions of leaders and followers with regard to leaders' leadership styles.

- Determine by means of a non-experimental research design whether there are differences in leadership style based on biographical variables such as age, tenure and cultural groupings based on home language of the leaders in a mining company in the Northern Cape.

1.5   Plan of study

In chapter two, issues regarding perceptions will be addressed which include the nature and definition of perception, the perception process, perception distortions, attribution as well as factors that influence perception.

In chapter three, issues regarding leadership, which include the definition and nature of leadership style and theory, four approaches to the study of leadership,

levels of management and leadership style, age and leadership style, cultural diversity and leadership style, tenure and leadership style and the role perception plays in the execution of leadership style, will be addressed.

The focal point of chapter four is the research methodology in which the research hypotheses, research sample, data-gathering instrument and statistical techniques will be presented.

The results and discussion of the research will be presented in chapter five. The general conclusions and recommendations will be derived from the conclusion.

Chapter 2

Perception

2.1   Introduction

Relevant issues with regard to perception will be addressed in this chapter. These issues will include the definition and nature of perception, the perceptual process, perceptual distortions, factors that influence perception, as well as perception and communication. It is important for the purposes of this study to discuss these aspects since one of the objectives of the study relates to the perception of leaders and followers regarding leadership.

2.2   Definition and nature of perception

According to Fiske and Neuberg (1990), perception may be defined as the processes by which individuals become aware of and interpret information about the environment. Bowditch and Buono (1997) define perception as the interpretation of messages from an individual's senses to provide some order and meaning to the environment. Furthermore, Greenberg and Baron (2000) purport that perception is the process through which people select, organize and interpret information. Wofford (1982) adds on to say that perception is the process of selecting and receiving input from the environment and interpreting and organizing the material received. In addition, Greenwald and Banaji (1995) are of the opinion that perception is a cognitive process that enables one to understand and interpret the environment. Added to this, perception may be defined as the process by which people select, organize, retrieve, and respond to information from the world around them (Wyer & Skrull, 1986).

The key to the above-mentioned definitions of perception is the term, interpretation. Since different people can view the same situation in disparate ways, the interpretation of the meaning of a particular event determines how individuals will react to it (Bowditch & Buono, 1997).

Moreover, in perceiving, individuals receive information from spoken words or visual images. Through the perceptual process, the receiver assimilates the varied types of incoming information for the purpose of interpreting it (Levine & Shefner, 1981).

Perception is a way of forming impressions about oneself, other people and daily life experiences. In addition, perception serves as a screen or filter through which information passes before it has an effect on people. Thus, the quality or accuracy of a person's perceptions has an impact on his/her response to a given situation (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

2.3   The perception process

Man obtains information from the outside world through a series of steps. First, the signals from the outside world are detected by some kind of sensing device (sensation). If the signals come by way of electromagnetic waves such as light, then the eyes may detect them. If the signals come by way of mechanical waves such as sound, then the ears may detect them. The signals detected by the sensing devices will then be transmitted through neurons (transmission) and perceived by the brain (perception). The brain will then express the perceived information by talking or writing as an output (Chiang, 1981). These steps are illustrated in figure 2.1 below:

Sound or light	→	Ears or eyes	→	Transmission in nerve	→	Brain	→	Speaking or writing

Input	→	Sensation	→	Transmission in nerve	→	Perception	→	Output
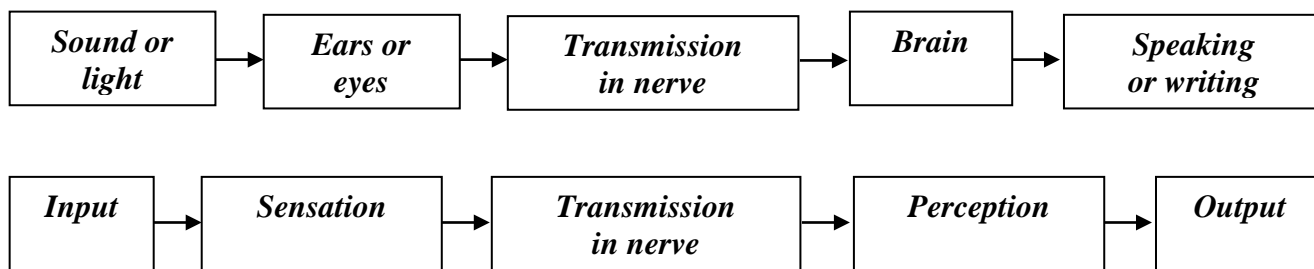
Figure 2.1. Perceptual process (Chiang, 1981, p. 133).

People's outputs (evaluations and impressions) are shaped by their pre-existing beliefs about the social world. Rather than responding to the world as it is, people's memories and inferences are embellished by schematic forces that guide information processing (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2001).

According to Cohen (1981), the perceptual process may be defined as an interaction of selection/attention, organization, and interpretation. These aspects will be discussed in the following section.

2.3.1 Attention

Numerous stimuli are constantly confronting individuals all the time such as the noise of the air-conditioner, the sound of other people talking, as well as outside noises from cars and planes. Information that is observed is not stored in memory in its original form, therefore encoding is required. Information that is raw is translated into mental representations. Perceivers assign information to cognitive categories. People are interpreted and evaluated by comparing their characteristics with information contained in schemata. A schema represents a person's mental picture of a particular event (Grant & Holmes, 1981).

Since the stimuli are below the individual's conscious threshold, individuals engage in perceptual selectivity. Various external and internal attention factors affect perceptual selectivity, and will be discussed briefly.

2.3.1.1 External attention factors

These external attention factors consist of environmental influences such as intensity, size, contrast, repetition, motion, novelty and familiarity (Hunsaker & Cook, 1986).

2.3.1.1.1 Intensity

The intensity principle of attention states that the more intense the external stimulus, the more likely it is to be perceived. According to Bowditch and Buono (1997), intensity or relative strength of an object, noise, or occurrence can significantly influence perception.

2.3.1.1.2 Size

The larger the object, the more likely it will be perceived. In addition, large objects stand out more fully in relation to their background. Moreover, larger objects have a greater probability of being selected into perception (Zerbe & Franklen, 1992).

2.3.1.1.3 Contrast

Contrast refers to the extent that something stands out in relation to its background. Furthermore, the contrast principle states that external stimuli, which stand out against a background, will receive an individual's attention (Zerbe & Franklen, 1992).

2.3.1.1.4   Repetition

Repetition/frequency is another external factor that influences perception. Things that are repeated or occur frequently are seen more readily than those objects or events that are infrequent or not repeated (Bowditch & Buono, 1997).

2.3.1.1.5   Motion

Individuals tend to notice things that move against a relatively still background. Moreover, people will pay more attention to moving objects in the field of vision than they will to stationary objects (Morris, 1996).

2.3.1.1.6   Novelty and Familiarity

Novel and very familiar perceptual settings are more readily selected than situations that are not novel and very familiar. Changing workers' jobs from time to time will increase the attention they give to the task. Moreover, new objects or events in a familiar setting or familiar objects or events in a new setting will draw the attention of the perceiver (Moorhead & Griffin, 1989).

2.3.1.2   Internal factors

Internal factors that influence attention include expectations, motivation, adaptation level, personality and motives (Hunsaker & Cook, 1986).

2.3.1.2.1   Expectations

According to Wagner and Hollenbeck (1998), the perceiver's expectations will affect the evaluation of a particular object. Our attention is easily drawn to

objects that confirm our expectations. Moreover, Wofford (1982) is of the opinion that people see what they expect to see. Through experience and through other people's suggestions, individuals form expectations. People with different experiences, in the same situation, form different expectations about it.

2.3.1.2.2   Motivation

Motivation plays an important role in perception. Objects that are valued are perceived with greater ease. Individuals deny stimuli that are inconsistent with their self-image. Stability and comfort are protected by individuals seeing the world in such a way that satisfies their needs and sustains their values (Wofford, 1982). Furthermore, people will select out stimuli or situations from the environment that appeal to, and are compatible with, their learning and with their personality.

2.3.1.2.3   Adaptation level

A new stimulus is not judged in isolation but in relation to an adaptation level that has been established by previous experience in simular situations. A craftsman of fair ability will be perceived to be good when in a crew of novices; however, if switched to a crew with outstanding ability, the craftsman will appear to be inexperienced (Higgins & Bargh, 1987).

2.3.2   Organization

Even though selective screening takes place in the attention stage, it is still necessary to finds ways to organize the information efficiently. In addition, schemas are cognitive frameworks that represent organized knowledge about a concept or stimulus developed through experience. One can distinguish between different types of schemas, namely, person schemas, script schemas

and finally person-in-situation schemas (Grant & Holmes, 1981). These schemas will be discussed briefly.

2.3.2.1 Person schemas

Person schemas refer to the way individuals sort people into categories. The term prototype or stereotype is used to represent these categories. Once a prototype is formed, it is stored in the long-term memory where it is later retrieved when it is needed for a comparison of how well a person matches the prototype's features (Grant & Holmes, 1981).

2.3.2.2 Script schemas

A script schema may be defined as a knowledge framework that describes the sequence of events in a given situation. An experienced manager would use script schemas to determine the appropriate steps involved in planning a meeting (Grant & Holmes, 1981).

2.3.2.3 Person-in-situation schemas

Person-in-situation schema is a combination of schemas built around persons (self and person schemas) and events (script schemas) (Grant & Holmes, 1981).

2.3.3 Interpretation

Once an individual's attention has been drawn to certain stimuli and the individual has grouped or organized this information, the next phase is to uncover the reasons behind the actions (Kenny & Albright, 1987). Interpreting what others do is burdensome, thus, individuals make the task of interpretation more manageable by developing techniques that allow them to make perceptions

rapidly (Jussim, 1991). These techniques include, stereotyping, halo effects, contrast effects, projection, self-fulfilling prophecy and perceptual defence.

2.3.3.1 Stereotyping

Humans are rarely motivated to engage in the mental activity necessary to optimise their evaluations of others (Gilbert & Hixon, 1991). Rather, they do just enough mental work to get by; mental work simplified through the activation of category-based knowledge structure (Gilbert & Hixon, 1991). "People often avoid the trouble of thinking simply because they are mental sluggards and a stereotype is the sluggard's best friend" (Gilbert & Hixon, 1991, p. 509).

According to Judd and Park (1993), a stereotype is an individual's belief about the characteristics of a group. A stereotype is defined at the level of the individual perceiver, and it need not be consensually shared. Greenwald and Banaji (1995), define a stereotype as a socially shared set of beliefs about traits that are characteristic of members of a social category. "Stereotypes guide judgement and action to the extent that a person acts toward another as if the other possesses traits included in the stereotype" (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995, p. 14).

2.3.3.1.1 Stereotype formation and maintenance

Stereotyping is a four-step process. It usually starts with categorizing people into groups according to various criteria, which include, gender, age, race and occupation. Individuals infer that all people within a particular category possess the same traits or characteristics. Next, individuals form expectations of others and interpret their behaviour according to their stereotypes. Finally, stereotypes are maintained by: (1) over-estimating the frequency of stereotypic behaviours

that other exhibit; (2) incorrectly explaining expected and unexpected behaviours; and (3) differentiating minority individuals (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). Added to this, Mullins (1999) purports that stereotyping is a means of simplifying the perception process, instead of dealing with a range of complex and alternative stimuli. Furthermore, a danger of stereotyping is that it can block out accurate perceptions of individuals.

2.3.3.1.2 Halo effects

According to Greenwald and Banaji (1995), Thorndike named the halo effect after noticing personality ratings showed a tendency for positive characteristics to be associated with other positive characteristics more than they should be. The halo effect came to be regarded as the tendency for judgement of a novel attribute of a person to be influenced by the value of an already known, but irrelevant attribute. In much halo effect research, physical attractiveness plays the role of the irrelevant attribute that influences evaluation of another person (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

Moreover, Mullins (1999) defines the halo effect as the process by which the perception of a person is formulated on the basis of a single favourable or unfavourable trait. The halo effect shuts out other relevant characteristics of that person. In addition, Bowditch and Buono (1997) is of the opinion that the halo effect refers to the process of allowing one characteristic of an individual or group overshadow all other characteristics of that individual or group.

Furthermore, when an individual is rated on multiple performance dimensions or attributes, the rater's overall impression or evaluation is thought to strongly influence ratings of specific attributes, a phenomenon that is referred to as halo error (Murphy, Jako & Anhalt, 1993). Added to this, research by Luthans (1990) suggests that the halo effect is similar to stereotyping. In stereotyping

the individual is perceived according to a single category, under the halo effect the person is perceived on the basis of one trait. Halo effects occurs under three conditions. Firstly, when traits to be perceived are unclear in behavioural expression; secondly, when traits are not frequently encountered by the perceiver; and thirdly, when traits have moral implications (Balzer & Sulsky, 1992).

2.3.3.1.3   Projection

Judging others becomes easy when we assume that they are similar to us. The tendency to attribute one's own characteristics to others is called projection. Individuals engaging in projection perceive others according to what they themselves are like rather than according to what the person being observed is really like. When leaders are guilty of projection, they are not able to respond to individual difference (Robbins, 2001). Bowditch and Buono (1997), view projection to be the tendency to place blame for difficulties or problems upon others.

2.3.3.1.4   Self-fulfilling prophecy

The essence of the self-fulfilling prophecy is that people's beliefs and expectations determine their behaviour and performance, thus serving to make an expectation come true. In addition, one strives to validate one's perception of reality, irrespective of how faulty they may be. Due to the Pygmalion effect, managerial expectations influence employee performance. A model of the self-fulfilling prophecy may help to explain how supervisory expectations affect employee performance (see figure 2.2).
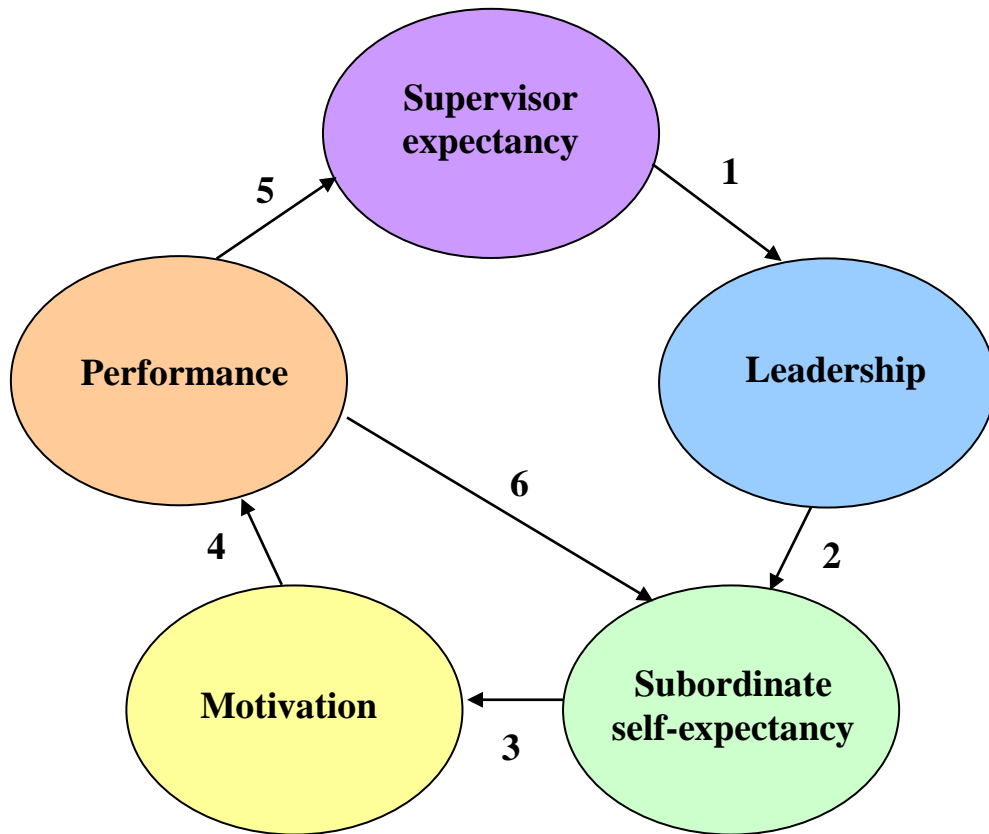
Figure 2.2. A model of the self-fulfilling prophecy (Eden, 1984, p. 67).

As illustrated, high supervisory expectancy produces better leadership (linkage 1), which then leads employees to develop higher self-expectations (linkage 2). Higher expectations motivate workers to exert more effort (linkage 3), increasing performance (linkage 4) and supervisory expectancies (linkage 5). Successful performance improves employee's self-expectancy for achievement (linkage 6) (Eden, 1984).

Moreover, Bowditch and Buono (1997) purport that if an individual expects or perceives that another individual will act in a particular way, that other person often lives up to or fulfils that expectation.

2.3.3.1.5   Perceptual defence

Perceptual defence is the tendency to avoid or screen out certain stimuli that are disturbing or threatening. People tend to select information, which is supportive of their point of view, and choose not to acknowledge contrary information (Mullins, 1999).

2.3.4   Judging

The process through which individuals attempt to judge the underlying causes of others' behaviour, is known as attribution (Linton & Warg, 1993).

