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IDENTIFYING LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE

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A research report submitted to the Graduate School of Business Administration, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree Master of Management (Human Resources Management).

Johannesburg, 1991.

DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management (Human Resources Management) in the University of the Witswatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

G.D.Charlton

day of 1991

ABSTRACT

A survey of the literature indicates that leadership is the axiom behind a successful nation, business and organisation. However findings emerging from widespread research demonstrate a lack of agreement on the nature of leadership activity.

This study adopts a competence approach toward identifying what excellent leaders do.

The purpose of this research was to identify leadership competencies within a major South African company, from both a leader and follower perspective. The sample consisted of ten excellent and ten average leaders who were categorised according to performance appraisal scores and peer and follower ratings. Each leader completed a self-administered questionnaire rating his own leadership activity, which was compared with two follower ratings per leader.

The results of the study confirm that leader self-evaluation is not a good indicator of effective leadership. Follower perceptions of effective leadership indicate a statistically significant difference between the two groups concerning the following competencies: the management of attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust and the deployment of self. These correspond with a large international study conducted by Bennis and Nanus (1985). In addition, excellent leaders demonstrated the ability to empower followers - which is vital in the South African and business context. In accounting for the reasons behind excellent leadership and perceptual overlap with followers it appears that effectiveness depends on the ability to give and receive feedback, together with an extensive interpersonal skill repertoire, and ability to adopt a learning orientation toward other people and continually improve on inappropriate behaviour. These competencies have far reaching implications for the development and application of effective leadership within organisations.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to identify leadership competencies within a major South African company from both the leader and follower perspectives. The leadership competence model of Bennis and Nanus (1985), emanating from comprehensive research involving ninety effective leaders in the U.S.A. was used as a basis to distinguish excellent from average leadership activity within the Chamber of Mines of South Africa in order to assess its relevance and validity within the South African context. In terms of the above model; the dual leadership perspective of the leader and the led, and its focus on overt competencies, the study is unique to South Africa.

In addition to the four competencies identified by Bennis and Nanus, empowerment has been added to the model as a fifth competency. The authors originally saw empowerment as a consequence of all four competencies. This research, however, hypothesised that empowerment was both a consequence and unique competence of effective leadership, that is consciously expressed and enables ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity (Peters, 1989).

In light of South Africa's expanding skills shortage, the inclusion of followers is vital to organisational growth in identifying behaviour that leads to the empowerment of others, a crucial role of the leader and line manager (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Hofmeyr, 1989; Human, 1989). Empowerment emphasises training people in the skills necessary to discharge their responsibilities (Carkhuff, 1988) and removing organisational obstacles hindering the deployment of peoples potential (Bennis and Nanus, 1985).

The objectives of the research allow for the symmetry of outcomes, providing valuable information for strategic leadership development and application consistent with an action research orientation.

This chapter will commence with a brief statement of the leadership problem and consequences for organisations together with the impor-

tance of the research from an international and local perspective. The gap between leadership demand and supply will be discussed together with the role of professional strategic human resource development in bridging this void. The research question and hypotheses will follow on from the above, aiming at providing essential information upon which successful leadership development can occur. Thereafter, the research methodology will be outlined together with key assumptions and definition of concepts. Finally, an overview of the layout of the thesis will be discussed.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

"*The need for leadership was never so great. A chronic crises of governance - that is, the pervasive incapacity of organisations to cope with their expectations of their constituents - is now an overwhelming factor world wide. If there was ever a moment in history when a comprehensive strategic view of leadership was needed, not just but a few leaders in high office, but by large numbers of leaders in every job, from the factory floor to the executive suite, from developing business in the informal sector to a multi-national corporation, this is it. In short, leadership is the pivotal force behind successful organisations. The new leader is one who commits people to action, who converts followers into leaders and who may convert leaders into agents of change.*" (Morrow, 1987 : 10)

Bennis (1989) points out that most of the world's present problems, expressed through a lack of vision, greed, violence, timidity, and authoritarian control, are symptomatic of a leadership crises at the highest levels of national and international life. On a business level the quality and impact of leadership has long been recognised as a crucial element influencing organisational effectiveness (Vroom, 1976; Schein, 1980; Hersey and Blanchard, 1982; Peters, 1988; Senge, 1990).

Bennis (1989) in his book 'On Becoming a Leader', lists what he considers to be the ten basic dangers to our society. The first is the possibility of global war and the second, the prospect of a worldwide epidemic, famine or depression. The third factor that could lead to the destruction of our society is the quality of the management and leadership of our institutions (Bennis, 1989:14).

In essence, our quality of life depends on the quality of our leaders.

Bennis lists three basic reasons why leaders are important:

1. Leaders are responsible for the effectiveness - the success or failure of organisations.

2. Constant change and uncertainty has left society without anchors in our lives. Leaders fill the need for a guiding purpose that creates meaning in a 'mad' world.

3. Leadership provides integrity and credibility to our institutions after a history of fallen leaders who have stood on feet of clay.

On an international level exponential change confronts decision makers in the form of increased global competition, rapid technological progress, dynamic organisational structures, and greater employee demands and expectations.

In addition, South African executives are amongst the most stressed executives in the world (Cooper and Arbrose, 1984) as they are forced to contend with complex racial, political and economic problems and constant uncertainty in this regard; and an enormous skills shortage facing South African companies (Sadie, 1988; Andrews, 1988; Manning, 1989; Hofmeyr, 1989; Human, 1989).

Yet effective leadership that 'enables ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity', can significantly impact on the above problems. It is an assumption underpinning this research that leadership in South African business is vital for:

- Developing and managing human resources - a key ingredient in successfull nations (De Geus, 1991; Spies, 1991).

- Addressing the burgeoning skills shortage through empowering and developing subordinates.

- Providing a clear, hopeful vision of a new South Africa and a map of how to get there.

- Addressing the fear, immobility and reactive position of organisations to the turbulent environment of business.

- Meeting the need for expanding expectations for improved quality of life, participation and self-expression that increasingly characterises the global workforce.

- Obtaining the commitment from top management for organisational development, training and change process. Leadership in this regard provides a critical leverage point for organisational change and building learning organisations (Senge, 1991).

Numerous articles on leadership published within the last ten years identify the gap between leadership supply and leadership demand.

"It is little exaggeration to say that the long-term health of any organisation depends primarily on the quality of the people who assume its leadership positions. Yet, for most organisations, the process by which people are developed and selected for the most senior roles is relatively unplanned and in large part, undescribed" (Boyatsis, 1982 : 12).

This offers an enormous challenge to the organisational trainer, manager, specialist and chief executive officer in an attempt to impact on organisational performance through the generic functions of selection, appraisal, reward and development (Fombrun et al, 1984:41). Given the importance of leadership and increasing skills shortage, strategic development that impacts on organisational performance becomes pivotal in bridging the gap between demand and supply.

Strategic development is the identification of needed skills and active management of employees learning for the long range future in relation to explicit corporate and business strategies (Fombrun et al, 1984:159). Yet the effectiveness of both formal and informal management development programmes have been seriously questioned (Livingstone, 1971; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Pruett, 1989). Business schools have been criticised for ignoring critical success factors identified in recent leadership studies (Limerick, Cunnington and Trevor-Roberts, 1984; Kelly, 1986), while management development in South Africa has had similar unsatisfactory results (Tomasko, 1985; Pruett, 1988; Hofmeyr,1989).