2.3.4.1   Attribution

"An attribution is an inference about why an event occurred or about a person's dispositions or other psychological states" (Weary, Stanley & Harvey, 1989, p. 3). The initial step in the perception of social objects involves the person toward whom the perceiver's attention is directed. This other person, with his/her psychological processes, which include intentions, dispositions and emotions, is referred to as a distal stimulus. Information about the distal object (i.e. the person as the object of perception) must be obtained through some form of mediation involving physical stimuli (e.g. light and sound waves). The mediation conveys information about the personality of the other as revealed by his/her behaviour or from verbal descriptions of the stimulus person's actions made by a third party. The stimulus pattern with which the perceiver comes into contact is referred to as the proximal stimulus. The final step in the perception process comprises the constructive process within the perceiver. In this constructive part of the process, the proximal stimulus is actively interpreted against a background of subjective forces, which include, past experiences,

needs, and future expectations, furthermore, precepts will arise that best fit the stimulus conditions and internal systems of evaluations (Weary et al., 1989).

Furthermore, behaviour is determined by a combination of perceived internal and external forces. Internal forces relate to personal attributes, which include ability, skill, as well as amount of effect. These internal factors are believed to be under the individuals' control. External factors, on the other hand, relate to environmental factors such as organizational rules and policies, the manner of superiors or the weather (Linton & Warg, 1993).

Behaviour may thus be explained by locus of control, that is whether individuals perceive outcomes as controlled by themselves, or by external factors. Judgements made about other people will thus also be influenced by whether the cause is seen as internal or external (Mullins, 1999).

In making attributions and determining whether an internal or external attribution is chosen, three basic criteria exist. These include distinctiveness, consensus and consistency (Kelly, 1973).

- Distinctiveness: Refers to whether an individual displays different behaviours in different situations.
- Consensus: Individuals who are faced with similar situations and that respond in similar ways, display consensus in their behaviour.
- Consistency: Refers to whether the behaviour or action is associated with an enduring personality or motivational characteristic over time, or an unusual one-off situation.

Individuals attribute behaviour to internal forces or personal factors when they perceive low distinctiveness, low consensus and high consistency. Behaviour is attributed to external forces or environmental factors when people perceive high

distinctiveness, high consensus, and low consistency. The above-mentioned is represented in figure 2.3 as follows:
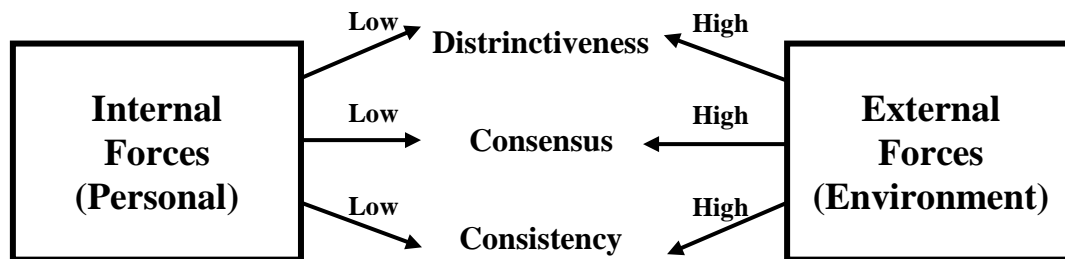
Figure 2.3. Representation of attribution theory (Kelly, 1973, p. 121).

According to Greenberg and Baron (2000), there are errors that distort attributions. When individuals make judgements about the behaviour of others, individuals tend to under-estimate the influence of external factors and over-estimate the influence of personal factors. This phenomenon is known as the fundamental attribution error. Furthermore, individuals also have the tendency of attribute their own successes to internal factors such as ability, while the blame for failure is put on external factors. This is known as the self-serving bias. The following section will deal with factors that influence the perception process.

2.4   Factors that influence perception

The following factors influence perception.

2.4.1   The Perceiver

An individual's own characteristic affects how he/she perceives and interprets things. An individual's past experiences, needs or motives, personality, values, attitudes, self-concept, disposition and salience all influence the perceptual process (Higgins & Bargh, 1987).

Salience is the individual's feelings about how important the object is. The more salient the object is to an individual the more attention the individual will pay to it. Disposition is a short-term emotional response triggered by various environmental stimuli. Attitudes are longer lasting feelings about things. Attitudes can affect perceptions in dramatic ways. Self-concept can also affect perception. Self-concept is a person's perception of himself or herself. An individual who has a good self-concept tend to see things in a positive and enriching light. A negative perception, on the other hand, can give a person's self-concept an unfavourable cast (Levine & Shefner, 1981).

2.4.2   The Target

Perception is influenced by things about the target that set it apart from its surroundings, or causes the perceiver to be aware of it than would otherwise be the case. Such characteristics include novelty, contrast, size, background, proximity, motions and sands (Chao & Kozlowski, 1986).

If an object contrasts with its surroundings, it is more noticeable. A manager who interviews twenty women and one man for a job will tend to remember the man first because he posed such a contrast. Objects may also vary in their intensity, features such as brightness, colour, depth or sound. Individuals tend to listen carefully to someone who is yelling or whispering, because the intensity of the utterance is unusual. Individuals also tend to focus attention on objects that are moving or changing. In addition, movement stimulates one's awareness of an object before one becomes aware of its surroundings. Repetition can also increase an individual's awareness of objects. Most people recall the most recent advertising for McDonald's and Coca-Cola, because they are repeated over and over on television and the radio. An object's novelty can also stimulate an individual's perception of it. People wearing unusual clothing, tend

to attract attention. Similarly individuals are likely to remember people whose behaviour is unexpected (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987).

2.4.3 The situation

The contexts in which individuals see objects also affect their perception. According to Luthans (1992), situational factors such as time, work setting, social setting, location and heat gives meaning and value to simple stimuli in the environment. Furthermore, the organizational culture and structure provide the primary context in which subordinates and managers do their perceiving. The above-mentioned are illustrated in figure 2.4 below.

Characteristics of the person		**Characteristics of the object**
• Salience • Disposition • Attitudes • Self-concept • Personality		• Contrast • Intensity • Movement • Repetition • Novelty

Situational Characteristics

- Selection
- Organization
- Stereotyping
- Halo
- Projection
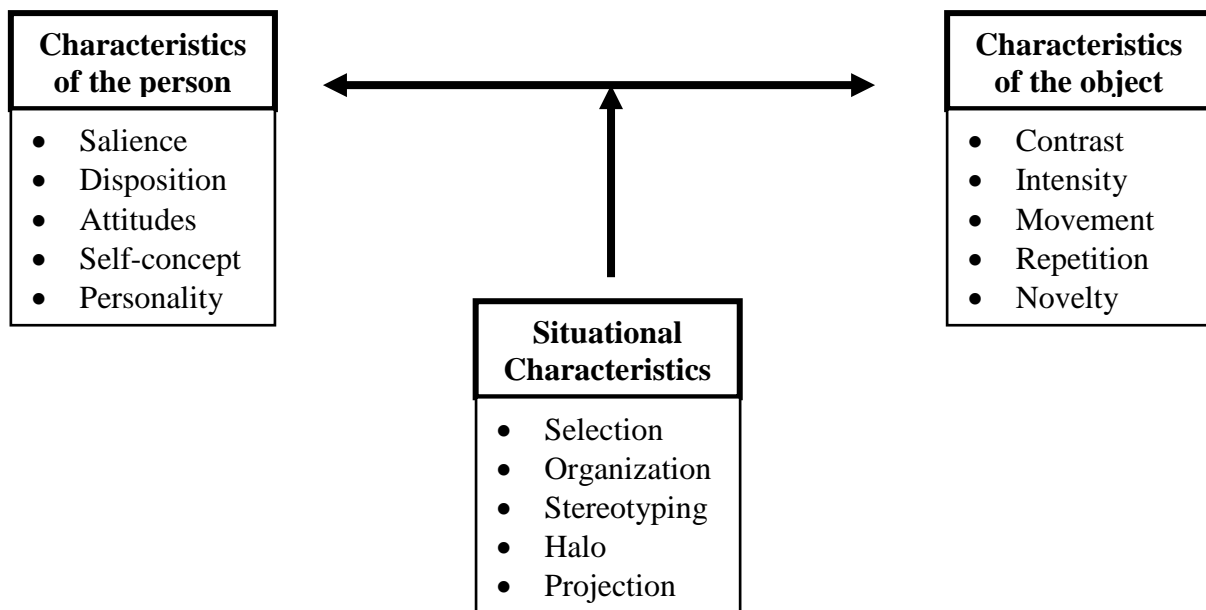
Figure 2.4. Characteristics and processes that effect perception (Levine & Shefner, 1981, p. 20).

It is evident from the above mentioned that certain factors operate to distort and shape perception. Perceptual distortions may also occur as a result of poor communication between leaders and subordinates. Thus, the chapter concludes with a discussion of perception and communication.

2.5   Perception and communication

Perception is the essence of reception. Individuals perceive a message and that perception depends on the message structure, its content and vocabulary, the source, the social context, and the personal history individuals bring to the situation.   Perceptual errors that distort communication involve, levelling, sharpening and condensation (Klein & Ritti, 1984).

2.5.1   Levelling

Levelling involves subjective omission of information. People find it difficult to remember everything. Individuals omit factors that do not correspond with what they see as appropriate elements of the message (Klein & Ritti, 1984).

2.5.2   Sharpening

Sharpening involves selective retention.   Receivers select elements of the message that correspond with their overall view of the subject matter (Klein & Ritti, 1984).

2.5.3   Condensation

If the message is complex and much of it is ambiguous, the psychological tendency is to compress the message by eliminating the uncertain elements and retaining that part of the message that makes sense (Klein & Ritti, 1984).

2.6   Conclusion

The domain of perception, which includes the perception process as well as factors that influence perception, helps to explain how information processing

takes place as well as possible biases that may occur during information processing. Perception is also relevant to the leadership domain. Individuals may develop descriptions of leadership style that may be affected by perceptions. Therefore, it becomes imperative to assess how subordinates perceive their leaders' leadership style.

The following chapter will focus on a critical discussion of leadership and will include aspects such as the nature and definition of leadership style and theory. Four main approaches to the study of leadership will be addressed. Moreover, a discussion on levels of management and leadership style as well as biographical variables and leadership style will follow. Finally the chapter concludes with an integration of perception and leadership.

Chapter 3

Leadership

3.1   Introduction

This chapter will focus on the nature and definition of leadership style and theory, theories of leadership, levels of management and leadership style, age and leadership style, tenure and leadership style as well as cultural diversity and leadership style. The chapter concludes with an integration of leadership and perception. The above-mentioned aspects with regard to leadership styles are essential in order to attain the aim of the study.

3.2   Definition and nature of leadership style and theory

Leadership has become the most critical issue today, because, only leadership steer organizations through turbulent times, provide vision to create and sustain wealth in the future and adapt to change (Avolio, 1996). Leadership is crucial for a successful organization, community or country as leadership provides direction so that people can invest their energy synergistically (Kemp, 2001). Furthermore, Kemp (2001) is of the opinion that leadership is what South Africa needs more than anything else. Spangenberg and Theron (2002) postulate that leaders and managers have to build competence in leading people, driving transformation and effectively managing the performance of work units all at once.

One of the most universal needs of our time is for compelling and creative leadership styles. Such leadership styles will allow leaders and followers to raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. When the leader adopts an appropriate leadership style, the leader becomes an independent force

in changing the make-up of the follower's motive base through gratifying their motives (Moorhead & Griffin, 1989).

Organizations are concerned with identifying the kinds of leader behaviour that enhances the effectiveness of subordinates. Leadership style researchers believe that once the behaviour that makes for effective leadership is known, leaders can be trained to exhibit that behaviour, so they can become better leaders (Goldsmith & Clutterback, 1984).

According to Bernhard and Walsh (1996), style is a manner of acting or a method of performing in a particular situation. Style offers the leader alternative ways to enact a theory of leadership. Leadership style or behaviour has been employed interchangeably to describe what leaders do. According to Moorhead and Griffin (1989), leadership style is related to the amount of control over or freedom allowed to subordinates.

Style is an important factor in the leadership process. A style is the way in which something is said or done. According to Douglas (1996), the way in which a leader uses interpersonal influence to accomplish goals is known as leadership style. When writing about leadership style, various authors use theory and style interchangeably, however, theory and style are different.

Theory may be defined as a kind of general principle that governs practice or is proposed to explain observable facts. Concepts found in theory are abstractions that represent real-world phenomena. By specifying relationships among concepts, theory explains and predicts actions. In addition, theory serves to define, predict and prescribe action (Bernhard & Walsh, 1995).

3.3   Theories of leadership

Four main theories to the study of leadership will now be examined. These include trait theories, behavioural theories, contingency theories and neo-charismatic theories. In addition, the shortcomings of each theory will be discussed.

3.3.1   Trait theories

The following assumptions with regard to trait theories will follow.

3.3.1.1   Assumptions regarding trait theories

These theories rest on the assumption that the individual is more important than the situation. Most studies single out the following traits that make for successful leaders (Handy, 1993):

- Intelligence: Leaders should be above average and must be particularly good in solving complex and abstract problems (Handy, 1993).
- Initiative: Leaders should be independent and inventive, must also have the capacity to perceive a need for action and the urge to do it (Handy, 1993).
- Self Assurance: Implies self-confidence and competence (Handy, 1993).
- Affiliative: The coercive leader demands, "Do what I say", the authoritative leader urges, "Come with me", the affiliative leaders says, "People come first". This trait revolves around people (Handy, 1993).
- Pacesetting: The leader sets high performance standards and exemplifies them himself. The leader is obsessive about doing things better and faster; furthermore, the leader is able to pinpoint poor performers and demands more of them (Bernard & Walsh, 1996).

At the turn of the 20th century, the belief was that leaders were born and not made. People were thought to possess inborn traits, which made them successful leaders. Leader traits are personal characteristics that differentiate leaders from followers (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). According to Bryman (1992), the implications of the trait approach is that leaders with the right qualities need to be selected, since the traits possessed by good leaders are innate and don't change.

3.3.1.2   Shortcomings of the trait approach

The trait approach failed to find any traits that would guarantee leadership manifestations (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, there is a danger that the term 'trait' becomes stretched and may apply to any variable on which leaders differ from non-leaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). In addition, Bryman (1992) is of the opinion that there is much more to being an effective leader than the possession of a collection of traits.

3.3.2   Behavioural theories

The following assumptions regarding behavioural theories will be discussed.

3.3.2.1   Assumptions regarding behavioural theories

The assumption behind these theories is that employees will work harder for managers who employ given behaviours of leadership. The behaviours usually compared are the authoritarian, democratic, autocratic, coercive and liassez-faire dimensions. The major differences between these behaviours reside in the focus of power. In the extreme authoritarian style, power resides with the leader; authority for decision-making, arbitration, control and reward or punishment is vested in the leader who alone exercises this authority. The authoritative leader

is a visionary, he/she, furthermore, motivates people by making clear to them how their work fits into a larger vision for the organization. An authoritative leader states the end but allows people leeway to devise their own ideas (Handy, 1993). In the democratic style of behaviour, on the other hand, these powers and responsibilities are shared with the group (Strage, 1992).

A democratic leader encourages group members to determine their own policies. The leader also allows members freedom to choose actions and interactions that would facilitate their work (Clark & Clark, 1996). The autocratic leader exhibits a consistent behaviour pattern, first determining all policies for group members and then detailing methods of goal attainment (Strage, 1992). A coercive style of behaviour is one of the least effective in most situations. Bullying and demeaning is the order of the day (Holle & Blatchely, 1987). The laissez-faire leader provides members with complete freedom. This type of leader does not give feedback unless asked (Rost, 1991). Den Hartog et al. (1997), view this type of leader as an inactive rather than proactive or reactive leader. When laissez-fair leadership is used, this means that the leader is not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Four main behavioural theories of leadership include the Ohio State studies, the Michigan studies, the Managerial grid and the Scandinavian studies.

3.3.2.2 Ohio State studies

This behavioural theory resulted from research done at Ohio State University. Researchers identified two dimensions that described leadership behaviour. These two dimensions were initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to the roles of subordinates for the purpose of goal attainment. Consideration was described as the extent to which leaders pursue job relationships which are characterized by trust, respect for ideas and regard for feelings (Jones, George & Hill, 1998).

3.3.2.3   Michigan studies

This behavioural theory resulted from leadership research done at the University of Michigan. Research also identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour, namely employee oriented and production oriented behaviour. Employee oriented leaders took an interest in the needs of employees and accepted individual differences. Production oriented leaders' main concern was for the accomplishing of group tasks and the emphasizing of the technical aspects of the job (Donnelly, Gibson & Ivancevich, 1992).

3.3.2.4   Managerial grid

The managerial grid enables a leader to classify himself/herself in terms of concern for people and concern for production, expressed on a scale of one to nine. The grid has nine possibilities on each axis, giving a total of eighty-one different leadership styles (Blake & Mouton, 1985).

3.3.2.5   Scandinavian studies

The premise of the Scandinavian studies was that leaders exhibit development-oriented behaviour. Such leaders value experimentation, they seek new ideas, generate and implement change. Leaders who exhibit development-oriented behaviour had more satisfied employees and were seen as more competent (Kroon, 1995).

3.3.2.6   Shortcomings of the behavioural approach

A number of measurement problems have been identified relating to the behaviour appropriated to leadership. This includes the leniency effect, a

tendency to describe a leader in a favourable but untrue manner (Tracy, 1987). A further complication is that ratings of leaders are contaminated by subordinates' implicit leadership theories. In addition, the failure to take into account situational factors contributes to inconsistent findings as situational variables moderate the relationship between leader behaviour and various outcomes.

3.3.3 Contingency theories

The following assumptions with regard to contingency theories will be examined.

3.3.3.1 Assumptions regarding contingency theories

Contingency theories take into account other variables involved in any leadership situation, in particular the task and/or the work group and the position of the leader within that work group (De Beer, et al., 1998). Furthermore, contingency theory proposes that effective leadership style is situationally contingent. This means that a style of behaviour will be effective in some circumstances but not in others (Bryman, 1992). Examples of contingency theories include, the Fiedler model, Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory, leader-member exchange theory, the path goal theory and the leader-participation model.

3.3.3.2 Fiedler model

According to this theory effective groups are dependent upon a match between leadership style and the degree to which the situation gives the leader control. There are three elements in the work situation that determine which leadership style will be effective. The first element is the leader-subordinate relationship.

If a relationship based on trust exists between the leader and his/her subordinates, the leader will adopt a lenient attitude. The second element is task structuring. Tasks should be assigned properly with the necessary instructions. Authority and responsibility are clearly defined. The third element is the leader's position of power. The more authority a leader has the better the chances of influencing his/her subordinates (Peters, Hartke & Pohlmann, 1985).

3.3.3.3 Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory

Situational leadership is a contingency theory focussing on the followers. Leadership is achieved when the correct leadership style is selected and is contingent on the level of the followers' readiness. Follower readiness may be defined as the extent to which individuals have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

3.3.3.4 Leader-member exchange theory

This theory suggests that leaders establish special relationships with a small group of their followers. Leaders characterize subordinates as either in-groups or out-groups. Subordinates that make up the in-group often receive more privileges. On the other hand, subordinates that make up the out-group receive less of the leader's attention (Linden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993).

3.3.3.5 Path-goal theory

According to path-goal theory, leaders are expected to help subordinates accomplish their goals. These goals should be in line with that of the organization. The following leadership behaviours are characteristic of path-goal theory. These include, directive leadership, supportive leadership, participative leadership and achievement-oriented leadership. Directive

leadership involves providing of subordinates with specific tasks and work schedules. Supportive leadership involves a concern for employee needs. Participative leadership is concerned with the use of subordinate suggestions before making decisions. Finally, achievement-oriented leadership involves challenging tasks for subordinates so that subordinates perform at the peak (Blank, Weitzel & Stephen, 1990).

3.3.3.6   Leader-participation model

According to this model leaders use a set of normative rules to determine the amount and form of participation in decision-making within different situations (Blank et al., 1990).

3.3.3.7   Shortcomings of the contingency approach

According to Bryman (1992), contingency approaches are plagued by inconsistent results and by confusion about the meaning of its measurement instruments. Furthermore, contingency approaches failed to generate much research and has suffered form a lack of empirical confirmation.

3.3.4   Neo-charismatic theories

Neo-charismatic theories are characterized by the following themes. Firstly, emphasis is placed on symbolic and emotionally appealing leader behaviour. Secondly, neo-charismatic theories attempt to explain how some leaders achieve extraordinary levels of follower commitment. Charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, together with transactional leadership, transcendental leadership and servant leadership characterize neo-charismatic theories. Since transactional leadership and transformational leadership should not be viewed as opposing approaches, transactional leadership is discussed

together with transformational leadership under neo-charismatic theories. Transformational leadership is considered to be built on top of transactional leadership.

3.3.4.1 Charismatic leadership

Charismatic leadership emphasizes symbolic leader behaviour, visionary and inspirational messages, non-verbal communication, and ideological values. Charismatic leaders transform followers by the creation of change in their goals, values, needs and aspirations. Charismatic leaders accomplish this transformation by appealing to followers' self-concepts; these include their value and personal identity. Figure 3.2 below illustrates how the charismatic leader accomplishes this transformation.

Leader Behaviour	Effects on followers' self-concepts	Motivational mechanisms	Personal outcomes
• Leader establishes a vision • Leader establishes high performance expectations and displays confidence in him/herself and the collective ability to realize the vision • Leader models the desired values, traits, beliefs, and behaviours needed to realize the vision	• Follower motivation, achievement orientation, and goal pursuit • Follower identification with both the leader and the collective interests of organizational members • Follower self-esteem and self-efficacy	• Increased intrinsic value of effort and goals • Increased effort performance expectancies • Increased intrinsic value of goal accomplishment	• Personal commitment to leader and vision • Self-sacrificial behaviour • Organizational commitment • Task meaningfulness and satisfaction • Increased performance

Figure 3.1. A charismatic model of leadership (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993, p. 580).

A brief discussion on the above-mentioned model follows:

- Charismatic leader behaviour: The first set of charismatic leader behaviours involves the establishment of a common vision of the future. The second set of leader behaviours involves two components, these include: high performance expectations and standards as well as the need to express confidence in the followers' ability to meet high performance expectations. The third set of leader behaviour involves being a role model in whom leaders model the desired values, traits and beliefs needed to realize the vision (Shamir et al., 1993).

- Effects on follower self-concepts: Charismatic leadership affects three aspects of a follower's self-concept. The first aspect involves follower motivation, achievement motivation, and goal pursuit. Secondly, charismatic leadership increases the extent to which followers' identify with the leaders values, goals and aspirations and with the collective interest of all employees. Thirdly, follower self-esteem and self-efficacy are heightened (Shamir et al., 1993).

- Motivational mechanisms: One way in which charismatic leadership positively affects employee motivation is by increasing the intrinsic value of employees' effort and goals. Charismatic leaders emphasize that effort reflects organizational values and collective interests. Charismatic leaders also increase employees' effort performance expectancies by contributing to followers' self-esteem and self-efficacy. Leaders also increase the value of goal accomplishment by an explanation of the organizations vision and goals in terms of the personal values they represent. In this way employees personally connect with the organization's vision. In addition, followers are given a sense of growth and development when charismatic leaders increase the meaningfulness of actions by showing how the accomplishment of goals moves the organization towards its vision (Shamir et al., 1993).

3.3.4.2   Transformational leadership

A brief account on transformational leadership will follow.

3.3.4.2.1   Introduction

According to Du Rand (2000), charismatic leadership evolved into transformational leadership. Trice and Beyer (1990) argue that there is a distinction between charismatic and transformational leadership although both forms of leadership are innovative in approach. Charismatic leaders create new organizations, whereas transformational leaders change existing organizations and their cultures. In addition, charismatic leaders operate like leaders of social movements in attracting followers and then uniting them in pursuit of a common cause. Transformational leaders on the other hand, are concerned about changing an old culture and to replace it with a new one.

Based on the work by Burns (1978), transformational leadership theory explains the unique connection between the leader and his/her followers. Transformational leadership goes beyond the attempts of the leader who seek to satisfy the current needs of followers through transactions via contingent reward behaviour. In addition, transformational leaders arouse heightened awareness and interests in the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Bass and Hater (1988), argue that a transformational leadership style motivates followers to do more than originally expected. According to Bass, Avolio and Atwater (1996), such a transformation can be achieved by (a) raising an awareness of the importance and value designated outcomes, (b) persuading followers to transcend their own self interest, or (c) expanding followers needs on Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Bass (1995) notes that transformational leadership has been linked to outcomes, such as leadership effectiveness, satisfaction, innovativeness and quality improvement. Such a leader is able to define the leader-subordinate relationship as being outside the economic contract (Greenberg, 1996).

While the transactional leader motivates subordinates to perform as expected, the transformational leader inspires his/her followers to do more than expected (Avolio, 1996). According to Yammarino (1993), transformational leaders articulate a vision, use lateral thinking, encourage individual development, give regular feedback, use participative decision making, and promote a cooperative and trusting work environment. In addition, Clark and Clark (1996) are of the opinion that a transformational leadership style is a style that excites, arouses and inspires.

In addition, one can also compare different models of transformational leadership developed by Bennis and Nanus (1985), Kouzes and Posner (1987), Conger (1989), Tichy and Devanna (1990) as well as Bass and Avolio (1995).

3.3.4.2.2   Bennis and Nanus' model of transformational leadership

The research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggests that transformational leaders develop four strategies, which distil the essence of leadership. These include, attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust and deployment of self.

- **Attention through vision**

Each transformational leader should have a compelling vision for the future that provides both the follower as well as the leader with a way forward. The vision should articulate a view of a realistic, credible and attractive future for the

organization. Moreover, when others share the vision they have a sense of direction and can locate their own position in relation to where the organization is heading. Moreover, the vision derives from the leaders past experiences, assessments of current strengths and weaknesses as well as an appraisal of likely trends (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

- **Meaning through communication**

Transformational leaders should reiterate the vision and its desirability. Training must be used to inculcate the new values necessary for gaining support of the new vision. Furthermore, the leader has to underpin the change of direction by altering the organizations structure in line with the vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

- **Trust**

The transformational leader must create a climate of mutual trust. Without trust change will be viewed with suspicion and the vision may not be mobilized or empowered, furthermore, the leaders own action must be consistent with the vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

- **Deployment of self**

The transformational leader should be aware of his/her strengths and weaknesses and use it to good effect. Moreover, the leader should constantly learn and reflect on his/her experiences (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

3.3.4.2.3   Kouzes and Posner's model of transformational leadership

Research by Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified five practices that contribute to successful transformational leadership, these include, challenging the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way and encourage the heart.

- **Challenge the process**

Transformational leaders that challenge the process are in search of new opportunities and take risks to experiment (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

- **Inspire a shared visions**

According to Kouzes and Posner (1987) transformational leaders inspire a shared vision when they create an image of the future, which gives the organization a sense of direction.

- **Enable others to act**

This implies that the leader promote co-operations and collaboration between people, so that the leader and the subordinates jointly implement the vision (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

- **Model the way**

The leader should adopt values that are in line with the vision and should behave in ways consistent with the vision (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

- **Encourage the heart**

Kouzes and Posner (1987) purport, that transformational leaders should exhibit high expectations and reward individuals for success in various ways.

3.3.4.2.4 Conger's model of transformational leadership

According to Conger (1989), transformational leadership is the product of a process of attribution. The process involves a sequence of stages, namely, sensing opportunity and formulating a vision, articulating the vision, building trust in the vision and achieving the vision.

- **Sensing opportunity and formulating a vision**

Conger (1989) is of the opinion that the transformational leaders' vision should challenge the status quo, give people a sense of personal worth and address members' personal aspiration.

- **Articulating the vision**

Members of the organization must be convinced that they should commit themselves to the vision. The transformational leader must have a good sense of speech rhythm, which lacks hesitation, and must be prolific in the use of gestures in conveying points (Conger, 1989).

- **Building trust in the vision**

According to Conger (1989), the transformational leader needs to promote an image of himself/herself as an exceptional individual by emphasizing past successes as well as accomplishments.

- **Achieving the vision**

The transformational leader empowers others so that they feel active participants in the attainment of the vision. In addition, the leader should become a teacher, creating new learning experiences for members of the organization, thereby giving individuals a sense of new ideas (Conger, 1989).

3.3.4.2.5 Tichy and Devanna's model of transformational leadership

According to Tichy and Devanna (1990), an organization that fails to transform to changes, risks failure. The process of transformational leadership involves three acts, these include, recognition of the need to revitalize the organization, the creation of a vision and the institutionalising of change.

- **Recognition of the need to revitalize the organization**

As environmental pressures trigger a need for change, individuals within organizations often resist change. The transformational leader creates dissatisfaction with the status quo. In addition, once the leader succeeds in creating dissatisfaction, he/she has to dismantle the old ways of doing things. Furthermore, the leader has to deal with the anxieties of people about their loss of power and status (Tichy & Devanna, 1990).

- **Creation of a vision**

Tichy and Devanna (1990) further purport that a vision motivates organisational members because the vision provides a challenge and serves as a roadmap or blueprint for what the organization will look like in the future. People identify more with what an organization will become, than with what it looks like now.

- **Institutionalising change**

According to Tichy and Devanna (1990), the leader should design structures, which will be able to smooth the way for the vision. The transformational leader must creatively destroy the old and then reassemble the new, with an emphasis on the latter.

3.3.4.2.6 Nadler and Tushman's model of transformational leadership

Nadler and Tushman (1990) distinguished between six components of transformational leadership. These include envisioning, energising, enabling, structuring, controlling and rewarding.

- **Envisioning**

Nadler and Tushman (1990) are of the opinion that a vision should be realistic and achievable in order to create employee commitment within the organization.

- **Energising**

Different leaders should use diverse methods to energise subordinates. These methods should include the following: personal excitement, confidence in the ability of the subordinates and the provision of support for subordinates (Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

- **Enabling**

Leaders should support subordinates when they face challenging goals (Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

- **Structure**

Structure entails goal setting, the setting of elevated standards and defining the role and tasks of subordinates (Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

- **Control**

Control consists of systems that are used to measure and monitor behaviour as well as implement corrective action (Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

- **Rewarding**

Rewards are administered according to the degree to which behaviour is consistent with the process of change (Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

3.3.4.2.7   Bass and Avolio's model of transformational leadership

Research by Bass and Avolio (1995) are of the opinion that transformational leadership has four dimensions, these include, idealized influence, inspiration, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation.

- **Idealized influence**

The charismatic leader provides vision; gains respect and trust, increase optimism, instil pride and excite their subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

- **Inspiration**

This dimension concerns itself with the capacity of the leader to act as a model for subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Bass and Avolio (1995) purport that

this dimension involves the use of symbols to focus efforts as well as the communicating of a vision.

- **Individual consideration**

Individual consideration contributes to individual subordinates achieving their fullest potential (Bass, 1995). Moreover, individual consideration is in part coaching and mentoring; it provides for continuous feedback and links the individual's current needs to the organization's mission (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

- **Intellectual stimulation**

Subordinates are provided with challenging new ideas that stimulate rethinking of old ways of doing things. Intellectual stimulation arouses an awareness of problems; recognition of subordinate's beliefs, values, thoughts and imagination (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995). Intellectual stimulation becomes evident in subordinate conceptualisation, comprehension, and analysis of problems they face and the solutions they generate (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

3.3.4.3 Transactional leadership

According to Avolio (1996), transactional leadership entails an exchange between leader and follower. It is further purported that followers receive certain valued outcomes when they act according to their leaders wishes (Druskat, 1994). Bass (1990) purports that transactional leaders clarify for their followers the follower's responsibilities, the expectations of the leader, the tasks that should be accomplished as well as the benefits to the self-interests of the followers for compliance. In addition, three dimensions characterize transactional leadership:

- **Contingent Reward**

The first dimension of transactional leadership is contingent reward or contingent reinforcement. The leader rewards followers for attaining the specified performance levels (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, reward is contingent on performance level achieved and on effort expended (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

- **Management-by-exception (active)**

The second dimension of transactional leadership characterizes a leader who actively seeks deviations from standard procedures and then takes action when irregularities occur (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

- **Management-by-exception (passive)**

A passive form of management-by-exception characterizes leaders who intervene to correct deviations after they occurred (Bycio et al., 1995). Such leaders usually intervene after mistakes are made in order to correct them and move performance back to previously specified levels (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

A transactional oriented leadership style creates an environment in which the subordinate defines his or her relations with the organization as an economic exchange where emphasis is on providing rewards in exchange for meeting agreed upon objective (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Under transactional leaders, employees are more likely to be concerned about the fairness of outcomes than the fairness of procedures because their relationship with their effort (Greenberg, 1996).

Accordingly, the role of the transactional leader is to make rewards (and punishments) clearly contingent on performance and specify the outcomes that

the individual can expect in exchange for good performance (Greenberg, 1996). Transactional leadership styles are founded on the idea that leader-follower relations are based on a series of implicit bargains between leader and followers. The notion is that, when the job and the environment of the follower fail to provide the necessary direction and satisfaction, the leader, through his or her behaviour, will be effective by compensating for the deficiencies (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

According to Hollander (1978), the transactional leadership process can be best understood as the occurrence of mutually satisfying transactions among leaders and followers within a particular situational context. This model is known as the transactional model and is illustrated in figure 3.1 below.
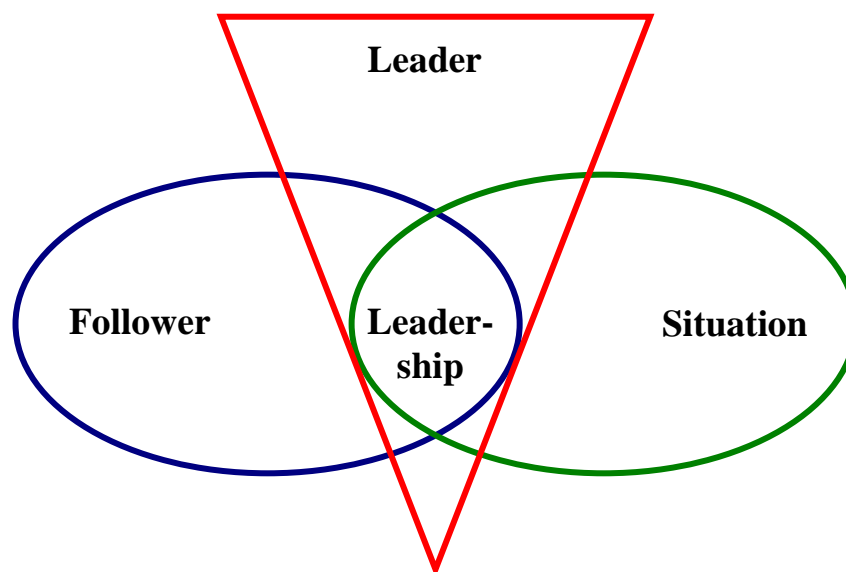
Figure 3.2. The transactional model of leadership (Hollander, 1978, p. 6).