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES.

Results from this research will facilitate the bridging of the gap between actual and effective training and development by focusing on effective and efficient leadership competencies from both a leader and follower perspective.

The leadership sample consists of twenty of the most senior people in the Chamber of Mines, and make up part of the Management Co-ordinating Committee (80 per cent of the total M.C.C.). Each person represents a department or function within this private sector organisation, whose primary role is to render an excellent collaborative service to the mining houses. This suggests that the sample have a leadership role both within the Chamber of Mines (*to employees*) and externally with respect to the six mining houses (*as stakeholders*).

The researcher has identified ten excellent and ten average leaders from performance appraisals, subordinate ratings, and the ratings of two prominent members of the M.C.C. This will allow comparisons to be made between the two groups. Immediately below the leaders in the organisational hierarchy, a random sample of forty subordinates was drawn, two per leader, providing a total sample of sixty.

This study adopts a competence approach to identifying leadership, focusing on what excellent leaders do, rather than measuring inherent leadership potential. A major reason for selecting this approach, which is shared by Bennis and Nanus and the American Society for Training and Development, is that it provides a causal link between a statement of competence and superior performance by a leader (Boyatsis, 1982).

A self administered questionnaire based on the competence model of Bennis and Nanus (1985) was developed, comprising twenty-five single concept statements. This was piloted on non-sample personnel before being administered. Results from the questionnaire allowed core competencies distinguishing excellent leaders to emerge.

In terms of the above, the study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What competencies distinguish superior from average performers?

2. Do these correspond with the international study conducted by Bennis and Nanus (1985)?

3. Are the perceptions of excellent leaders and their subordinates congruent?

It is hypothesised that:

1. The four competencies of the management of attention, meaning, trust and self will emerge. Consequently there will be significant difference between leader self ratings and follower ratings of the leaders between the excellent and average leader sample.

2. The perceptions of excellent leaders and their followers will be relatively congruent. This will be expressed through comparitive mean scores and a significantly lower 'gap differential' than the average sample. Effective leadership involves self awareness, shared meaning and goals, trust and congruence between word and deed. Consequently there will be a greater perceptual fit between excellent leaders and followers.

3. Excellent followers will feel significantly more empowered than average followers. Bennis and Nanus (1985) state that the consequence of leadership is empowerment. Empowerment has been added to the existing four competencies and will be measured statistically to confirm this assertion.

The structure of the questionnaire allowed for the analysis of results on a number of levels, thereby confirming the above hypotheses.

The raw data was analysed using the Man-Whitney U test, a non-parametric test illustrating the significant difference between groups - or the excellent and average leadership samples. Comparisons were made between the composite groups, leader self scores and follower scores on the five leadership competencies in order to substantiate the hypotheses.

Tables and figures illustrating the difference between the above groups are displayed in Chapter V of this report, using group mean scores as the unit of comparison.

"Although it is debatable that many of our scales achieve interval measurement, most behavioural scientists are willing to make the assumption that they do" (Runyon and Haber, 1980:25).

1.4 KEY ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

1. Bennis and Nanus (1985) conducted in depth behavioural event interviews and observations of ninety recognised leaders from both the private and the public sector, occurring over several years.

   The exact replication of this study was not within the scope of this thesis. Instead it was decided to focus extensively on a South African company that played a major leadership role with respect to the mining industry through twenty-eight diverse service functions including comprehensive health care; industrial relations; refining gold and uranium, and representing the industry nationally and internationally. For this reason results may not be generalisable to other organisations which would necessitate controlling for organisational and industry effect.

2. It was also decided not to replicate the methodology employed by Bennis and Nanus but to elaborate and refine their competence model through a questionnaire which, given time shortages, will provide a useful instrument to measure leadership competence or to duplicate the study across organisations in the future.

   In this regard, the questionnaire as a research tool is limited in its ability to probe for more detailed information. However, the original model was not derived statistically and the use of the questionnaire allows for a scientific comparison of leadership competence in a South African context.

3. The questionnaire utilised a nine point scale which for the purposes of the Man-Whitney U test was assumed to be an ordinal scale. The use of comparative mean scores assumes an interval scale of measurement.

4. The sample, although fairly typical of many South African corporations, contains no black leaders and only one black subordinate. There are three women amongst the "follower" sample. However, as the competency approach is performance based, the absence of minority groups does not affect the validity of the model.

Within these limitations, the study allows for the symmetry of outcomes and therefore meaningful results, regardless of the findings. If the results are positive and confirm the theory underpinning the model, the model will have a relevant application within a South African organisation. If the hypotheses are disconfirmed, the results will suggest an alternative empirically based model.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1. Leadership

Numerous authors comment on the difficulty in defining leadership (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Kouzes and Posner, 1989; Yukl, 1989; Senge, 1990) stating that it is easier to define and recognise what it is not. Tom Peters defines leadership as "A unique alliance between managers and workers that fully engages the talents and potential of everyone in the organisation" (Peters, 1988 : 14). Bennis and Nanus (1985) emphasise the importance of fostering creative change through a vision by creating a meaningful work context, communicating the vision, developing trust, and effectively managing yourself - thereby empowering subordinates. Peter Senge (1990) places emphasis on the creation of learning organisations by emphasising vision, alignment of purpose and personal mastery and responsibility to affect change. For the purposes of this thesis, leadership encompasses all the above and is defined as '**The competencies and process required to enable and empower ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity, and constantly turn in superior performance to the benefit of themselves and the organisation.**'

2. **Empowerment**, like leadership, is a much used and little understood concept. Human (1989) sees empowerment as the process of developing subordinates who are able (competent), willing (motivated) and allowed (authority and responsibility) to

use their full potential in discharging their responsibilities at work. Other authors emphasise the process of enhancing feelings of self efficacy among organisational members, through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal and organisational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information (Conger and Kanungo, 1987).

For the purpose of this thesis empowerment is defined as:

"The act of investing and authorising, where people and organisations are enabled to achieve goals. This involves the sharing of power and authorising people to think and make decisions. Moreover, empowering emphasises skilling people in competencies needed to discharge their responsibilities" (Carkhuff, 1988 : 13).

3. **Job Competence** - *"a set of generic characteristics expressed in motives, traits, self image, social rules, knowledge and skills which may be apparent in many forms of behaviour and different actions* (Boyatzis, 1982 : 21).

4. **Competence** is defined as the exhibition of specific behaviour and attitudes being clearly demonstrated and therefore measurable, and is distinguishable from inherent potential to perform.

5. **Strategic Training and Development** is *"the identification of needed skills and active management of an employee learning for the long-range future in relation to explicit corporate and business strategies* (Fombrum et al, 1984 : 159). This includes activities designed to ensure that individuals are properly equipped to carry out their jobs that fall into the management development category (Fombrum et al, 1984 : 49).

6. **Learning** - A persons ability to assimilate, conceptualise and implement knowledge, attitudes and skills in a comprehensive manner.