3.3.4.4 Transcendental leadership

Transcendental leadership is the leadership that is defined by a contribution-based exchange relationship whereby the leader promotes unity by the provision of fair extrinsic rewards, the appeal to intrinsic motivation of subordinates and the development of their transcendent motivation. In addition, transcendental

leaders try to contribute to the personal development of their subordinates. Added to this, the transcendental leader is a transactional leader, who is charismatic and a server. Being a server makes it impossible for transcendental leaders to be manipulators (Cardona, 2000). Furthermore, the best way in which transcendental leaders are created is by example. Thus, the most important competence of transcendental leadership is their integrity and capacity to sacrifice themselves in the service of their subordinates.

3.3.4.5 Servant-Leadership

Traditional autocratic and hierarchical models of leadership are yielding to a newer model. A model that attempts to simultaneously enhance the personal growth of workers and improve the quality and caring of many institutions through a combination of teamwork, personal involvement in decision making and ethical and caring behaviour. The emerging approach to leadership and service is called servant-leadership. Ten characteristics of servant-leadership include: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of the people and building community (Spears, 1995). These characteristics will be discussed briefly.

3.3.4.5.1 Listening

Servant-leaders seek to identify and clarify the will of the group. They must seek to listen receptively to what is being said. Listening, coupled with regular periods of reflection, is essential to the growth of the servant leader (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.2   Empathy

Servant-leaders strive to understand and empathize with others. In addition, the most successful servant-leaders are those who have become skilled empathetic listeners (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.3   Healing

Healing is a powerful force for transformation. One of the great strengths of servant-leadership is the potential for healing the self and others (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.4   Awareness

Self-awareness strengthens the servant-leader. Awareness aids in understanding issues involving ethics and values. Furthermore, awareness enables a servant-leader to view most situations form a more integrated perspective (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.5   Persuasion

Another characteristic of servant-leaders is reliant upon persuasion, rather than positional authority.   Servant-leaders convince others, rather than coerce compliance (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.6   Conceptualisation

Servant-leaders have the ability to think beyond day-to-day realities. Servant-leaders strive to strike a delicate balance between conceptualisation and day-to-day focus (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.7 Foresight

Foresight enables servant-leaders to understand lessons from the past, the realities of the present, and the likely consequences of a decision for the future (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.8 Stewardship

Servant-leaders, assumes first a commitment to serving the needs of others (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.9 Commitment to the growth of people

Servant-leaders realize that people have intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions (Spears, 1995).

3.3.4.5.10 Building community

Servant-leaders build community among those who work within a given institution (Spears, 1995).

This section will conclude with a summary on the theories of leadership.

3.4 Summary of leadership theories

The central approaches to the study of leadership, the respective periods and core themes are outlined in table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Trends in leadership theory and research (Bryman, 1992, p. 1).

Period	Approach	Core theme
Up to late 1940s	Trait approach	Leadership ability is innate
Late 1940s to late 1960s	Behavioural approach	Leadership effectiveness is to do with how the leader behaves
Late 1960s to early 1980s	Contingency approach	It all depends; effective leadership is affected by the situation
Since early 1980s	New leadership approach (includes neo-charismatic leadership)	Leaders need vision

Over the last few years, there has been a considerable interest in testing a new paradigm of leadership style. According to Bass and Avolio (1990), previous leadership models fell short in explaining the full range of leadership styles, which includes the charismatic and inspirational leaders. Although attention has shifted in the leadership literature to charisma and inspirational leadership, the need still remains to include the full range of leadership styles in models and measures (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The transactional-transformational model is a new paradigm, neither replacing nor explained by other models such as the relations-oriented/task-oriented leadership model (Den Hartog et al., 1997). This new paradigm of leadership style is known as the 'new leadership' (Bryman, 1992). The 'new leadership' integrates ideas from trait, behavioural and contingency approaches of leadership. In view of the above-mentioned the theory of transactional-transformational leadership will be used, for the purpose of this study.

Criticism against neo-charismatic leadership or the new leadership is that new is not always better. New and unproven ways of leading can sometimes cause harm. Traditional theories of leadership (trait, behavioural, and contingency

theories) are often seen as being the enemy of progress. Conversely, tradition is seen as a normative anchor, governing the rational actions of leaders (Cardona, 2000).

Research on neo-charismatic leadership has failed to give enough attention to situational factors, which moderate the effects of leader behaviour. The meagre research on situational effects suggests that leaders who exhibit charismatic leadership behaviour find it easier to convey their message when situations are stressful or when there is uncertainty. Added to this, when leaders are heavily constrained, the most impressive leaders will be unable to lift their subordinates to the degree that they desire (Bryman, 1992). According to Cardona (2000), charismatic leaders are more concerned about the subordinates buying in their vision.

Consequently, the differences in leadership theories are more in terms of how leaders do it, than, what leaders do. In addition, all leadership theories agree on issues like inspiring people, showing direction, communicating effectively, and solving problems. Thus, different theories of leadership yielded more similarities than differences. Therefore when one considers the different theories on leadership it becomes apparent that there is no single leadership model that is universally accepted (Cardona, 2000).

Below follows a discussion of various management levels and leadership style.

3.5 Management levels and leadership style

The management of some organizations functions at three levels, namely: top level management, middle level management and lower level (supervisory) management (De Beer et al., 1998). The function and role of management varies with the different levels, hence, each level of management has various

objectives. The various objectives in an organization and the levels at which they occur may be illustrated in terms of figure 3.3.
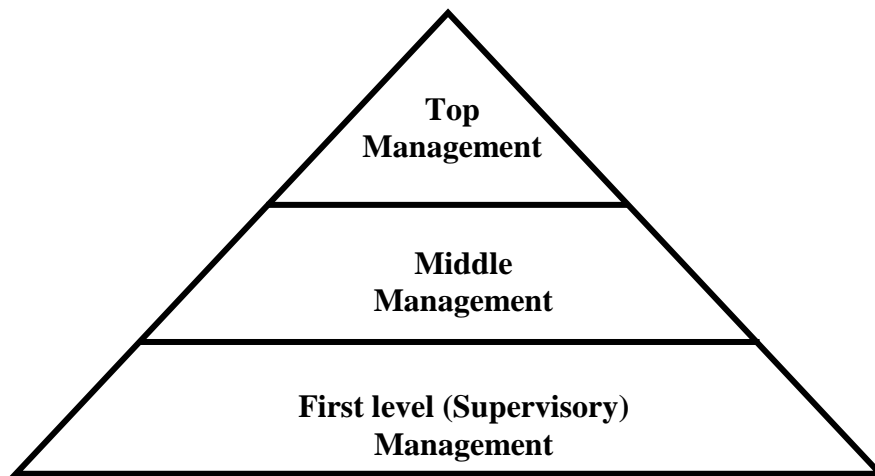
Figure 3.3. Levels of management (De Beer et al., 1998, p. 17).

- Top-level management: Top management represents a small group of people responsible for the general management of the organization. The functions of top management are unpredictable. Routine tasks at this management level constitute a small part of management. Top-level management is concerned with strategic management through the formulation of a vision and the implementation of strategies and objectives (De Beer et al., 1998).

- Middle level management: In an organization, middle management focuses on tactical control to ensure that the strategic plans of top management can be implemented. Middle management is primarily concerned with implementing the policy plans and strategies of top management. Furthermore, the function of middle level management is leading and controlling human and other resources (De Beer et al., 1998).

- Lower level management: Lower level management is mainly concerned with the daily tasks in a particular department. The supervisor is involved in

short-term planning and is furthermore involved in implementing the plans and objectives of middle managers (De Beer et al., 1998).

According to Kane, Tremble and Trueman (2000), transformational leadership was more prevalent at top and middle level management than lower level management. Lower level management rated higher on management-by-exception, a dimension of transactional leadership, than middle and top level management. Furthermore, according to Loubser and De Jager (1995), senior management is characterized by dimensions which include, financial management, managerial knowledge, knowledge of the industry, knowledge of economic and business trends, ability to manage strategically, group leadership, labour relations, procedure and policy, value conformity and results focus, pro-activeness and change management. The ability to provide a vision and increase optimism is a core function of senior management. Transformational leadership may thus characterize senior managers. Research by Waldman, Ramirez, House and Puranam (2001) purport that senior management exhibit more transformational leadership than lower management, a finding in line with the results of Lowe et al (1996).

On the other hand, lower level management is characterized by dimensions, which include client orientation, verbal communication, listening, reactiveness, planning and organizing (Loubser & De Jager, 1995). Since lower level management is concerned with implementing the plans and objectives of middle managers and has a more reactive focus to situations, lower level management can be characterized by a transactional leadership style. Transactional leaders are leaders who react to situations only when irregularities occur (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Since individuals with different age groups, tenure and cultural groupings display different leadership styles, a discussion on these biographical variables and leadership style will follow.

3.6 Biographical variables and leadership style

The following section will deal with biographical variables and leadership style.

3.6.1 Introduction

The foundation of organizational biographical variables is based on structuralist sociological theories, which emphasize the importance of numbers and proportions for understanding interactions and processes amongst social aggregates. These structuralist theories are built on the assumption that the positions among which social actors are distributed exert powerful influences on social life, more than cultural values and norms. The perceived social structure is conceptualised as a multi-dimensional space composed of the various positions on which individuals of the population are distributed (Pfeffer, 1983).

These positions are most often defined by biographical variables, such as, age, tenure, and cultural diversity (Pfeffer, 1983). Stinchcombe, McDill and Walker (1986), argued that the basic assumption underpinning biographical variables is that biographical characteristics influence social dynamics, which in turn influence organizational outcomes. According to Kakabadse (1991), biographical attributes such as age, tenure, and cultural diversity may be used as surrogate measures for understanding the common experience and background that shape human development and influence, amongst others, leadership style.

3.6.2 Age and leadership style

The relationship between age and leadership style has reported conflicting findings. This is evident in research by Kakabadse (1998) that postulated older managers to be better leaders than younger managers. These managers, over time, were held accountable for their successes and errors and have turned

numerous experiences into developmental opportunities. Older managers will take a balanced view when reaching a decision and are more likely than younger colleagues to evolve positive relationships with people thereby making older managers more transformational. Kakabadse (1999) is of the opinion that older leaders are able to produce resolutions without resentment and that age and experience are more important than ever to superior organizational leadership. Younger leaders are ill-equipped to lead companies that are characterized by worsening over-production and rising expectations of quality. "Radicals are great in markets that are growing, but in conditions of over-supply, it takes maturity and wisdom to keep a company's leadership team together" (Kakabadse, 1999, p. 7).

On the other hand, research by Korac-Kakabadse and Korac-Kakabadse (1998) indicates that younger managers, namely, radicals emerge as results driven and as people they are impatient. Their attitude towards the organization, its staff and management and their role is partly driven by the fact that they are new to the organization. If actions and activities are not proceeding to plan and time schedules, these young managers display great impatience. Since these individuals have been exposed to well-run training programmes they can provide their subordinates with the necessary intellectual stimulation, a dimension of transformational leadership.

Older managers, namely, bureaucrats, see themselves as having little or no exposure to development; hence they stick to traditional organizational norms and values (Korac-Kakabadse & Korac-Kakabadse, 1998). The impact of such managers is that they demotivate others in the organization. In addition, Robbins (2001) is of the opinion that different generations hold different work values. This is illustrated in table 3.3.

Table 3.2. Dominant work values in today's workforce (Robbins, 2001, p. 64).

Stage	Year Born	Entered the workforce	Approximate current age	Dominant work values
I Protestant work ethic	1925-1945	Early 1940s to early 1960s	55-75	Hard work, conservative; loyalty to the organization
II Existential	1945-1955	1960s to mid-1970s	45-55	Quality of life, nonconforming, seeks autonomy; loyalty to self
III Pragmatic	1955-1965	Mid-1970s to late 1980s	35-45	Success, achievement, ambition, hard work; loyalty to career
IV Generation X	1965-1981	Late 1980s to present	Under 35	Flexibility, job satisfaction, balanced lifestyle; loyalty to relationship

According to table 3.3, workers who entered the workforce from the early 1940s through the early 1960s believed in the protestant work ethic. Once these individuals were hired, they tended to be loyal to their employer and place great importance on a comfortable life and family security. Employees who entered the workforce during the 1960s through the mid-1970s are more concerned with the quality of their lives and with loyalty toward themselves rather than toward the organization. Moreover, freedom and equality are highly rated (Robbins, 2001).

Individuals who entered the workforce from the mid-1970s through the late 1980s emphasize achievement and material success. These individuals see their organizations that employ them merely as vehicles for enhancing their careers. Values, such as a sense of accomplishment and social recognition are rated highly (Robbins, 2001). Individuals who have entered the workforce from the late 1980s to the present have been shaped by globalisation, the abolishment of apartheid, aids and computers. These individuals value flexibility, a balanced lifestyle, and the achievement of job satisfaction; furthermore, family and

relationships are very important to this cohort. In addition, money seems to be important as an indicator of career performance; however, they are willing to trade off salary increases, security, titles and promotions for increased leisure time and expanded lifestyle options (Robbins, 1998). In addition to age, tenure within an organization may also affect leadership style.

3.6.3   Tenure and leadership style

Managers with long tenure are more likely to have undergone common organizational experiences and are more likely to have developed certain schemata or dominant logic (Prahalad & Bettis, 1986). Schemata are cognitive structures used to organize knowledge of past experiences and are called upon when people make sense of new stimuli. Schemata develop as a result of long organizational service as managers base their beliefs and attributes on past experiences. These beliefs and attributes in turn, influence the leadership style of leaders.

Katz (1982), points out those managers with growing organizational experience, tend to rely increasingly on their past experience and routine information sources rather than on new information. Similarly, research by Scrull and Wyer (1980) argue that when an individual is provided with exposure to a given stimuli, a situation of over-learning occurs, which leads to a clearly defined schema, and as a result only information consistent with the schema will be attended to. Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990) found that managers with long organizational service have a knowledge base that restricts them from responding to environmental changes, thus, such managers are classified as traditional (transactional) leaders.

Furthermore, research by Michel and Hambrick (1992), found that managers with long service to the organization is associated with a reluctance to change

the status quo. According to Pfeffer (1983), tenure in an organization reflects a self-selection process by which only those who embrace certain norms and perspectives are allowed to stay in an organization. Katz (1982) is of the opinion that long organizational service results in decreasing levels of verbal communication because subordinates and managers feel they can anticipate other members' viewpoints, thus the manager is characterized to have a passive style of leadership. A passive style of leadership is often associated with a transactional style of leading. In addition, Katz (1982) purports that long tenure in an organization can lead to increasing isolation from outside sources of information, as members become less receptive towards communications that threaten their patterns of behaviour.

3.6.4   Cultural diversity and leadership style

One of the most important challenges currently facing organizations is adapting to people who are different. The term used for describing this is workforce diversity. According to Booysen (2001), cross cultural leadership studies indicate that cultural differences influence individual expectation and assumptions about management, furthermore, management philosophies typically evolve in harmony with the cultures within which they function. "South Africa is a complex amalgam of several cultures and subcultures, the dominant management practices are, for historical reasons, Western" (Booysen, 2001, p. 32). Africa's tragedy is that we have a cultural case of arrested and retarded development; furthermore, there is no attempt to capture our current collective cultural experience (Mbigi, 2000).

The face of South African leadership is becoming more diverse and inclusive of all race groups, which poses a challenge to the dominant management values and practices (Booysen, 2001). According to Booysen (2001), most of the dominant values and practices in South Africa are still western. The Asian

genius in management lies in perfecting existing technologies, products and processes. The European genius in management lies in technical innovation and planning and the African genius in management lies in people management (Mbigi, 2000). Grobler (1996) is of the opinion that although South Africa shows potential in some areas, it is held back by major deficiencies in the management and people categories.

According to Mbigi (2000), Africa needs to enter the global market, not by imitating the west or the east, but in its own very innovative way, inspired by its own cultural heritage. Africa must reach into its past in order to understand its current challenges in a most fundamental way and for it to venture into the unknown future. The starting point is to examine the different cultural and philosophical values that affect leadership.

Everybody has a value system that shapes his/her world-view. This value system is based on a system of beliefs and human experiences within a framework of background education, environmental interaction, upbringing and culture (Christie, Lessem & Mbigi, 1993). In addition, language also affects our world-view and determines the way we respond to certain stimuli, thus theories of left and right brain dominance have evolved as a result of different value systems. According to Christie et al. (1993), white managers are more left-brain dominant and black managers more right brain dominant; hence, different value systems will emerge. Where white managers' value self-esteem, self-confidence and self-actualisation (balance of person), black managers' value vision, faith, the protection of pride and dignity and being at one with others. White managers are more self-reliant and individualistic, while black managers are more emotive and collectivistic (Christie et al., 1993). Findings pertaining to differences between black and white managers on cultural dimensions, formulated by Hofstede (1997), reported the following:

- Finding one: South African black managers are more collectivistic than their white counterparts who are more individualistic.

Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself/herself and his/her immediate family. Collectivism, as it's opposite, pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive groups, which throughout people's lives, continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1997).

Moreover, the essence of the individualism/collectivism cultural dimension is independent versus interdependent behaviours, being a loner or team player: pursuing individual goals, freedom and self-interest versus conformity and concern for collective rather than individual interests. In individualistic cultures as in the white cultures, the management of the individual is more important than the group. "For individualistic cultures support might be valued when needed, but unwelcome when not needed or perceived not to be needed" (Booysen, 2001, p. 33). Achievement incentives should be given to individuals.