1.8 PRESENTATION OF CONTENTS

This research commences with an overview of the leadership crises on an international and national level and the consequent impact on organisational effectiveness. The value of the study in bridging the gap between leadership supply and demand through identifying leadership competence will follow, leading to the research hypotheses, methodology, limitations and clarification of concepts.

Chapter II deals with a literature review of leadership theory underpinning the leadership model together with previous research findings and theorists, and how they compliment, differ and elaborate on Bennis and Nanus' work. This is presented in tabular form at the end of the chapter. The evolving business context will also be explored, together with the need for empowerment and the crucial role of the leader in this regard.

Chapter III will briefly look at the practice of leadership development in line with the concern for action orientated research. This underpins the recommendations of the research in developing leadership competencies in terms of strategic planning and implementation.

Chapter IV covers the research methodology. This is preceded by an account of the research question and hypothesis which are founded on the literature study. The organisational context of the research is discussed, together with a detailed account of the sample, research instrument, competence approach to leadership and analysis and display of results.

Chapter V contains research results which are described and displayed in tabular and figure form. Comparisons between the different groups on a number of levels are made, together with the significance of these findings as a basis for the discussion of results in Chapter VI

Chapter VI - will summarise the findings and critically discuss the main findings. Recommendations will be offered, particularly in terms of the development of leadership competence, discussed in Chapter III.

This is followed by References and Appendices, including the leadership questionnaires administered to both the leaders and the followers.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION - THE INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT OF LEADERSHIP

South Africa faces a stark choice if it wants to survive politically and economically. The key to the 'high road' of economic growth and democracy lies in the way we develop and manage our human resources (Tucker, 1991).

Spies (1991) points to South Africa's declining natural resources, where mining and agriculture account for less than twenty percent of our gross national product. In future, the country's growth will be reliant on the marriage between applied technology and the quality of human competence.

De Geus (1991), however, points out that the need to develop human resources is a world wide phenomenon. He quotes studies undertaken by the United Nations where the two essential criteria behind successful nations are:

1. The development and management of a country's human resources.

2. Allowing international competition in order to raise the standards and quality of local products and the utilisation of human resources in this regard. Consequently the problems or challenges to South Africa are the same as the rest of the world, only different in time, intensity and space (Senge, 1991).

An exponentially changing environment with increased competitiveness demands the ability to generate new ideas and react more quickly than competitors. Consequently, the rate at which a company learns, will be it's only source of competitive advantage in the future (Senge, 1991).

Sunter (1987) concurs, stating that economic power accrues to the company who applies intelligence to the front line. This necessitates

a learning culture where people are empowered and consequently willing, able and allowed to perform according to their potential (Human, 1989).

However, the hierarchical model of organisations still predominates in the western world, as the primary method of organising people to achieve objectives. While this method of organisation served it's purpose during the industrial revolution and war years, it is inadequate to cope with exponential change and the aspirations and productivity of people in a competitive envoronment (Senge, 1991; Spies, 1991; O'Brian, 1991; McCrae, 1991). These hierarchies are contrary to the basic human drive to learn, to find work meaningfull and to express creativity, responsibility and competence (Senge, 1991; O'Brian, 1991; Hall, 1990; Deming, 1991). They are based on a control orientation of power, operating from a win-lose orientation rather than an 'expandable pie' framework, which is the basis for the learning organisation. Deming (1991 : iv) summarises the impact of this thinking on the quality of an organisation's human resources:

"The prevailing system of management has destroyed our people. People are born with intrinsic motivation, self esteem, dignity, curiosity to learn, joy in learning. The forces of destruction begin with toddlers - a prize for the best Halloween costume ... grades in school, gold stars - and on up through university. On the job people, teams, divisions are ranked - rewards for the one at the top, punishment for the one at the bottom ... causing further loss, unknown and unknowable.

Instead the job of management in education, industry and government should be the optimisation of a system (not it's fragmentation into management by objectives, and business plans put together division by division)."

This comment is indicative of a leadership and managment crises at every level of society. Given the imperitive of the optimisation of a country's human resources, and of creating an environment where this can be realised, the role of leadership with organisations takes on a new meaning. Drucker elaborates on the leader's role :

"The manager is the dynamic, life giving element in every business. Without his leadership the resources of production remain resources and never become production. In a competitive economy, above all, the quality and performance of the managers determine the success of a business, indeed they determine its survival. For the quality and performance of its managers

is the only competitive advantage an enterprise in a competitive economy can have" (Drucker, 1974).

The leader of necessity must transform and empower followers in order to 'enable ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity' (Peters, 1988). Senge (1991) points out the changes in the traditional role of the leader as hero and captain to that of architect, designing the environment where people can optimise their potential. The leader must also shift his focus from being served, to a notion of stewardship - of serving followers in order to create a learning culture and remove obstacles hindering personal and organisational growth.

It is the competencies of transformational leadership that this research seeks to explore.

2.2 LEADERSHIP - AN ECONOMIC NECESSITY

Ginsberg and Volta (1981 : 48) point out that there is an economic reason why organisations need competent managers:

"*Human capital defined as the skill, dexterity and knowledge of the population has become the critical input that determines the rate of growth of the economy and the well being of the population.*"

It is the competence of managers and in particular leaders of people that determines, in large part, the returns that organisations realise from their human capital, or human resources. To acquire and retain competent managers, to let them know what they are expected to do, and to effectively utilise the organisations' human and other resources, people in organisation need models of management. It is within this context that the research aims to identify specific leadership competencies and how leaders empower and develop their subordinates.

Carkhuff (1988) concurs with the crucial role of leaders in developing people, stating:

"*Human capital is the source of the next market sensitive idea, while information capital is the operational system for the last idea. While human and information capital will create the future, sources of variance for high performance are either entirely absent or receive token attention in corporate strategy formulation.*"

Kouzes and Posner (1988) concur by stating that the domain of leaders is in creating the future. The leaders unique legacy is the creation of new institutions that survive over time, through constant organisation growth and renewal.

For Carkhuff (1989), empowering people is the source of creative leadership in the Age of Information. With the changing and growing information requirements of the electronics era, came the recognition that the *'controller'* does not have all the answers. This has necessitated a shift in the interpersonal role to a more facilitative process and the need for more egalitarian relationships.

Carkhuff (1989) emphasises the mastery of core thinking, interpersonal and planning skills - where employees are empowered to create systems of their own and corporate growth and renewal and are no longer leader dependent; and leaders are no longer naive enough to depend on *'one minute'* treatments. The leaders role is to promote the *'best fit'* between the motives of the individual and the mission of the organisation.

2.3 EVOLUTION OF LEADERSHIP THEORY

There is widespread agreement that the successful organisation has one major attribute that sets it apart from unsuccessful organisations: dynamic and effective leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:82). There is also concensus that effective business leaders are the scarcest resource of any business enterprise (Drucker, 1954). There is, however, no definite agreement concerning the very identity of that which is being studied (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982; Kelly, 1986; Zimbler, 1986). This section will present a brief overview of leadership theory starting from the 'Personality Trait Approach' (Allport, 1924), to the current approach of transformational leadership, including the competence model described by Bennis and Nanus (1985).