Due to cultural differences, there appear to be differences in the perception of the leaders' leadership style and that of the followers' perception. Cultural groups vary in their conception of the most important characteristics of effective leadership. Different leadership prototypes would be expected to occur naturally in societies that have differing cultural profiles (Bass, 1990). According to Triandis (1993), leaders growing up in individualistic cultures will perceive their style of leadership to be transactional. Leaders in individualistic cultures are expected to be more motivated to satisfy their own self-interest and personal goals. In such cultures individuals take care of themselves, and tend to place priority on individual initiative and

achievement as well as on personal rewards based on satisfying transactional agreements (Hofstede, 1993).

Collectivistic cultures, such as black managers' encouragement of conformity, consensus decision-making, co-operation, collaboration and interdependence of activities are the order of the day. Group and social harmony are emphasised as opposed to individual rights. In collective cultures leadership should respect and encourage employee group loyalties, incentives should be given collectively and their distribution should be left to the discretion of the group. Successful leaders are expected to be supportive, for example, maintaining the harmony of the group, solving workers problems and generally being helpful and considerate. It is the management of the group that is most important (Booysen, 2001).

Within collectivist cultures the self is defined in association with groups. The leaders' perception of leadership style within collectivist cultures is perceived as transformational (Triandis, 1995). Leaders in groups that have a collectivistic orientation are likely to be perceived as transformational leaders because they embody the group's dominant values of group good over individual self-interest. This is because transformational leadership is associated with the articulation of a vision and the need for sacrifice of individual over collective interests in the attainment of that vision (Peterson & Sorenson, 1991).

- Finding two: White managers show a higher future orientation than black managers.

The future versus present orientation cultural dimension is reflected in the degree to which cultures encourage and reward future oriented behaviours such as planning, preparing for future events, investing in the future and the

delay of gratification. On the other hand, a present orientation encourages spontaneity, living for the moment, immediate action and gratification and does not place much emphasis on planning. At the organizational level, future orientation manifests in long term forecasting and planning, investment in research as well as goal setting. In addition, white managers have a more linear perception of time, whereas black managers have a more cyclical perception of time. A cyclical concept of time is more events related where as a linear concept of time is more continuums related. Because of the event relatedness of a cyclical concept of time, black managers tend to have a more immediate orientation and not necessarily focus on planning or making preparations for events to happen in the future (Booysen, 2001).

- Finding three: White managers show a higher intolerance for uncertainty than black managers.

According to Hofstede (1997) uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or by unknown situations. This feeling is expressed in a need for predictability; a need for written and unwritten rules.

Added to this, uncertainty avoidance is the degree to which society reduces uncertainty by the use of social interventions rather than tolerating and coping with uncertainty. Uncertainty avoidance can also be seen as the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. Cultures low on uncertainty avoidance accept uncertainty; these cultures do not find it upsetting and therefore take risks easily. Cultures high on uncertainty avoidance favour structured organizations and rules and regulations that promote security and create a less ambiguous environment. Cultures high on uncertainty avoidance are characterized by higher levels of stress and anxiety (Booysen, 2001).

- Finding four: Black managers have a higher humane orientation than white managers.

The humane/inhumane orientation cultural dimension reflects the degree to which society encourages individuals to be fair, altruistic, generous, gentle and kind to others. Humane orientation is related to practices such as the establishment and enforcement of human rights, norms and laws. At the organizational level, humane orientation is reflected in fairness, healthy working conditions respect for employees and concern for people. Inhumane orientation is reflected in the exploitative and punitive treatment of employees and the neglect of employee welfare. Employees are viewed as instruments or workers rather than people. With respect to this dimension, white managers are less accommodating than black managers, white managers are more task focussed than people oriented, black managers divide/share responsibility in order to protect the non-performer.

According to Avolio (1995), individualistic cultures are characterized by transactional leadership, where the leader enters into an exchange with followers. The leader rewards followers for attaining specified performance levels; furthermore, reward is contingent on performance level achieved (Bass, 1997). The aforementioned is typical of the white manager. According to Booysen (2001), white managers are more autocratic than black managers and focus on incentives and recognition for followers who act according to their autocratic wishes.

Similarly, African black managers share the principles of collective solidarity and not the principles of individual self-sufficiency, these managers have a more communal way of doing things (Booysen, 2001). According to Avolio (1995), African humanism and ubuntu are much more closely tied to transformational

leadership. Transformational leaders work to create a climate and culture where each individual and the group can achieve their full potential. Transformational leaders, furthermore, encourage individual development and teamwork. According to Booysen (2001, p. 35), "blacks focus on people instead of skills". Black manages are in favour of an afrocentric management system which emphasis collective solidarity, inclusivity, collaboration, consensus and group significance, concern for people as well as working for the common good, structure through rituals and ceremonies, patriarchy, respect and dignity (Booysen, 2001).

It is apparent in terms of cultural dimensions that there are indeed significant differences in leadership approaches. According to Booysen (2002), two different leadership approaches in the country represent one of the dilemmas South African managers face. On the one hand, the eurocentric or western approach has proven value in improving organizational and work performance in South Africa. On the other hand, the afrocentric management approach argue that, for managers to be relevant in South Africa, they should accept concepts embodied in black philosophy. "Managers should not attempt to choose between eurocentric and afrocentric management approaches in South Africa. Instead, business need to marry these two sets of values …" (Booysen, 2002, p. 21).

This chapter concludes with an integration of leadership and perception.

3.7   Leadership and Perception

A discussion on leadership and perception follows.

3.7.1 Introduction

In recent years there has been growing criticism of the leader-centric perspective. Leadership is very much in the eyes of the followers as Meindl (1995, p. 131) claims, "Followers, not the leader, and not researchers define it." According to Bass (1990), the follower-centric approach places emphasis on the image of leaders constructed by followers.

Leadership exists in all societies and is essential to the functioning of organizations within society (Wren, 1995). Individuals have their own ideas about the nature of leaders and leadership; thus, they develop idiosyncratic theories of leadership style. Followers make use of cognitive frameworks or categorization systems that they use during information processing to encode, process and recall specific events and behaviour (Shaw, 1990). "While leadership perceptions may not be reality, they are used by perceivers to evaluate and subsequently distinguish leaders from non-leaders or effective from ineffective leaders" (Lord & Maher, 1991, p. 98). Categorization is the cognitive process that is thought to be an immediate antecedent to leadership perception (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987). Perceiving someone as a leader, involves a simple categorization of the stimulus person into pre-existing hierarchically organized categories. These categorical judgements are made on the basis of similarity between the stimulus and the category prototype that is an abstract representation of the most representative features of category members (Foti, Fraser & Lord, 1982).

Foti and Luch (1992) are of the opinion leadership perceptions are based on cognitive categorization processes in which perceivers match the perceived attributes of potential leaders they observe to an internal prototype of leadership categories. A prototype may be conceived as a collection of characteristic traits or attributes. According to Offermann, Kennedy and Wirtz (1994), the better

the fit between the perceived individual and the leadership prototype, the more likely the person will be seen as a leader. Prototypes guide perception by helping perceivers map stimuli into one of several contrasting categories, and provide a convenient way to summarize the most common category attributes (Lord, Foti & De Vader, 1984). The way in which leadership style is perceived is strongly influenced by the cultural background of the perceiver.

Furthermore, Lord et al., (1984) describe how categorization can operate to determine leadership perceptions. Certain salient features of the leader initiate a limited search for the category prototype that matches those features. If a match to a leadership prototype is made, a leader label is applied to the stimulus person and is then stored in long-term memory. The perceiver then uses this leader label to access the corresponding leader prototype when asked to make judgements about the stimulus person. Thus, categorization reduces memory demands.

3.7.2 Leadership perception across cultures

According to Hofstede (1993), one of the most salient sources that explain differences in leadership perception is culture. Culture determines people's heroes, preferred activities, gestures as well as objects with particular emotional meaning (Popper & Druyan, 2001). Furthermore, Gerstner and Day (1994) investigated that perceptions of leadership changed significantly among the representatives of the various cultures. In addition, Lord and Maher (1991) argue that culture plays a strong role in leadership prototypes. Moreover, research by Popper and Druyan (2001), indicate that significant variances in leadership perception lies in the content of pre-existing leadership prototypes, in which culture plays a significant role. The most characteristic traits of a leader in one culture may be very different from those in another culture. In addition,

the leader cultural prototype stored in the mind may also differ among people of different cultures (Popper & Druyan, 2001).

As part of the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) research program, 62 cultures were examined to determine whether attributes associated with transformational leadership were universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership. Therefore, research by Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla and Dorfman (1999), indicated that attributes reflecting transformational leadership, such as, motive arouser, foresight, communicative trustworthy, positive, dynamic, confidence builder, motivational and encouraging are universally endorsed. The results support the hypothesis, which suggest that specific aspects of transformational leadership are universally endorsed across cultures. Conversely, attributes that were viewed as ineffective to outstanding leadership include being a loner, being non-cooperative, ruthless, non-explicit, irritable and dictatorial.

According to Hunt, Boal and Sorenson (1990), the attributes that are seen as characteristic for leaders may strongly vary in different cultures. In strong or uniform cultures prototypes will be widely shared, on the other hand, within a weak culture prototypes/perceptions of what leadership style is may have a wider variance among individuals (Hunt et al., 1990). The boundary between the perceptions of an effective leadership style and an ineffective leadership style may be difficult to draw. In cultures where the boundary is not clear-cut, individuals will use abstract categorizations of what they perceive effective and ineffective leadership to be. These cognitive categorizations will then be learned and transmitted through culture (Shaw, 1990).

3.8   Conclusion

The first section of this chapter dealt with the nature of leadership style and theory, followed by a description of the various theories of leadership and the shortcomings of each theory.   The second section was a discussion of management levels as well as biographical variables and leadership style.   This was done to attain the aim of the study.   The chapter concluded with an integration of leadership and perception.

In the next chapter, the research methods applied are outlined as well as the measuring instrument that will be used to attain the aim of the study.   A presentation of the empirical study and a report of major findings will follow.

Chapter 4
Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the hypotheses formulated, research sample, and data gathering instrument will be presented.

4.2 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated for the purposes of the study.

H_0 = (Nulll Hypothesis): There are no statistically significant differences in leadership style scores between lower and senior level management within a mining company in the Northern Cape.

H_1 = (Alternative Hypothesis): There are statistically significant differences in leadership style scores between lower and senior level management within a mining company in the Northern Cape.

H_0 = (Nulll Hypothesis): There are no statistically significant differences between the perceptions of leaders and followers with regard to scores achieved on leaders' leadership styles.

H_2 = (Alternative Hypothesis): There are statistically significant differences between the perceptions of leaders and followers with regard to scores achieved on leaders' leadership styles.

H₀ = (Nulll Hypothesis): There are no statistically significant differences in scores achieved on leadership style based on biographical variables such as age, tenure and cultural groupings based on home language of the leaders in a mining company in the Northern Cape.

H₃ = (Alternative Hypothesis): There are statistically significant differences in scores achieved on leadership style based on biographical variables such as age, tenure and cultural groupings based on home language of leaders in a mining company in the Northern Cape.

4.3   Research Sample

Non-probability sampling was used for the purpose of this study. Convenience sampling was utilized as a method to select the sample. The aforementioned sampling design makes it difficult to generalize the research findings.

From a population of two hundred and twenty-five managers (225) only ninety-eight (98) was made available for the study. According to Sekaren (1992) a population of two hundred and twenty-five (225) must consist of a sample of one hundred and forty (140). Thus the sample used in this study is not representative of the entire population and therefore the results may not be generalized to the entire population.

For the purpose of this study, middle and senior level management was incorporated in order to comprise the senior level management, since there were only a few managers at senior level management. As indicated by the Patterson band, CU was regarded as lower level management while DL, DU, EL and EU was regarded as senior level management.

To determine differences in perception with regard to leadership style between managers and subordinates, the managers who had at least three subordinates reporting to them, were selected from the ninety-eight (98) managers who were made available for this study. Only thirty-one (31) managers had at least three subordinates reporting to them. Three (3) subordinates per manager were selected conveniently to take part in the study. Thus, ninety-three (93) subordinates participated in the study.

4.4 Data gathering instrument

The following information regarding the nature and composition, the reliability and validity as well as the rationale for inclusion concerning the data gathering instrument will be discussed.

4.4.1 Nature and composition

As an appropriate data gathering instrument for measuring transformational and transactional leadership styles, the multi-factor leadership questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) were used.

During the last 15 years there is considerable interest in the testing of a new paradigm of transformational and transactional leadership. Although attention has shifted in leadership literature to charisma and inspirational leadership, the need remains to include the "full range" of leadership styles in models and measures. The most commonly employed measure of transformational and transactional leadership is the multi-factor leadership questionnaire in its most recent experimental version (Form 5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Much revision in the MLQ has occurred since 1985. Since Bass proposed the original 6-factor model, additional factors have been uncovered through research using revised versions of the MLQ. One of these factors provides for attributions with regard to the leaders transformational style, and is based on

distinguishing between charismatic behaviours and attributions. Management-by-exception is divided into management-by-exception-active (MBEA) and management-by-exception-passive (MBEP). Thus, nine factor scores have been obtained for MLQ form 5X. Six had been previously used in MLQ form 5R and three were newly created. Refinements to these leadership factors attempt to define more precisely the constructs associated with a full range of leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

"The multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ, form 5R), which has been used over the last 10 years to measure transformational, transactional and non-transactional/laissez-faire leadership has been critized for its discriminant validity among the factors comprising the survey, for including behavioural and impact items in the same survey scales and because the factor structure initially proposed by Bass (1985) has not always been replicated in subsequent empirical research" (Bass & Avolio, 1995, p. 6). The latest version of the MLQ form 5X, has been primarily developed to address criticisms of the MLQ 5R survey.

A recent South African study by Ackermann, Schepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2000) determined whether the factor structure of Bass' multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), as a measure of transformational leadership, could be replicated in the South African context. The MLQ was administered to 406 subjects and was subjected to factor analysis and item analysis. In a first factor analysis, the items were inter-correlated, factored and was rotated to simple structure, using a varimax rotation. In a second factor analysis, simplified factor scores, which resulted from the first analysis, were inter-correlated, factored and rotated to simple structure using a direct oblimin rotation. Three factors were obtained. According to Ackermann et al., (2000, p. 58), "… the first factor loaded on 45 items that refer to transformational leadership and explained 25,96% of the variance. The second factor loaded on 15 items that refer to liassez-faire leadership and explained 16,96% of the variance. The third factor loaded on 10 items that refer to transactional leadership and explain 8,44% of

the variance". The factor structure as conceptualised by Bass (1985) was confirmed in this South African study.

The multi-factor leadership questionnaire form 5x (MLQ), measures seven leadership factors as types of interactions between leaders and followers. These include charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire. In addition, the MLQ also measures outcome variables which include extra-effort, leader effectiveness and leader satisfaction. The extra-effort scale reflects the extent to which leaders exert effort beyond the ordinary. The effectiveness scale reflects a leader's effectiveness. Leader satisfaction reflects how satisfied leaders are with their leadership style in general. Transformational leadership was defined, operationally as the composite mean of the charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration leadership factor means. Transactional leadership was defined operationally as the composite mean of the contingent reward and management by exception factor means. The questionnaire consists of two forms: the self rating form, in which the leader rates him or her as a leader, as well as the rater form in which followers rate the leader.

4.4.2 Validity

Factor analytic findings for items representative of each factor ranged from 0,57 to 0,77 (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to test the convergent and discriminant validities of each MLQ 5X scale.

4.4.3 Reliability

Reliabilities for the total items and for each leadership factor scale ranged from 0,74 to 0,94 (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The reliability of questionnaire items for the constructs was assessed by:

- Examining the factor loadings of indicators on latent variables.

- Computing a variable's composite scale reliability, which is a measure of reliability similar to Cronbach's alpha.

- Examining the average variance extracted by the construct variables from indicators.

4.4.4 Rationale for inclusion

There are several implications for using the multi-factor leadership questionnaire. Firstly, by measuring a broader range of leadership factors there is an increased chance of tapping into the full range of leadership styles that can and are exhibited across different cultures and settings. Secondly, if the full range of leadership factors holds up in cross-validation a more effective and comprehensive means for both leadership assessment and development will be developed. Thirdly, all the factors that are included in the full range model have been discussed in leadership literature over the last forty years.

Furthermore, the MLQ has been used in leadership research in a variety of settings, including: business, industrial, service, manufacturing, high technology, military, government and church (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

4.5 Statistical techniques

To determine whether there are statistically significant differences in leadership style between lower and senior level management, an Analysis of Variance (Anova) was utilized. To determine whether there are statistically significant differences in the perception of the leaders' leadership style and that of the followers' perception, the nature and significance of these differences were determined by means of Hotelling's T^2 test for dependent groups. The formula is as follows:

$$td \quad = \quad \sqrt{\frac{\dfrac{\Sigma d}{N \, \Sigma d^2 - (\Sigma d)^2}}{N - 1}}$$

d is the score difference and *N* is the number of pairs.

To determine whether there are statistically significant differences in leadership style based on biographical variables, an Analysis of Variance (Anova) was used as an appropriate statistical technique. One way Analysis of Variance (Scheffé) was used to determine differences between certain groups.

Chapter 5

Results and discussion of the results

5.1   Introduction

In this chapter the results obtained will be discussed.   These results are illustrated by means of graphs and tables.   An explanation of the graphs and tables, together with the most important research findings will follow.   The results of the study will be compared with previous research.   Finally, the conclusions drawn from the study, the limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research are highlighted.

The data collected in respect of the characteristics of the sample are represented graphically.