For centuries the notion was held that leadership was primarily exercised by 'great men' who had been born, rather than developed for that role. Allport (1924) suggested nineteen 'essential' traits including 'intelligence' and 'erect aggressive carriage'. However, traits which correlated with success in one situation, failed to do so in another and no consistent pattern emerged (Schein, 1980). The trait approach

failed to address the nature/nuture controversy of whether traits were innate or learnt, as well as failing to prove useful for the development of leadership in an organisational context.

The 1950's saw the introduction of the leadership styles approach where rather than focussing on what leaders were, researchers tried to determine what effective leaders did. An assumption underlying the approach was that there was one best style of leadership, favouring the democratic approach over the 'laissez-faire' and autocratic leader (Likert, 1960). Extensive research, however, showed that the appropriateness of the style was dependent on the situation, maturity and needs of the followers (Limmerick, 1970). Further criticism was levelled at the exclusive focus on the leader without consideration being given to task and situational variables.

The late 1960's saw leadership research concentrating on the situation and context of the leader. Fiedler (1967) identified three major situational factors which determine the appropriateness of a given leadership style. He focussed on the quality of leader/member relations; the degree of task structure; and the positional power of the leader. The strength of the model appears to lie in the close relationship of the above factors, but offers no diagnostic criteria for subordinates. The model furthermore assumes that the leadership process lies with one person only (Kelly, 1986).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) developed the commercially popular 'Situational Leadership Model' which suggested a life-cycle of leadership in which the degree of task and relationship behaviour exhibited by the leader must be analysed in conjunction with follower or subordinate maturity. In order for leaders to develop followers to their full potential, they must be able to vary their leadership behaviour, utilising various degrees of direction and support as subordinates move backwards or forwards along the maturity/immaturity continuim. The major strength of this approach is the developmental focus lacking in other models. However, the model has been criticised as being simplistic (Schein, 1980). Training in a South African context has also tended to focus more on the identification, rather than on the job application of leadership style.

Argyris (1976) focussed primarily on the attitudes and underlying assumptions or mental beliefs of the leader as the critical ingredient of

change. The strength of this model is the emphasis on challenging attitudes underpinning behaviour and developing new 'paradigms' of the world. Argyris (1976) developed an in-depth learning experience for leaders which requires a highly skilled facilitator to implement, and is consequently limited in its widespread application (Schein, 1980).

The new theories of leadership evolved in reaction to the increasingly sophisticated models which become difficult to implement. This 'back to the basics' approach focussed primarily on what leaders do in practice in order to be effective. The new theories of leadership stress the importance of leaders in transforming their followers by converting followers to leaders and elevating people by building commitment through meaning (Burns, 1978; Bennis and Nanus, 1985).

The focus on transformational leadership takes on enormous significance in light of South Africa's increasing skills shortage and productivity problems and will form the basis for discussion for the rest of this chapter.

Table 2.1 summarises the evolution of leadership theory and recent focus on leadership competence, which underpins this study.

Table 2.1 EVOLUTION OF LEADERSHIP THEORY

Theory	Focus	Critique
Personality Trait Theory • Allport (1924) • Bird (1940)	• Assume leaders have distinct "superior" personalities from followers (Kelly 1986) • Born Leaders - "great man" theory	• No consistent pattern (Schein 1980) • Traits due to nature or nurture? • Leadership a fixed sum - no developmental application • Leadership - a relationship between "man and context" (Stogdill 1974) • Mystical properties - difficulty in measurement • Move toward specific skills and competencies.
Leadership Styles (1950's-Ohio University Studies • Likert 1961 • Vroom and Jago 1960	What effective leaders do • Assume "ideal" leadership style Classification • Laissez-faire • Autocratic • Democratic	• No difference between the effects of different styles (Limerick 1970) • Focus leader behaviour - no task/situations' considerations (Schein 1980, Katz and Kahn 1978) • Move in 1970's - leader as a product of the situation (Vroom 1976)
Situational Theories **Leader Focus** • Fiedler (1967)	• Variables - critical determinants of leader effectiveness • Fiedlers contingency model - quality leader - member relations - degree task structure - position power of leader	• Critique of one person, officially responsible to direct/co-ordinate/motivate rather than informal/group leaders (Limerick 1970) • No diagnostic criteria for subordinates • Limited training application - modifying situation to suit managers style (Kelly 1986)

Theory	Focus	Critique
• Subordinate Focus (Hersey & Blanchard 1982)	Leaders task and relationship orientation analysed in conjunction with follower maturity (Hersey & Blanchard 1982)) • Effective Leadership demands flexibility of style : • Telling (High task/low relationship) • Selling (High task/high relationship) • Participating (High relationship/low tasks) • Delegating (low task/low relationship)	• Strength - developmental aspect • Critique - simplistic; leaders ability to display flexibility? (Schein 1980) • Gap between indetifying and applying leadership styles • Conceptual weaknesses - ambiguous constructs, oversimplification; dearth of exploratory processes (Blake and Mouton 1982, Yukl, 1989)
• Leaders Attitudes (Argyris 1976)	Difference between espoused theory and theory in use. Theory in use based on assumptions and behaviour which controls; maximises safety and avoids emotionally charged issues. • Organisationally beneficial behaviour (model II) should be based on: • valid information • free informed choice • internal commitment and monitoring of the implementation of choice (Argyris 1976)	• Approach highlights importance of identifying and challenging peoples basic assumptions - and choice in experimenting with new assumptions (Schein 1980) • Requires highly skilled trainer to impliment.
• Focus on Task/Situation (Vroom 1976)	• Highlights importance of context • Analyse situation and select appropriate behaviour	• Specific criteria do not allow for complexity of managerial decisions. • Questionable assumption of flexibility toward situational variables (Schein 1980)

Theory	Focus
New Theories of (Transformational) Leadership • Burns (1978) • Bennis and Nanus (1985) • Senge (1990) • Kouzes and Posner (1988) • Carkhuff (1988) • Peters (1988) • Boyatsis (1982) • Manning (1988) • Falkenburg (1990) • Hall and Asbury (1989) • Kelly (1986)	"Transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspirations of both the leader and the led, and thus has a transforming effect on both ... transforming leadership is dynamic leadership in the sense that the leaders throw themselves into a relationship with followers who will feel elevated by it and often become more active themselves, thereby creating new cadres of leadership. (Burns 1978) • Arose out of dissatisfaction with previous theories and changing organisational and environmental conditions. • Focus on what effective leaders DO (competence) • Importance of transforming followers to leaders by building on mass need for meaning, thereby, obtaining commitment (Burns 1978) • Fundamental shift to include followers and the start of the divergence between management and leadership. "The new leader is one who commits people to action, who converts followers to leaders and who may convert leaders into agents of change. This is transformational leadership (Bennis & Nanus 1985 : 17)

2.4 NEW THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Dissatisfaction with the relevance of previous theories of leadership, and as a result of changing environmental conditions and worker expectations, the late 1970's and 1980's saw the emergence of a number of new theories of leadersh p. These theories or models tended to focus on what leaders do in order to be effective and will subsequently be reviewed in some detail, particularly as they compliment the Bennis and Nanus (1985) competence model.