5.2   Biographical characteristics of managers

The biographical characteristics of the sample are discussed in the following section.

5.2.1   Distribution of the respondents regarding gender

The distribution of the respondents regarding their gender is reflected in figure 5.1 below.
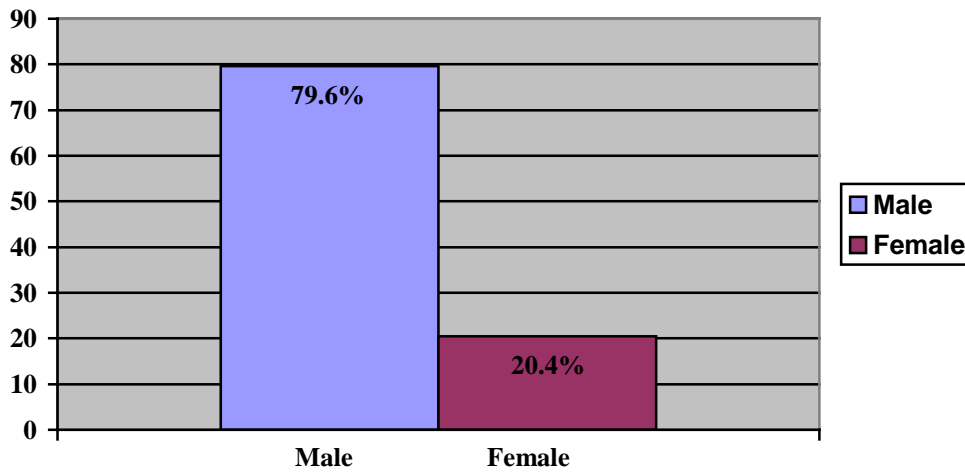
Figure 5.1. Distribution of the respondents with regard to gender

As illustrated in figure 5.1, 80% of the managers were male while 20% of the managers were female (N = 98).

5.2.1.1 Distribution of the respondents regarding gender and levels of management

The distribution of the respondents regarding their gender and levels of management is illustrated in figure 5.2 below.
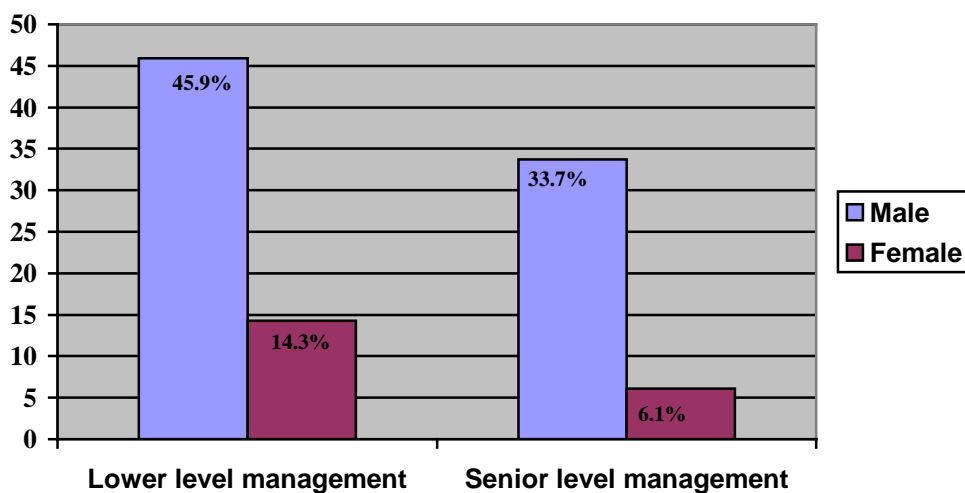
Figure 5.2. Distribution of respondents with regard to gender and levels of management

It is apparent from figure 5.2 that 45.9% of males comes from lower level management and 33.7% males comes from senior level management; while 14.3% females comes from lower level management and 6.1% comes from senior level management.

5.2.2 Distribution of the respondents regarding language

The differences in language are illustrated in figure 5.3.
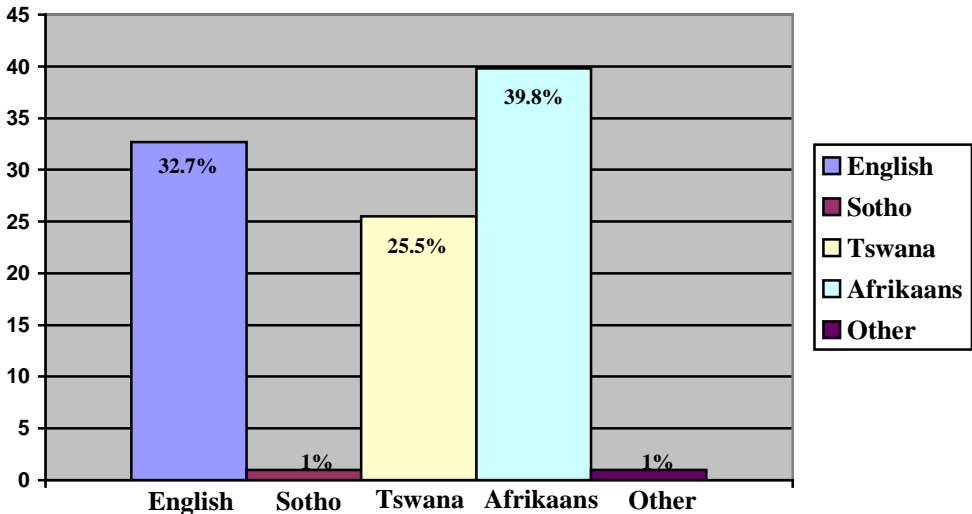
Figure 5.3. Distribution of the respondents with regard to language

It is evident from figure 5.2 that 39.8% of the managers were Afrikaans-speaking while 1% of managers were Sotho-speaking and 1% spoke other languages (N = 98).

5.2.2.1 Distribution of the respondents with regard to language and levels of management
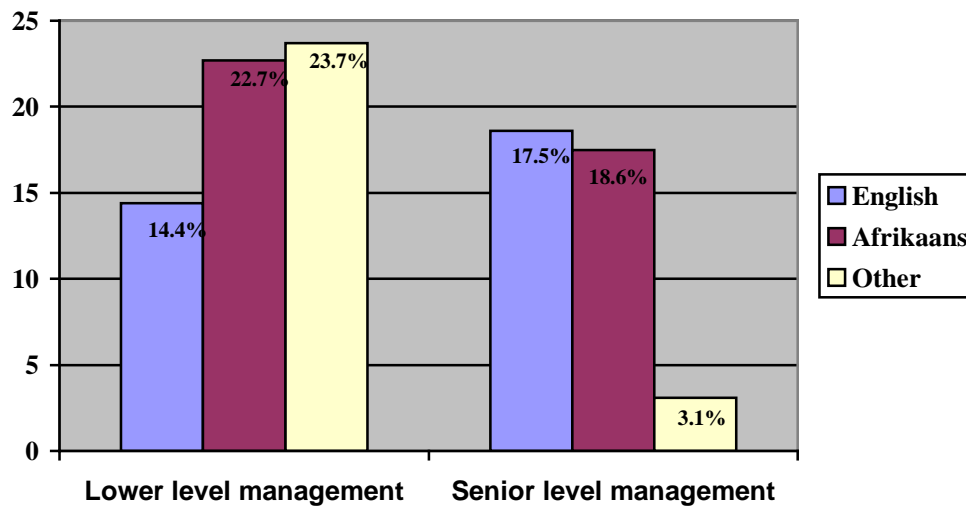
Figure 5.4. Distribution of the respondents with regard to language and levels of management

It is evident from figure 5.4 that 23.7% of those who speak other languages are from lower level management, while 3.1% are from senior level management. Afrikaans-speaking managers consisted of 22.7% from lower level management and 17.5% from senior level management. English-speaking managers consisted of 14.4% from lower level management and 18.6% from senior level management.

5.2.3 Distribution of the respondents regarding age

The age of the managers were also captured. This is illustrated in figure 5.5 below.
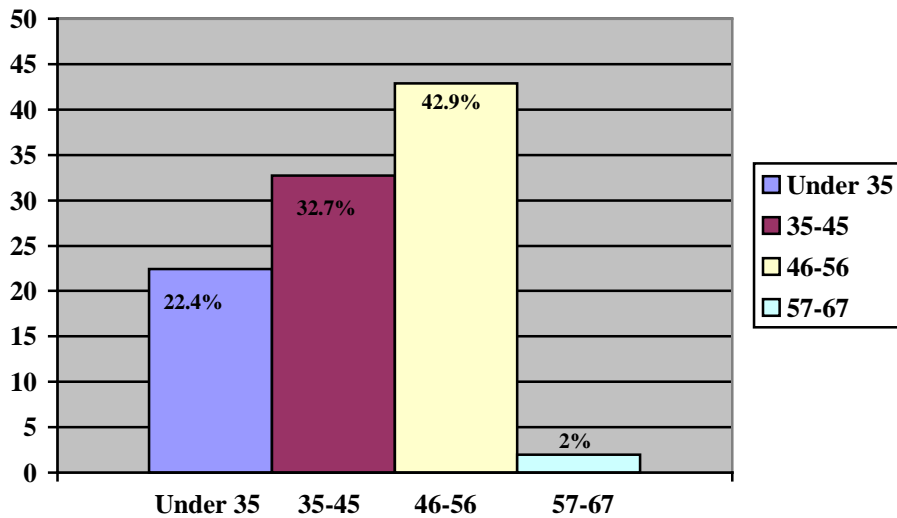
Figure 5.5. Distribution of respondents with regard to age

According to figure 5.3, 42.9% of managers were between the ages of 46-56 years, while 2% of managers were between the ages of 57-67 years (N = 98).

5.2.3.1   Distribution of the respondents with regard to age and levels of management.
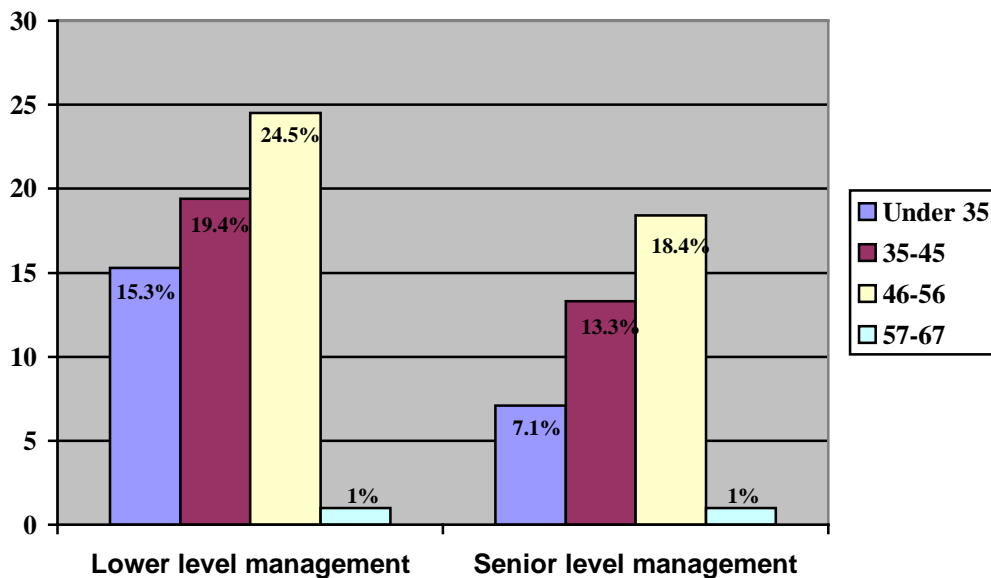
Figure 5.6. Distribution of respondents with regard to age and levels of management

Figure 5.6 shows that 15.3% of managers under the age of 35 years are from lower level management while 7.1% are from senior level management. Managers between the ages of 35-45 years consisted of 19.4% from lower level management and 13.3% from senior level management. Managers between the ages of 46-56 years consisted of 24.5% from lower level management and 18.4% from senior level management. Managers between the ages of 57-67 years consisted of 1% from lower level management and 1% from senior level management.

5.2.4 Distribution of the respondents regarding qualifications

The qualifications of the managers are illustrated in figure 5.7 below.
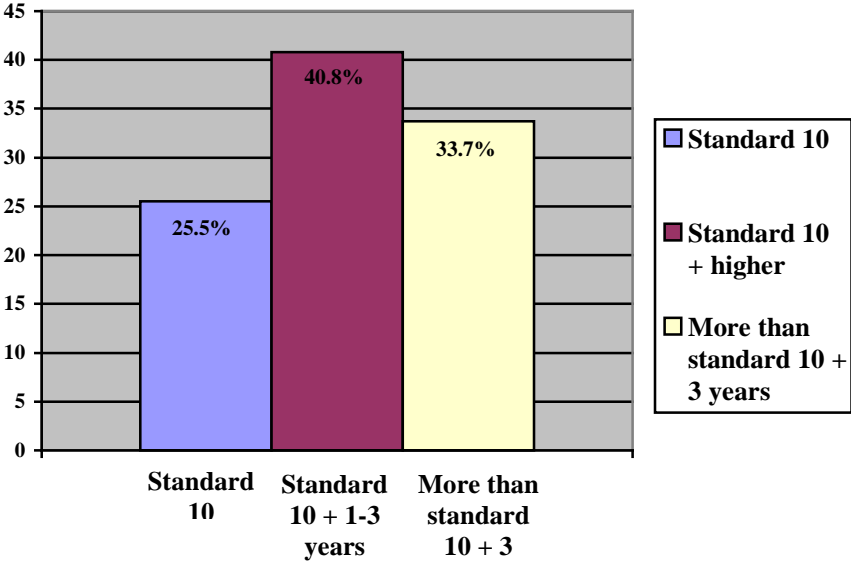
Figure 5.7. Distribution of respondents with regard to qualifications

In terms of figure 5.7, 40.8% of the managers had Standard 10 + higher while 33.7% of the managers have Standard 10 (N = 98).

5.2.4.1   Distribution of respondents with regard to qualifications and levels of management.

The distribution regarding qualifications and levels of management are indicated in figure 5.8.
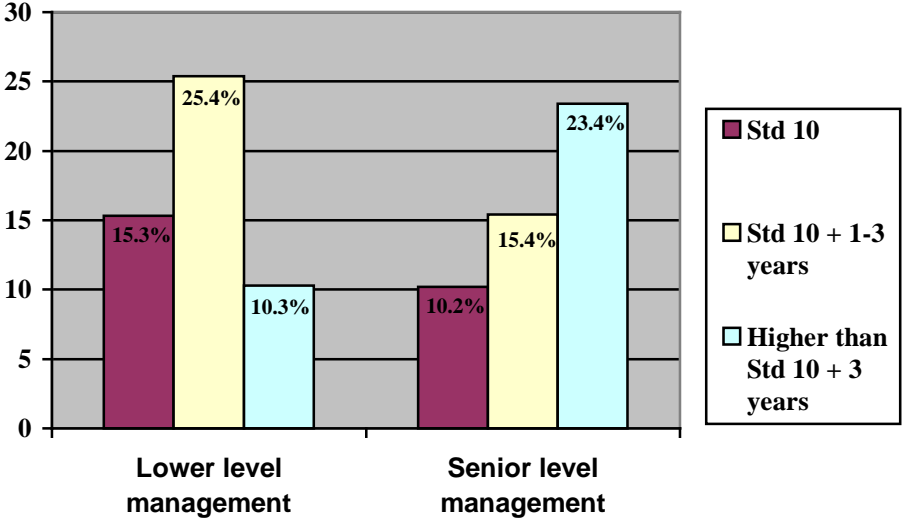
Figure 5.8. Distribution of respondents with regard to Qualifications and levels of management

Figure 5.8 indicates that 15.3% of managers with Standard 10 are from lower level management while 10.2% are from senior level management. Managers with Standard + 1-3 years consisted of 25.4% from lower level manager and 15.4% from senior level management. Managers with higher than Standard 10 + 3 years consisted of 10.3% from lower level management and 23.4% from senior level management.

5.2.5 Distribution of the respondents regarding tenure

The tenure of the managers is illustrated in figure 5.9 below.
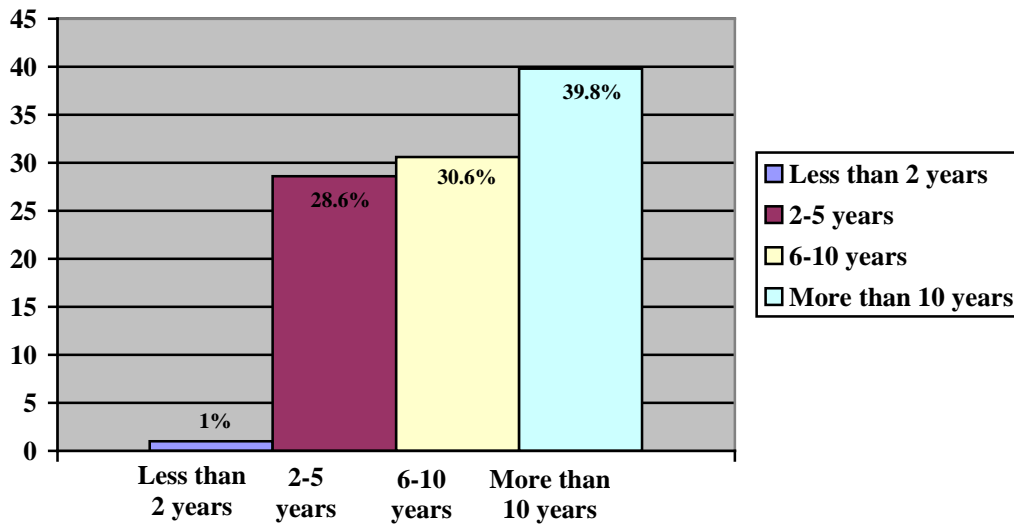
Figure 5.9. Distribution of respondents with regard to tenure

As illustrated in figure 5.9, 39.8% of the managers were employed for more than 10 years, while 1% of managers were employed for less than 2 years (N= 98).