This approach represents a fundamental shift in the way people are motivated (Frankl, 1984); the way the leader sees and relates to followers (Hall, 1990); the manner in which change is viewed (Peters, 1988; Manning, 1988; Senge, 1990) together with the evolving needs and expectations of individuals in the 1990's which constitute the context of leadership (Moss-Kanter, 1989; Naisbett and Aburdene, 1990). Further, these approaches are based on extensive research of effective leaders, both internationally (Boyatsis, 1982; Kouzes and Posner, 1988; Limmerick, 1990) and locally within a South African context (Kelly, 1986; Ball and Asbury, 1989).

Bennis and Nanus' competency study, based on the detailed research of 90 effective leaders in the U.S.A. offers a broad, encompassing model, including four clusters of competencies evident in every member of the group. The new leadership approaches compliment this research and have been included in order to provide more detail within each cluster, which allows for a comprehensive training and development application within a South African business context.

This Section will review the changing business context and employee expectations confronting leaders, and provide an overview of various leadership models and how these expand on the competence model developed by Bennis and Nanus.

2.5 THE CHANGING CONTEXT OF LEADERSHIP

"Successful strategy involves the ability of an organisation to align itself with it's external and internal environment in order to obtain sustainable competitive advantage. However, organisations confronted with exponential change and turbulence tend to retreat into technology, or become immobilised, rather than taking advantage of the situation with a creative response that involves building windmills before the hurricane arrives" (Binedell, 1990).

This involves a paradigm shift to seeing business as a creative idea that adds value to peoples lives, rather than occuring simply to make money (Binedell, 1990).

Underpinning strategic human resource development is the changing nature of the organisation that any leader or potential leader must consider. Naisbett and Aburdene (1985) list ways in which today's organisation are being reinvented:

1. The best and brightest people gravitate to organisations fostering personal growth.

2. Managers play the role of coach, teacher and mentor and facilitate on-the-job training.

3. The best people want ownership (psychic and literal).

4. Authoritarian management is yielding to democratic management.

5. Entrepreneurship and the development of new products is revitalising companies.

6. Quality and autonomy are paramount.

7. Intuition and creativity are challenging the all in the numbers business school philosophy.

8. Large corporations are emulating the positive and productive qualities of small business.

9. Shift toward 3rd party contractors and specialists.

10. Dawn of information economy will see a shift in the infra-structures of organisations and a focus on quality of life issues by the workforce.

More recently, Naisbett and Aburdene (1990) in Megatrends 2000 predicted that the next decade will see the rise of the individual expressed in quality of life issues and demand for participation as a growing trend amongst the international workforce. They also predict that the 1990's will be the decade of women in leadership.

Moss-Kanter (1984) indicates that these changes demand an innovative response from organisations including individual autonomy with accountability, emphasis on communication strategy and ongoing budgets for education and training - with challenging assignments that develop people.

"*Managerial work is undergoing such enormous and rapid change that managers are reinventing their profession as they go. Managers have little precedent to guide them, as they are faced with extraordinary levels of complexity and inter-dependency and eroding sources of traditional power and ineffectiveness of old motivational tools. In short leadership is more difficult, yet more critical than ever*" (Moss-Kanter, 1989 : 91).

This calls for the adoption of a clear, meaningful mission, individual agenda control; share of value creation, and opportunity for individual learning and growth. The "*learning organisation*" promises to become the 1990's business buzzword as companies seek to learn more systematically from their experience and to encourage continuous learning from their people (Moss-Kanter, 1989).

In addition to the above the turbulent environment in which South Africa must operate places great demands on anyone in a leadership role. A climate of extreme uncertainty, and ambiguity, pervades the socio-political environment, the product market, industrial relations and economy. The political environment is especially dynamic, exacerbating the fact that South African managers are amongst the most stressed executives in the world (Cooper and Abrose, 1984).

In order to cope with these changing conditions, leaders need to understand the reciprocal nature of commitment and credibility. In

essence a commitment or credibility crises needs to be understood in the context of a failure by leaders to instil vision, meaning and trust in their followers.

On an international level, Bennis and Nanus (1985 : 7) quote the findings of the public agenda forum looking at the non-managerial workforce.

- Fewer than one out of every four jobholders say they are currently working at full potential.
- One half said they do not put effort into their job over and above what is required to hold onto it.
- The overwhelming majority, 75%, said they could be significantly more effective than they presently are.
- People complaining about the decline of the work ethic or the shortage of trained people.

The reality of *'poor commitment'* in South Africa is evident in many companies recent obsession with productivity, which is low, relative to other countries. However, rather than blame the workers, which becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy and is difficult to change, leaders need to personalise responsibility for failing to instil vision, meaning and trust in their followers (Bennis and Nanus, 1985 : 3).

Despite the changing environment of business, Senge (1991) comments on the opportunity business leaders have in directing and managing change, and providing direction for society as a whole.

"Business and public education are the two most important institutions that determine a society's capacity to manage change. They are the 'focus of innovation' where new ideas get put into practice. They are the 'long term growth generators, the creators of events that fuel economic and societal development. They are the fly wheels' needed to provide stabilising force when the environment is turbulent and unpredictable."
(Centre for Innovative Leadership Brochure - May 1991)

These organisational changes require a fundamental shift in the way leaders view their own role and the role of followers. Bennis and Nanus point out that the one issue that has been systematically ignored in the new age formulations of leadership is the issue of power which they

define as the basic energy to initiate and sustain action that translates intention into reality, without which leaders cannot lead.

2.6 Empowerment

"If you want one year of prosperity, grow grain
If you want ten years of prosperity grow a tree
If you want one hundred years of prosperity grow people"

Chinese proverb (Kouzes and Posner 1988 : 182)

On a national level, the need to develop people to their full potential and the importance of addressing quality of life issues is underscored in the De Lange Report of 1981. This report looks to practical guidelines for the future education of South Africans with a view to :

1. Promoting the actualisation of its inhabitants potential

2. Promoting the economic growth rate of the Republic of South Africa

3. Improving the quality of life of its inhabitants

(De Lange, 1981 : 15)

On an organisational level (Hofmeyr, 1989 : 18) comments that, too many advancement programmes consist of a number of training programmes which candidates are asked to attend, in the hope that at the end of training, they will be ready for promotion. He points out that most of what a person learns at work is on the job, particularly from a superior. Consequently the managers training skills and attitude toward developing people are crucial, because the rewards and sanctions for behaviour, are located in the department.

Human (1989 : 8) concurs with the above, pointing out the importance of complimentary line managers attitudes and skills in helping overcome feelings of inferiority, marginality and an external locus of control amongst potential black managers. Effective development and empowerment, will only take place to the extent that people are able, willing and allowed to utilise their skills and potential (Human, 1989:9). This

necessitates exploring manager's attitude to power and its reciprocal - empowerment.

Creating and coping with change requires a belief from leader and subordinate alike, that they can effect change and exercise power to the benefit of themselves and the organisation.

Dr. Jay Hall (1990), chief advisor on manpower matters to President George Bush of America, points out that transformational leadership can only occur with a paradigm shift in the way leaders see the inherent potential of their followers.