5.2.5.1   Distribution of respondents with regard to tenure and levels of management.
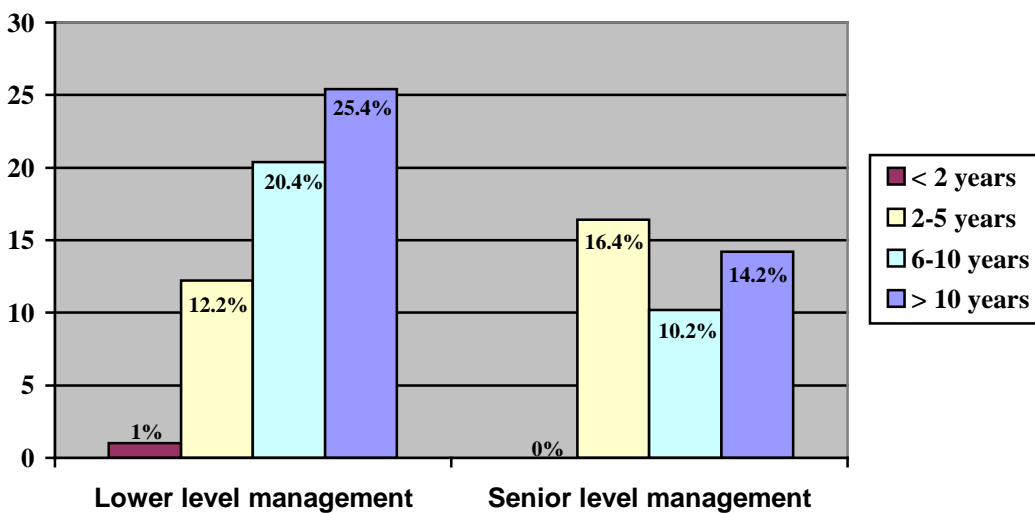
Figure 5.10. Distribution of respondents with regard to tenure and levels of management

According to figure 5.10, 1% of managers with less than 2 years tenure are from lower level management while 0% is from senior level management. Managers between 2-5 years tenure consisted of 12.2% from lower level management and 16.4% from senior level management. Managers employed from 6-10 years constitute 20.4% from lower level management and 10.2% from senior level management. Managers with more than 10 years tenure consisted of 25.4% from lower level management and 14.2% senior level management.

5.2.6 Distribution of respondents with regard to levels of management

The different levels of management are illustrated in figure 5.10
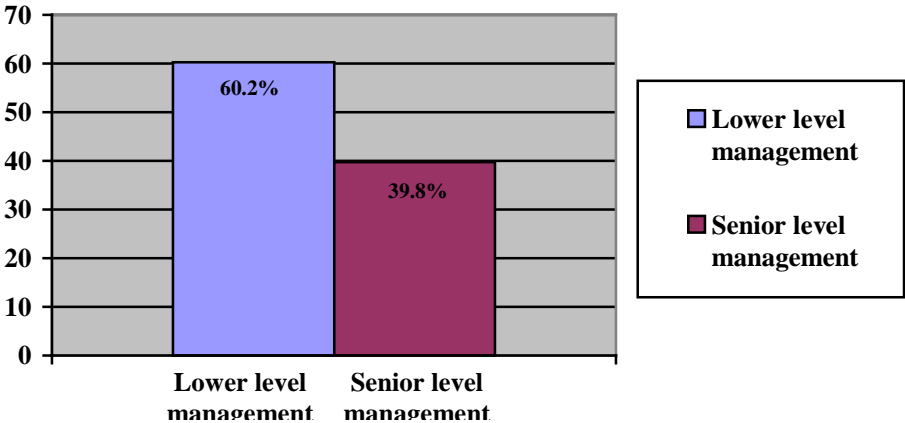
Figure 5.11   Distribution of respondents with regard to levels of management

Figure 5.11 indicates that 60.2% of the managers are from lower level management while 39.8% of managers were from senior level management (N=98).

5.3   Differences in leadership styles between lower and senior level management based on the perceptions of managers

Table 5.1 illustrates the differences in leadership style between lower and senior level management based on the perceptions of managers.

Table 5.1. Differences in leadership style between lower and senior level management based on the perceptions of managers (N=98)

Management levels	N	$\overline{\text{X}}$	S	DF	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob
Idealized Influence (Attributed)								
Lower level management	57	2.56	0.62					
Senior level management	38	2.79	0.74					
Between groups				1	1.20	1.20	2.61	0.10
Within groups				93	42.92	0.46		
Total	95			94	44.13			
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)								
Lower level management	57	2.55	0.69					
Senior level management	38	2.96	0.57					
Between groups				1	3.71	3.71	8.86	**0.00****
Within groups				93	38.94	0.41		
Total	95			94	42.65			
Inspirational motivation								
Lower level management	57	2.53	0.75					
Senior level management	38	3.02	0.51					
Between groups				1	5.40	5.40	12.16	**0.00****
Within groups				93	41.32	0.44		
Total	95			94	46.72			
Intellectual stimulation								
Lower level management	57	2.41	0.67					
Senior level management	38	2.94	0.45					
Between groups				1	6.26	6.26	17.53	**0.00****
Within groups				93	33.22	0.35		
Total	95			94	39.48			
Individual consideration								
Lower level management	57	2.64	0.80					
Senior level management	38	3.07	0.44					
Between groups				1	4.38	4.38	9.45	**0.00****
Within groups				93	43.14	0.46		
Total	95			94	47.52			
Contingent reward								
Lower level management	57	2.60	0.59					
Senior level management	38	2.73	0.59					
Between groups				1	0.33	0.33	0.93	0.33
Within groups				93	33.04	0.35		
Total	95			94	33.38			
Management-by-exception (Active)								
Lower level management	56	2.52	0.71					
Senior level management	36	2.61	3.16					
Between groups				1	0.15	0.15	0.03	0.84

	N	Mean	SD	df	SS	MS	F	p
Within groups				90	379.51	4.21		
Total	92			91	379.67			
Management-by-exception (Passive)								
Lower level management	55	2.05	0.88					
Senior level management	37	1.46	0.90					
Between groups				1	7.65	7.65	9.57	**0.00****
Within groups				90	71.98	0.79		
Total	92			91	79.63			
Laissez-faire								
Lower level management	48	1.13	0.61					
Senior level management	30	0.99	0.70					
Between groups				1	0.35	0.35	0.83	0.36
Within groups				76	32.30	0.42		
Total	78			77	32.66			
Extra effort								
Lower level management	56	2.90	0.71					
Senior level management	37	3.01	0.51					
Between groups				1	0.27	0.27	0.66	0.41
Within groups				91	38.05	0.41		
Total	93			92	38.33			
Effectiveness								
Lower level management	57	2.94	0.62					
Senior level management	37	3.12	0.55					
Between groups				1	0.74	0.74	2.07	0.15
Within groups				92	33.15	0.36		
Total	94			93	33.90			
Satisfaction								
Lower level management	56	2.71	0.83					
Senior level management	37	3.68	6.91					
Between groups				1	20.86	20.86	1.08	0.30
Within groups				91	1757.89	19.31		
Total	93			92	1778.75			

* $p<0.05$ ** $p<0.01$

According to table 5.1 there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,01$) between lower level management and senior level management in terms of idealized influence.   It is evident that senior level management is more inclined ($\overline{X} = 2.96$) to display behaviour that is characterized by idealized influence compared to lower level management ($\overline{X} = 2.55$). This implies that senior level management provides more vision and increases optimism among subordinates.

On the other hand, lower level management are not so concerned about providing a vision or increasing optimism among subordinates. Lower level management is more concerned about planning and organizing.

There is also a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between lower level management and senior level management with regard to inspirational motivation. Senior level management is more characterized ($\overline{X}$ = 3.02) by inspirational motivation than lower level management ($\overline{X}$ = 2.53). This implies that senior level management concerns itself with the capacity to act as a model for subordinates. Lower level management is less concerned with acting as a model but more concerned with daily operations.

As table 5.1 indicates, there is a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between lower level management and senior level management with regard to intellectual stimulation. It becomes apparent that senior level management is more inclined ($\overline{X}$ = 2.94) to display leader behaviour that is characterized by inspirational motivation compared to lower level management ($\overline{X}$ = 2.41). Senior level management provides subordinates with challenging new ideas and stimulate rethinking of old ways of doing things. Lower level management is more concerned with implementing the plans and objectives of middle management.

Table 5.1 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between lower level management and senior level management in terms of individual consideration. Senior level management displays more individual consideration ($\overline{X}$ = 3.07) than lower level management ($\overline{X}$ = 2.64). Senior management is involved in coaching and mentoring and links the individual's current needs to the organization's mission. On the other hand, lower level management concerns itself more with client orientation and provides less individual consideration for subordinates.

There is also a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between lower level management and senior level management in terms of management-by-exception (passive). The results suggest that lower level management is more inclined ($\overline{X}$ = 2.05) to display behaviour that is characterized by management-by-exception than senior level management ($\overline{X}$ = 1.46). This implies that lower level management intervenes after mistakes are made in order to correct them and move performance back to previously specified levels.

On the basis of the results, it becomes evident that the nulll hypothesis is rejected.

5.4 Differences in perceptions between leaders' and subordinates' regarding the leadership style of the leaders

Table 5.2 indicates the nature of the differences in perception between leaders and subordinates regarding the leaders' leadership style.

Table 5.2. Differences in perception between leaders' and subordinates' regarding the leadership style of the leaders

Dimensions of leadership	Leaders N=31		Sub-ordinates N=93		T^2- value	p- value
	$\overline{X}$	S	$\overline{X}$	S		
Idealized influence (attributed)	2.62	0.62	2.50	0.58	0.66	0.51
Idealized influence (behaviour)	2.66	0.67	2.56	0.47	0.67	0.50
Inspirational motivation	2.80	0.69	2.82	1.73	-0.06	0.95
Intellectual stimulation	2.66	0.66	2.64	1.73	0.04	0.97
Individual consideration	2.69	0.67	2.56	0.58	0.69	0.49
Contingent reward	2.70	0.58	2.45	0.47	1.96	0.59
Management-by-exception (active)	2.30	0.88	2.33	0.50	-0.16	0.87
Management-by-exception (passive)	1.91	1.01	1.91	0.55	0.03	0.97
Laissez-faire	1.12	0.65	1.63	0.53	-3.80	0.00**
Extra effort	3.12	0.63	2.73	0.35	2.77	0.01**
Effectiveness	3.16	0.51	2.88	0.34	2.67	0.01**
Satisfaction	2.71	0.81	3.21	2.04	-1.22	0.31

*   p<0.05   **   p<0.01

From table 5.2 it is apparent that there is a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between leaders' and subordinates' perceptions of the leaders' leadership style. It is apparent that the subordinates perceive their leaders to be more laissez-faire ($\overline{X}$ = 1.63) than the leaders ($\overline{X}$ = 1.12). Subordinates perceived their leaders were not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties. A laissez-faire leader provides subordinates with complete freedom.

According to table 5.2, there is a statistically difference (p<0,01) with regard to the extra effort dimension of leadership. The nature of the results suggests that the leaders perceive themselves to exert more extra effort ($\overline{X}$ = 3.12) than subordinates ($\overline{X}$ = 2.73). Subordinates are of the opinion that leaders do not exert effort beyond the ordinary. Leaders are of the opinion that they do exert effort beyond the ordinary.

From table 5.2 it appears that there is a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between leaders and subordinates with regard to effectiveness.   It is evident that leaders perceive themselves to be more effective ($\overline{X}$ = 3.16) than subordinates perceive the leaders to be ($\overline{X}$ = 2.88). Subordinates perceive that their leaders' leadership style is ineffective. In contrast, leaders are of the opinion that their leadership style is effective.

By virtue of the abovementioned results, the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.5   Differences in leadership style based on biographical variables of managers

The differences in leadership style based on biographical variables of managers are indicated in the following tables. This data is based on the perceptions of the managers.

5.5.1 Differences in leadership style based on age

The differences in leadership style based on age are indicated in table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3. Differences in leadership style based on age (N = 98)

Age groups	N	$\overline{X}$	S	DF	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob
Idealized Influence (Attributed)								
Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.54	0.74					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.55	0.62					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	2.76	0.68					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.25	0.70					
Between groups				3	1.82	0.60	1.31	0.27
Within groups				91	42.30	0.46		
Total	95			94	44.13			
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)								
Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.63	0.73					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.80	0.61					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	2.67	0.68					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.37	0.53					
Between groups				3	1.30	0.43	0.95	0.41
Within groups				91	41.35	0.45		
Total	95			94	42.65			
Inspirational motivation								
Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.57	0.66					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.71	0.69					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	2.80	0.74					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.25	0.00					
Between groups				3	1.27	0.42	0.84	0.47
Within groups				91	45.45	0.49		
Total	95			94	46.72			
Intellectual stimulation								
Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.53	0.57					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.69	0.53					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	2.60	0.76					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.00	0.35					
Between groups				3	0.60	0.20	0.47	0.70
Within groups				91	38.87	0.42		
Total	95			94	39.48			
Individual consideration								
Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.64	0.87					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.85	0.59					

Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	2.85	0.70					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.37	0.17					
Between groups				3	1.34	0.44	0.88	0.45
Within groups				91	46.18	0.50		
Total	95			94	47.52			

Contingent reward

Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.48	0.45					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.46	0.58					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	2.86	0.61					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.12	0.17					
Between groups				3	3.93	1.31	4.05	**0.00****
Within groups				91	29.44	0.32		
Total	95			94	33.38			

Management-by-exception (Active)

Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.27	0.72					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	29	2.23	0.78					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	39	2.96	2.99					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	2.50	0.00					
Between groups				3	11.41	3.80	0.90	0.43
Within groups				88	368.25	4.18		
Total	92			91	379.67			

Management-by-exception (Passive)

Group 1 (< 35 years)	22	2.02	0.86					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	1.81	1.04					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	38	1.67	0.83					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	2.25	2.12					
Between groups				3	2.04	0.68	0.77	0.51
Within groups				88	77.59	0.88		
Total	92			91	79.63			

Laissez-faire

Group 1 (< 35 years)	19	1.19	0.64					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	26	0.92	0.51					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	32	1.11	0.74					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	1	1.50						
Between groups				3	1.12	0.37	0.87	0.45
Within groups				74	31.54	0.42		
Total	78			77	32.66			

Extra effort

Group 1 (< 35 years)	21	2.86	0.72					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	29	2.81	0.62					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	3.05	0.59					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.80	0.28					
Between groups				3	2.63	0.87	2.18	0.09
Within groups				89	35.69	0.40		
Total	93			92	38.33			

Effectiveness

Group 1 (< 35 years)	21	2.96	0.68					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.92	0.59					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	41	3.08	0.56					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	3.62	0.17					

	N	$\overline{X}$	S	DF	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob
Between groups				3	1.24	0.41	1.14	0.33
Within groups				90	32.65	0.36		
Total	94			93	33.90			
Satisfaction								
Group 1 (< 35 years)	21	2.66	1.01					
Group 2 (35-45 years)	30	2.56	0.82					
Group 3 (46-56 years)	40	3.74	6.61					
Group 4 (57-67 years)	2	2.75	1.76					
Between groups				3	29.27	9.75	0.49	0.68
Within groups				89	1749.48	19.65		
Total	93			92	1778.75			

*   p<0.05   **   p<0.01

It is evident from table 5.3 that there is a statistically significant difference (p < 0.01) between groups 2 and 3. Young leaders (35-45 years) display less ($\overline{X}$ = 2.46) contingent reward behaviour than older leaders (46-56 years) ($\overline{X}$ = 2.86). This implies that older leaders reward followers for attaining performance levels.   Reward is contingent on performance level achieved and on effort expanded.

Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.5.2   Differences in leadership style based on tenure

Table 5.4 illustrates the differences in leadership style based on tenure.