"*Managers have a distorted view of the people they manage. Fewer than twenty percent of managers today manage as if their workers are competent. Yet realistically, very little that managers do would have any relevance at all if it were not for one basic fact : by and large: people are capable of doing what needs to be done.*" (Hall, 1990 : 14)

Hall points out that productivity problems are of our own making in the sense that people perform as they are expected to perform. The belief of incompetence is expressed in authority relationships, decision making structures and, job descriptions. Leadership involves a paradigm shift from viewing employees as children to creating adult expectations in an environment which offers meaningful work, involvement and candour as the way to access human potential (Hall, 1990 : 16).

In order to understand this power struggle and to effect change in this regard to the benefit of managers, followers and the organisation, the human dynamics underpinning power need to be understood.

Power is implicit in all human interactions - familial, sexual, occupational, national and international - either covertly or overtly.

David McClelland (1973) helps shed some light on why we have failed to come to terms with power. Traditionally, society has had a negative view of power, a dislike for the authoritarian personality, of conflict in general and for manipulation of any kind. McClelland, however, distinguishes between primitive power and socialised power. The former, operates from a win/lose orientation, where people are seen as pawns, and the focus is on maintaining the status quo.

Socialised power (the positive side of power) sees people as origins of action, inherently capable and striving towards common goals through a shared vision by facilitating group strength and competence. Leadership has to balance on a knife edge between expressing personal dominance and the more socialised power or put differently to contend with the paradox between initiating change while being aware of peoples desires (McClelland, 1973).

Bennis and Nanus (1985 : 17) point out that leadership must come to terms with power or the capacity to translate intention into reality and sustain it. Transformative leadership is the wise use of this power. Vision is the commodity of leaders, and power is the currency.

Traditional management thinking promotes the idea that power is a fixed sum : if I have more, you have less. Managers who hold this view are archaic as it seriously retards getting extraordinary things done. Moreover, Kouzes and Posner observed that *"power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely"* (Kouzes and Posner, 1988 : 333).

People who feel powerless, be they managers or subordinates tend to hoard whatever shreds of power they have and tend to adopt petty and dictatorial management styles. Powerlessness creates organisational systems where political skills become essential and *"covering yourself"* and *"passing the buck"* become the preferred style for handling inter-departmental differences (Bennis and Nanus, 1985).

The expandible pie concept of power, of giving power to get power leads to greater reciprocity of influence - the leader and follower are willing to be mutually influenced by one another (Kouzes and Posner, 1988 : 164).

Leadership from a transformational perspective sees everyone as a potential leader (Peters, 1988; Carkhuff, 1988) with the focus being to enable others to act through fostering collaboration and strengthening others (Kouzes and Posner, 1988). This involves competencies such as the effective use of power, and developing others (Boyatsis, 1982) and the ability to cope with and initiate change from both the leader and follower (Kelly, 1986; Falkenburg, 1990). The leader then becomes a catalyst for growth through attention to structured development opportunities for followers and in the expectations and manner in which he interacts with people.

Kouzes and Posner (1988) quote studies - when the leaders share power with other people, those people in turn feel more strongly attached to the leader and more committed to effectively carrying out their duties and responsibilities : they feel that a failure to carry out tasks lets themselves down, as well as the boss.

"*When you strengthen others, your level of influence with them is increased. When you go out of your way on behalf of others - you build up credit with them. By strengthening others, you place yourself on the subordinates side*" (Kouzes and Posner, 1988 : 163).

Clearly then, an axiom behind the effective development of subordinates, is the acceptance of the responsibility to develop and empower people by leaders within an organisation who have the capacity and authority to make a difference.

In terms of the leadership questionnaire the following statements measure the exhibition of empowerment by a leader in an organisational context.

- Creates conditions where employees are willing, able and allowed to perform job related activities (socialised power).
- Removes organisational obstacles hindering personal growth in other people (aware of organisational constraints).
- Helps people achieve more accurate; more inspiring and more empowering views of reality (current reality).
- Views people as creative and competent (positive regard).
- Creates and encourages an opportunity for self development and continual learning in others (developmental role).

2.6.1 DEVELOPING AND CREATING EMPOWERMENT - A PARADIGM SHIFT

An empowered person sees change as central to growth (Peters, 1988) and as a leader is able to create challenges for others out of the change process (Falkenburg, 1990; Kelly, 1986). This necessitates an ability to think creatively (Carkhuff, 1988) and to tolerate ambiguity (Manning, 1988). The empowered person has a sense of personal mastery, or a

belief that they can initiate change (Senge, 1990) to the benefit of self and the organisation. This presupposes that the individual is willing, able and allowed to develop and take initiative (Human, 1989) and has the sensory awareness to diagnose ineffectual activity and implement the necessary corrective actions according to a specific goal or vision. In this way people become processors and creators of new information and products rather than responding in a prescribed way to selected stimuli (Carkhuff, 1988), thereby generating organisational growth and renewal (Senge, 1990a).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) point out the reciprocity and interdependence between empowerment and leadership, and it therefore follows that an empowered person will exhibit the four strategies of leadership, namely creating meaning, managing attention, engendering trust and the management of self. The first three competencies can be described as the act of empowering others, while the management of self refers more to the effect or personal characteristics of an empowered person. In this respect the management of self competencies referred to in the questionnaire indicating empowerment (Appendix 1) include :

- Nurturing and developing strengths and weaknesses, with a realistic view of oneself.
- Experiencing life as having a high degree of meaning and opportunity.
- Committed to self development and continual learning
- Clearly defined sense of responsibility for initiating change
- Independently processes information and initiating action.

The need for a paradigm shift in the way leaders view others as a precursor to leadership, and building on the premise of competence (Hall, 1990) is the concept of metanoic (fundamental shift of mind) or learning organisations. The rate at which organisations learn may become their only source of competitive advantage. The link between leadership, organisational growth, learning and empowerment is underscored by Peter Senge (1990). He points out that the days of the authoritarian or inspirational leader who learns for the organisation where the *'top thinks and the local acts'* no longer suffices in today's competitive and dynamic business environment.

Senge (1990) also underscores the fundamental role of the leader in facilitating a learning culture.

"In the 1990's, the companies that will excel will be the ones that tap peoples capacity to learn at all levels of the organisation. Everyone must become a leader. And to lead, one has to learn." (Senge, 1990a)

Although human beings are designed for learning and born with intrinsic motivation, dignity and curiosity, our prevailing system of management has destroyed our people (Deming in Senge 1990). There is a fifty percent chance that every person in the workforce will see his and her company disappear before retiring, because even the most successful companies are afflicted by learning disabilities which are tragic for children, but can be fatal for the organisation. Over the long run, superior performance depends on superior learning or the ability to experiment in the margin (Senge, 1990a).

The difference between leadership and management is the difference between adaptive and generative learning. Increasing adaptiveness to change is the first stage in moving towards a learning organisation.

However, the human impulse extends beyond coping or adaptive learning to be generative, or expand our capability. Argyris and Schon (1978) distinguished between "*single-loop*" learning in which individuals or groups adjust their behaviour relative to fixed goals, norms and assumptions, and "*double-loop*" learning, in which goals, norms and assumptions, as well as behaviour are open to change. This requires the ability of leaders to help people see beyond the superficial conditions and events (which are reactive) into the underlying causes of problems - and therefore to see new possibilities for shaping the future (Senge, 1990a : 12).

"Linear information, Linear thinking and incremental strategies are no match for the turbulence of today's business climate. Extrapolating fails to recognise new unknowns and temporising solves nothing" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985:10).

Generative learning or systems thinking refers to second order as opposed to first order change (Spicer, 1990 : 14). To cope with change, individuals may adopt one of three strategies, namely:

- Regression or the application of force in the opposite direction, which is often accompanied by a desire to return to the *'good old days'*.

- First order coping : the attempt to streamline the existing coping mechanism by doing the same, only more of it.

- Second order coping : the shift to new paradigms, new assumptions and new behaviours (Spicer, 1990 : 14).

Regression would require immediate therapeutic or *'stress management'* attention as a necessary but short term solution. Only once the concerns of people have been dealt with can they begin to hear and see alternatives. A first order training solution may be to increase managers interpersonal, planning or delegating skills in order to cope more effectively. Second order change however requires challenging and identifying managers underlying assumptions about people as incompetent or *'children'* who need to be controlled because they cannot be trusted and therefore kept in the dark and distant from information. Perhaps this is the reason so many equal opportunity programmes fail, because they rely on first order training, rather than simultaneously working on *'white attitudes'* that hinder the upward mobility of black people into real managerial positions (Holmeyr, 1898).

Second order change has critical implications for organisation development requiring trainers of exceptional calibre who understand the value of generative change and strategic thinking that can view the world from a systemic rather than event perspective. This requires a paradigm shift to focus on leadership development as opposed to management development.

2.7 LEADERSHIP VS MANAGEMENT

The seminal work in distinguishing between traditional management and transformational leadership was done by Zaleznik (1977). He elaborated on the difference along a number of dimensions or categories.

A manager essentially sees goals as occuring due to external circumstances (Zaleznik, 1977) and changing events (Senge, 1991) and consequently reacts to circumstances after they have occured due to

an external locus of control. Consequently, managers focus on the present and administering and maintaining systems (Bennis and Nanus, 1985) in the focus or getting the task done correctly. The instinct for survival (Zalzenik, 1977) leads to a reliance on proven tools of planning and budgeting and a tendency to conserve affairs and to rely upon routine rather than interpersonal involvement which may produce unpredictable change. This would lead to a tendency to rely on positional power (McClelland, 1973) and to operate from a premise of viewing people as incompetent, and therefore not to be trusted. Development of staff in terms of the managers win-lose power orientation is not a priority.

In contrast, a leader is someone who operates from an active attitude towards goals and as part of self management (Bennis and Nanus, 1985) sees themself as a source of action by employing systems thinking (Senge, 1991). A leader has a clear vision of the future and is active in influencing and guiding people while creating a context that is meaningful for others (Frankl, 1984). This presupposes the ability to empathise (Zaleznik, 1977) with people while trusting and relying on others because they are viewed as creative and competent (Human, 1989). Consequently, the leader adopts the active role of teacher and creates a learning culture (Senge, 1991) together with the removal of organisational obstacles hindering personal growth in others - a prerequisite to empowerment. Fundamentally, the leader as peacemaker risks conflict as an integral part of individual and organisational growth, as opposed to the manager as a peacemaker who avoids contentious issues (Manning, 1988).

A leader has the courage of his/her convictions and links efficiency with effectiveness by facing fundamental issues preventing organisational growth. This concern with effectiveness through people is elaborated on by Bennis and Nanus (1985 : 21).

"*The problem with many organisations and especially the ones that are failing, is that they tend to be overmanaged and underled. This is the profound difference between management and leadership and both are important. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right things right*".

Table 2.2 will summarise the difference between leadership and management.

Table 2.2 LEADERSHIP VS MANAGEMENT

Category	Management	Leadership
Change	Peacemakers - maintenance work, sustaining the present (Manning 1988) Repeates and follows what is desirable and necessary (Zaleznik 1977) Administers (Bennis 1988) Maintains Regression, first order change (Spicer 1989)	Peacemakers - fostering change and creating the future Changes the way people think about what is desirable, possible and necessary Innovates Develops Second order (fundamental change)
People	Relies on systems	Relies on people
Control	Relies on control	Counts on trust
Attention	Does things right	Does the right things right (Bennis & Nanus)
Planning	Things of today (Nixon 1992)	Strategic thinking - day after tomorrow
Thinking	Focus on present Focus on getting things done Events (reactive) Patterns of behaviour	Vision of the future and strategy to get there people's view of reality Systemic structure (generative divergent thinking - inter-relationships (Senge, 1991)
Role	Bringing about, implementing (Zaleznik 1977) Dressmaker Pupil	Influencing, guiding, course action, opinion Designer (vision, social architecture) Teacher (more insightful views of reality, challenging assumptions) Steward (attitude of serving others) (Senge)
Attitude to Goals (Zaleznik 1977)	Impersonal, if not passive attitude. Goals arise out of necessity. External laws of control.	Active attitude to goals. Influencing and changing organisation. Internal laws of control Exercise personal choice and responsibility for change.
Meaning	Respond to meaning (Bennis 1969)	High degree of meaning. Manage and create meaning.
Work (Zaleznik 1977)	Reliant on planning, budgeting and other tools of management. Instinct for survival dominates need for risk.	Prepared to invest faith in others, excitement, risk opportunity. Faith in key executives judgement. Focus on meaning as the foundation of motivation. (Frankl, 1984)
Interpersonal	Maintains low level of emotional involvement, task oriented.	Ability to empathise - send and receive feedback Creators of trust.
Respond to trust Sense of self	Bennis and Nanus' management of trust, *sees self as conservative regulator of an existing order of affairs with which he personally identifies.*	Sense of self does not depend on membership, work *roles or social indicators of* identity. Seeks opportunity for change.

2.8 NEW THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

2.8.1 Robert Carkhuff - Empowering The Creative Leader In The Age Of New Capitalism

The following pointers are a summary of Carkhuff's approach to leadership and empowerment and has been included because this compliments and expands on the work of Bennis and Nanus (1985). Carkhuff has left his mark on the helping professions in shifting them to a 'skills honed' helping and psycho-educational approach. He is one of the most referenced counselling psychologists (Berenson, 1990) and ranked among the most cited social scientists of our time, a list which includes many historical figures such as Dewey, Freud, Marx, Piaget, Rogers and Skinner (Garfield 1978 in Berenson 1990).

In essence, Carkhuff is concerned with the actualisation of an organisations human potential, which has a direct impact on economic productivity.

"*For most American Corporations, in the Age of information, eighty-five per cent of economic productivity growth is due to the synergistic interaction of human capital (HC) and information capital (IC). HC is the source of the next market sensitive idea. IC is the operational system for the last idea. While HC and IC will create the future, these sources of variance for high performance are either entirely absent or receive token attention in corporate strategy formulation.*" (Carkhuff, 1989 : II)

Individuals and organisations are empowered through the learning and use of core educational skills of thinking, relating and planning which when achieved on critical mass, *'break the generic code of culture change'*. In this way employees are empowered to create systems of their own and corporate growth and renewal are no longer leader dependent.