Table 5.4 Differences in leadership style based on tenure (N = 98)

Tenure	N	$\overline{X}$	S	DF	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob
Idealized Influence (Attributed)								
Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	2.50						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.58	0.73					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.55	0.63					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.80	0.68					
Between groups				3	1.31	0.43	0.92	0.43
Within groups				91	42.82	0.47		
Total	95			94	44.13			
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)								
Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	3.50						

Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.59	0.74					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.56	0.64					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.91	0.60					
Between groups				3	3.12	1.04	2.40	0.07
Within groups				91	39.52	0.43		
Total	95			94	42.65			

Inspirational motivation

Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	3.25						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.56	0.65					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.56	0.72					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.97	0.67					
Between groups				3	4.11	1.37	2.92	0.03
Within groups				91	42.61	0.46		
Total	95			94	46.72			

Intellectual stimulation

Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	2.75						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.52	0.72					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.54	0.62					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.76	0.60					
Between groups				3	1.18	0.39	0.94	0.42
Within groups				91	38.29	0.42		
Total	95			94	39.48			

Individual consideration

Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	3.00						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.68	0.75					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.75	0.67					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.95	0.70					
Between groups				3	1.28	0.42	0.84	0.47
Within groups				91	46.24	0.50		
Total	95			94	47.52			

Contingent reward

Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	2.00						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.60	0.44					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.68	0.71					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.68	0.60					
Between groups				3	0.57	0.19	0.52	0.66
Within groups				91	32.81	0.36		
Total	95			94	33.38			

Management-by-exception (Active)

Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	1.00						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.51	0.78					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	27	2.36	0.58					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	36	2.78	3.15					
Between groups				3	5.36	1.78	0.42	0.73
Within groups				88	374.30	4.25		
Total	92			91	379.67			

Management-by-exception (Passive)

Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	2.25						
Group 2 (2-5years)	28	2.12	0.90					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	1.93	0.91					

Group 4 (> 10 years)	34	1.44	0.88					
Between groups				3	7.89	2.63	3.22	**0.02***
Within groups				88	71.74	0.81		
Total	92			91	79.63			
Laissez-faire								
Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	0.75						
Group 2 (2-5years)	24	1.11	0.59					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	25	1.14	0.75					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	28	1.00	0.62					
Between groups				3	0.40	0.13	0.31	0.81
Within groups				74	32.25	0.43		
Total	78			77	32.66			
Extra effort								
Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	1.60						
Group 2 (2-5years)	27	2.90	0.64					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	28	3.06	0.50					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	2.93	0.71					
Between groups				3	2.27	0.75	1.87	0.13
Within groups				89	36.05	0.40		
Total	93			92	38.33			
Effectiveness								
Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	2.50						
Group 2 (2-5years)	27	2.96	0.63					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	3.08	0.52					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	37	3.02	0.65					
Between groups				3	0.48	0.16	0.43	0.72
Within groups				90	33.42	0.37		
Total	94			93	33.90			
Satisfaction								
Group 1 (< 2 years)	1	1.50						
Group 2 (2-5years)	27	2.70	0.86					
Group 3 (6-10 years)	29	2.79	0.81					
Group 4 (> 10 years)	36	3.68	7.00					
Between groups				3	21.93	7.31	0.37	0.77
Within groups				89	1756.82	19.73		
Total	93			92	1778.75			

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

According to table 5.4 a statistical significant difference exists ($p < 0.05$) between groups 2 and 3 with regard to management-by-exception (passive). It is evident that leaders with a short tenure (2-5 years) display more ($\overline{X}$ = 2.12) management-by-exception (passive) behaviour than leaders with a long tenure (6-10 years) ($\overline{X}$ = 1.67). This implies that leaders with short tenure (2-5 years) intervene only after mistakes are made in order to correct them and move performance back to previously specified levels.

Due to the nature of the results the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.5.3 Differences in leadership style based on cultural groupings

Table 5.5 below indicates differences in leadership style based on cultural groupings, as indicated by respondents' home language.

Table 5.5 Differences in leadership style based on cultural groupings (N=98)

Cultural groupings	N	$\overline{X}$	S	DF	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-prob
Idealized Influence (Attributed)								
Group 1 (English)	32	2.70	0.76					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.54	0.68					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.75	0.58					
Between groups				2	0.72	0.36	0.76	0.46
Within groups				91	43.28	0.47		
Total	94			93	44.01			
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)								
Group 1 (English)	32	2.79	0.63					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.68	0.73					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.65	0.66					
Between groups				2	0.34	0.17	0.37	0.69
Within groups				91	42.23	0.46		
Total	94			93	42.57			
Inspirational motivation								
Group 1 (English)	32	2.74	0.73					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.76	0.66					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.67	0.76					
Between groups				2	0.13	0.06	0.13	0.87
Within groups				91	46.51	0.51		
Total	94			93	46.65			
Intellectual stimulation								
Group 1 (English)	32	2.66	0.58					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.66	0.73					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.54	0.61					
Between groups				2	0.27	0.13	0.32	0.72
Within groups				91	39.06	0.42		
Total	94			93	39.34			
Individual consideration								
Group 1 (English)	32	2.88	0.57					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.72	0.80					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.83	0.73					
Between groups				2	0.41	0.20	0.40	0.66
Within groups				91	46.63	0.51		
Total	94			93	47.05			

				Contingent reward				
Group 1 (English)	32	2.73	0.65					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.54	0.61					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.75	0.46					
Between groups				2	0.90	0.45	1.27	0.28
Within groups				91	32.30	0.35		
Total	94			93	33.21			
				Management-by-exception (Active)				
Group 1 (English)	30	2.30	0.77					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	37	2.77	3.12					
Group 3 (Other)	24	2.54	0.56					
Between groups				2	3.54	1.77	0.41	0.66
Within groups				88	376.09	4.27		
Total	91			90	379.63			
				Management-by-exception (Passive)				
Group 1 (English)	31	1.59	0.90					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	36	1.90	0.90					
Group 3 (Other)	24	2.02	0.98					
Between groups				2	2.78	1.39	1.63	0.20
Within groups				88	75.09	0.85		
Total	91			90	77.88			
				Laissez-faire				
Group 1 (English)	27	1.08	0.65					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	31	0.98	0.68					
Group 3 (Other)	20	1.21	0.59					
Between groups				2	0.63	0.31	0.74	0.47
Within groups				75	32.02	0.42		
Total	78			77	32.66			
				Extra effort				
Group 1 (English)	32	3.03	0.43					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	35	2.81	0.76					
Group 3 (Other)	25	3.03	0.69					
Between groups				2	1.05	0.52	1.26	0.28
Within groups				89	37.27	0.41		
Total	92			91	38.32			
				Effectiveness				
Group 1 (English)	32	3.06	0.51					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	36	2.92	0.70					
Group 3 (Other)	25	3.10	0.55					
Between groups				2	0.54	0.27	0.73	0.48
Within groups				90	33.36	0.37		
Total	93			92	33.90			
				Satisfaction				
Group 1 (English)	32	4.03	7.39					
Group 2 (Afrikaans)	35	2.40	0.83					
Group 3 (Other)	25	2.92	0.71					
Between groups				2	46.13	23.06	1.18	0.31
Within groups				89	1731.40	19.05		
Total	92			91	1777.53			

* $p<0.05$ ** $p<0.01$

It is evident from table 5.5 that there are no statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between cultural groupings as indicated by respondents' home language in terms of leadership style. This implies that there are no differences with regard to leadership dimensions among cultural groupings.

On the basis of this evidence the null hypothesis is accepted.

5.6   Discussion of results

From the research results it would appear that there are differences in leadership style between lower level management and senior level management. Transactional leadership characterized lower level management and transformational leadership characterized senior level management. The results of the current research coincide with that of Hunt (1991), Loubser and De Jager (1995), Shamir (1995), Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam (1996), Kane, Tremble and Trueman (2000) and Waldman, Ramirez, House and Puranam (2001). From this point of view, the aim of the study was achieved. The trends that have been identified with regard to the abovementioned results could be due to the fact that senior level management is more concerned with the development of a vision than lower level management. On the other hand, lower level management are responsible for daily operations within the organization and places more emphasis on operational skills than the articulation of a vision. Thus, transformational leadership is more prevalent at senior level management than lower levels of management. The articulation of a vision is strongly associated with senior level management.

Significant differences were found in perception between leaders and subordinates with regard to laissez-faire leadership, extra effort and effectiveness dimensions. These results suggest that subordinates have their own perception about the nature of leadership (Shaw, 1990). With regard to the

current study, the way in which leadership style is perceived could have been influenced by the cultural background of the perceiver (Lord, Foti & De Vader, 1984). Finally, leadership perceptions may not be reality but are used by perceivers to distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Lord & Maher, 1991). Furthermore, the reason for the differences in perception could be due to perceptual distortions prevalent during the perceptual process. These distortions occur during the interpretation and judging phases. During the interpretation phase of perception, stereotyping, halo effects, projection and the self-fulfilling prophecy may distort perception. During the judging phase, attribution may distort perception.

It is apparent that there are statistically significant differences in leadership style based on biographical variables such as age and tenure.

In terms of age there are statistically significant differences between the leadership styles of young and old leaders. The current research concurred with that of Zenger and Lawrence (1989), Caroll and Harrison (1994), as well as Korac-Kakabadse and Korac-Kakabadse (1998). The aforementioned researchers postulated that there are differences in leadership style based on age.

According to the current study, older leaders display more transactional leadership than younger leaders. This could be due to the fact that older leaders see themselves as having little exposure to development; hence they are too attached to traditional norms. In addition, possible reasons for the differences in the results could be due to the fact that young and old leaders have different dominant work values (Robbins, 2001). Young leaders value ambition and a sense of accomplishment. Older leaders are more conservative and non-conforming.

There is a statistically significant difference between tenure and leadership style. The current research, however, was not in line with that of Katz (1982) as well as that of Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990), which suggested that transactional leadership characterizes long tenure because leaders with long tenure have a knowledge base that restricts them from responding to environmental changes, classifying them as traditional (transactional) leaders. The current study, however, found that transactional leadership characterizes leaders with short tenure. The trends that have been identified with regard to the results suggest that leaders with long tenure do in fact respond to environmental changes and are not reluctant to change the status quo.

No statistically significant difference between leadership style and cultural groupings with regard to home languages were found. The current research suggests that there are no differences in leadership style among leaders from different cultural groupings. The current research did not concur with that of Christie, Lessem and Mbigi (1993), Mbigi (2000) and Booysen (2001) as well as Avolio (1995). The abovementioned researchers postulated that there are differences in leadership style with regard to culture. The differences with regard to the current research and those of other researchers could be due to the fact that language did not determine the worldview of individuals and the way they responded to certain stimuli, as postulated by Christie, Lessem and Mbigi (1993).

5.7   Conclusion

The following conclusions regarding the study can be made.

5.7.1 Literature study

With regard to the literature study, the following conclusions can be made.

- It becomes evident from the literature review that very few South African studies have focused on leadership and levels of management, as well as biographical variables and leadership. Thus, the current study was aimed at filling this research gap in the South African leadership literature.

- In terms of management levels and leadership, the current study concurred with other similar studies. The current study and other studies support the notion that there are differences in leadership style between lower and senior level management. Differences were also found in perception between leaders and subordinates in terms of leadership style. There were also differences between biographical variables such as age and tenure. However, no differences were found with regard to cultural diversity and leadership. The current study did not support that of other researchers.

It is also imperative that the findings in the present study need to be assessed against the backdrop of its methodological flaws.

5.7.2 Research Methodology

The following conclusions were made from the research methodology.

- Since convenience sampling was used, generalizations to the general population are difficult with regard to the aim of the study.
- Since the focus was on one mining company, generalizations to other mining companies become difficult.
- The representation of leaders speaking African languages was not sufficient to determine differences in cultural groupings with regard to leadership style.
- The diversity of the South African managerial population is not reflected by foreign questionnaires. Language and expressions used in foreign

questionnaires are not always clear to managers who are not first-language English speaking South Africans. None of the current overseas leadership questionnaires satisfy the needs of leaders and managers within the South African context.

5.7.3 Results of the study

The following conclusions can be made regarding the results of the study.

- With regard to the results of the study, it is evident that senior level management display certain leadership dimensions that characterize them as transformational. These dimensions include, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. On the other hand, transactional leadership characterizes lower level management. Lower level management display leadership dimensions that include management-by-exception (passive). Thus, attention needs to be given to certain dimensions to improve the quality of leadership.

- The results also suggest that there are differences in perception with regard to managers and subordinates in terms of leadership style. The subordinates' perception was that leaders are laissez-faire. Attention needs to be given to the absence of leadership within management.

- With regard to age and leadership there were differences between younger and older leaders in terms of contingent reward dimension of leadership. The current results provide management with an indication of the different work values young and older managers have.

- Differences were also found between leaders with short and long tenure. These differences were found on the management-by-exception (passive) dimension of leadership. Leaders with short tenure scored higher on this dimension making them more transactional leaders. Management can

scrutinize reasons as to why individuals with short tenure display more transactional leadership.

- The results suggest that there are no differences in leadership style with regard to cultural groupings in terms of home language. Significant differences would enable management to determine which of the cultural groupings display more of a particular leadership style.

5.8   Recommendations

The following recommendations with regard to the study can be made.

5.8.1 Literature study

With regard to the literature study, the following recommendations can be made.

- Since leadership is a fast moving field, the results of South African leadership studies can often portrait a fragmented picture. Hence, for greater coherents amongst South African studies, more research needs to be done on this concept with similar hypotheses within different organizations.
- Leadership should be viewed in terms of behaviour rather than style, implying that leadership can be taught.

5.8.2 Research Methodology

The following recommendations with regard to the research methodology can be made.

- Random sampling, specifically simple random sampling should be used as a data gathering method. The advantage of this type of sampling is that there is high generalizability of findings.

- A sample inclusive of other South African mining companies will enable one to make generalizations to other mining companies.

- There should be equal representation among the cultural groupings with regard to home language if one is to determine whether differences in leadership style exist among these cultural groupings.

- The questionnaire should accommodate the diversity of the South African managerial population.

5.8.3 Results of the study

The following recommendations regarding the results of the study can be made.

- The results of the study can be used to implement leadership training and development. In addition, managers can also be made aware of the implications that perception have on leadership.

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Summary

Leadership is crucial for a successful organization, community or country as leadership provides direction. The new millennium requires a great rate of change and South African companies will be obliged to make rapid organizational changes. Changes in the mining industry make it necessary to prepare the industry for future challenges. It is the belief of the mining industry that leadership is an essential factor in the change process.

In view of the abovementioned, the management of a mining company in the Northern Cape found it necessary to determine the current situation with regards to leadership in the company.

The aim of this research was to determine whether lower and senior level management exercise different styles of leadership and whether the perceptions of leadership differ between leaders and followers. In addition, management wished to determine whether there is a difference in leadership style based on cultural diversity, in terms of home language, age and tenure.

For this purpose, ninety-eight (98) managers were included in the sample. From the sample of ninety-eight (98) managers, thirty-one (31) managers with a minimum of three (3) subordinates participated to determine differences in perception. Thus, ninety-three (93) subordinates participated in the study. Leadership style was measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). A one way Analysis of Variance (Anova) was used to determine differences between lower and senior management in terms of leadership style. The t-test for dependant groups was used to determine differences in perception. A one way Analysis of Variance (Scheffé) was used to determine differences between certain groups in terms of age, tenure and home language (cultural diversity).

Based on the statistical analysis, the following conclusions have been reached:

- There is a statistically significant difference between lower and senior level management with regard to leadership style. Senior level management are more transformational than lower level management, which are more transactional.

- There is a statistically significant difference in perception between managers and subordinates with regard to leadership style.

- There are statistically significant differences in leadership style based on biographical variables such as age and tenure. There were no differences with regard to leadership style and cultural diversity based on home language.

Caution needs to be exercised with regard to the interpretation of the findings, since a convenience sample was utilized.

Opsomming

Leierskap is 'n vereiste vir 'n suksesvolle organisasie, gemeenskap of samelewing omdat leierskap rigting voorsien. Die nuwe millennium vereis 'n groot mate van verandering en Suid-Afrikaanse maatskappye sal verplig wees om spoedig georganiseerde veranderings te bewerkstellig. Veranderinge in die mynbedryf maak dit noodsaaklik om die bedryf voor te berei vir toekomstige uitdagings. Dit is die beleid van die mynbedryf dat leierskap 'n essensiële factor is in die veranderingsproses.

In die lig van bovermelde, het die bestuur van 'n mynmaatskappy in die Noord-Kaap dit noodsaaklik gevind om die stand van leierskap in die maatskappy vas te stel.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing was om te bepaal of laer en senior bestuur verskillende leierskapstyle toepas en of die persepsie van leierskap verskil tussen leiers en ondergeskiktes. Benewens dit wou bestuur bepaal of daar 'n verskil is in leierskap styl gebaseer op kulturele groeperinge op grond van huistaal, ouderdom en dienstydperk.

Vir hierdie doel is ag-en-neëntig (98) bestuurders ingesluit in hierdie streekproef. Van die ag-en-neëntig (98) bestuurders het een-en-dertig (31) bestuurders met 'n minimum van drie (3) ondergeskiktes deelgeneem om die verskille in persepsie tussen leiers en ondergeskiktes ten opsigte van die leier se leierskapstyl te bepaal. Drie-en-neentig (93) ondergeskiktes het deelgeneem. Leierskapstyl is gemeet met die Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). 'n Eenrigting Analise van Variansie (Anova) was gebruik om die verskille tussen laer en senior bestuur in terme van leierskapstyle te bepaal. Die t-toets vir afhanklike groepe was gebruik om verskille in persepsie te bepaal. 'n Eenrigting Analise van Variansie (Scheffé) was gebruik om verskille tussen

sekere groepe te bepaal in terme van ouderdom, dienstydperk en kulturele groepering, op grond van huistaal.

Gebaseer op statistiese analise, kan die volgende gevolgtrekkings gemaak word:

- Daar is 'n statistiese beduidende verskil tussen laer en senior bestuursvlak met betrekking tot leierskapstyl. Senior vlak bestuur is meer transformerend dan laervlak bestuur wat meer transaksioneël is.
- Daar is 'n statistiese beduidende verskil in persepsie tussen bestuurders en ondergeskiktes met betrekking tot die leierskapstyl van die leiers.
- Daar is statistiese beduidende verskille in leierskapstyl gebaseer op biografiese veranderlikes soos ouderdom en dienstydperk. Daar was geen verskil ten opsigte van leierskap en kulturele groepering soos bepaal op grond van huistaal nie.

Die interpretasie van hierdie bevindings wat op 'n geleentheidsteekproef gebaseer is moet met omsigtigheid benader word.