Empowering people involves *'the sharing of power and authorising people to think and make decisions'*. Moreover, empowering emphasises skilling people in thinking skills necessary to discharge their responsibilities (Carkhuff, 1988). Empowerment also involves the best *'fit'* between the motives of the individual and the mission of the organisation. When the individual mission converges with the organisational mission, then all tasks have meaning.

Thinking Skills.

By far the majority of humans are conditioned responders - people who *'hear'* or receive only the input for which they have a response. The great paradox is that conditioned responders who avoid and distort information input, to serve their conditioned comfort zones are often very unhappy people. These *'dinosaurs'* of the information age are increasingly isolated as they teeter precariously on the edge of extinction.

A minority of personnel (10-20%) fall into the category of participative learners, who are most effective in considering alternate courses of action to achieve goals. However, they do not process the iterations of input and feedback to shape tailored products with maximum effectiveness and efficiency.

Less than five per cent of personnel - the processors - elicit and expand their information inputs and sources, process the information by factoring the significant contributions, and then dedicate their processing toward incrementally greater productivity. They enjoy the creative negotiations of their own values and with the requirements of the information age - and are increasingly synergestic as they move toward their personal mission.

It is the processors of information that Carkhuffs' training programme aims to create through the process of explore, (experience); analyse (current systems); understand (goals) by synthesising new and productive systems. Thereafter people operationalise objectives and programmes to implement new system in terms of our original goals/strategy.

These skills are complemented by leaders ability to communicate interpersonally. This includes sharing concerns with personnel; comparing their images with his (thoughts), negotiating a convergence of images, and working with the personnel to plan to improve the performance. When they perform their tasks, the personnel feel that their frames of reference have been taken into consideration (they have been heard); the tasks defined in concrete terms, and the performance planned in do able steps.

In summary, Carkhuff comments on the need to move from conditioned responders to processors of information in order to create new products.

"Through the industrial age, conditioned responding dominated human endeavours. Through a process of association and reinforcement, people were conditioned to emit the responses upon the presentation of stimuli. Interpersonally all that was needed from the controller - parent, teacher or boss - was to direct the presentation of the stimulus and control the emission of the response. In business and industry we are most familiar with directing and controlling as the supervisory process. With the changing and growing information requirements of the electronics era, came the recognition that the controller does not have all the answers. With this recognition the interpersonal role has shifted a more facilitative process and the need for more egalitarian interpersonal relationships. Now it is assumed that neither party has the exclusive 'best answer'." (Carkhuff, 1988 : 90)

The principles of Carkhuff's model are represented below.



Figure 2.1 Empowering the Individual and Organisation (Carkhuff, R 1988 Empowering the Creative Leader in the New Age of Capitalism. Massachussets, Human Resource Press).

2.8.2 Senge - (1990) The Art And Practice Of Learning Organisations

This extract is based on the recent book by Peter Senge, "*The Fifth Discipline*", the art and practice of the learning organisation and papers obtained from his course on leadership, vision and systems thinking held at the Riviera Holiday Inn during August 1990. In this respect it is concerned with both theory and the practical training and development of leadership.

In "*The Fifth Discipline*", Senge, Director of the Systems Thinking and Organisational Learning Program at MIT's Sloan School of management describes how people in organisations can begin learning better and faster. Learning requires reversing the chronic reactiveness that pervades most modern corporations and learning how to create our future rather than reacting to our past.

This includes overcoming illusions or learning disabilities such as:

- Learning from experience.
  Most important managerial decisions have consequences not visible for years - yet we learn best when the consequences of our decisions are immediate and unambiguous. This may mean that twenty years experiences is really one year relived twenty times over, as we solve or respond to the same problem over and over again.

- Fixed on events.
  Focusing on events produces a reactive position, leaving us blind to the inter-relationship of events and to the slow gradual processes that are primary threats to a company's survival.

- The Myth of the Management team.
  Teams of brilliant individuals battle to achieve cohesion, partly because teams have pre-programmed responses to protect each other and themselves from pain, threat and surprise (ignoring the real problems and pretending all is okay). The result is *'skilled incompetence'* teams that grow incredibly efficient at keeping themselves from learning.

- Average will suffice.
  In the absence of a vision personal responsibility, and leadership,

organisations settle for mediocrity. According to Senge, the antidote to these learning disabilities lies in mastering the disciplines of the learning organisation. These principles include :

i. Building Shared Vision

Leadership starts with the principle of creative tension (Fritz, 1989). Creative tension comes from seeing clearly where we want to be (vision), and telling the truth about where we are, our current reality. The gap between the two generates a natural tension. Both components are essential in creating tension - which can be resolved in two basic ways : by raising current reality toward the vision, and by lowering the vision toward current reality. Creative tension generates energy to move reality more reliably towards our vision.

The principle of creative tension was used by Martin Luther King Jr. who said : *"Just as Socrates felt that it was necessary to create tension in the mind, so that individuals could rise from the bondage of myths and half truths ... so must we ... create the kind of tension in society that will help men rise from the dark depths of prejudice and racism."* (Senge, 1990b : 12)

Creative tension must not be confused with analysis, which traditionally explores current reality without encouraging a future vision.

The natural energy for changing reality comes from holding a picture of what might be that is more important to people than what is. Alternatively vision, without understanding current reality will more likely foster cynicism than creativity.

This principle helps to understand the impermanence of many change efforts. Many people find themselves motivated to change only when their problems are bad enough to leave them with no alternative. This works short term until the problems underpinning the change become less pressing or our attention is diverted. With problem solving the motivation for change is extrinsic. With vision and current reality viewed from a systems perspective learning becomes generative and not adaptive.

Building a shared vision generates commitment rather than compliance and involves overlapping the individual and organisational missions that result in synergy rather than dispersement.

ii. Personal mastery

This is the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening personal visions (for all aspects of our lives) and building capacity to attain our future. It involves learning how to focus our energies and being committed to seeing reality objectively. This in essence requires the individual accepting responsibility for introducing change.

iii. Mental Models

"*The eye cannot see the eye*". Rarely do we think about how we think; this is why organisations become frozen in dysfunctional assumptions and ways of operating. This discipline teaches us to turn the mirror inward so we can unearth the implicit pictures, images and generalizations and discover the powerful effects they have on our behaviour.

Leadership involves being aware of generalizations and untested assumptions we have and balancing Inquiry and Advocacy.

iv. Team Learning

Calling a group a *'team'* does not make it a team. Real teams are aligned around a common purpose and truly learn how to think together. This is the discipline of balancing discussion (where individuals voice their views) with dialogue, what the Greeks called 'dia-logos', the free flow of meaning that allows a team to discover insights not attainable individually.

v. Systems Thinking

Systems thinking is the fifth discipline, the discipline that integrates the other disciplines. Systems thinking provides a new language for seeing the whole beyond the parts, and for continually discovering how our actions shape our reality. This is the discipline of seeing beyond the events to the deeper causes, to patterns and include the following focus :

- Seeing inter-relationships and processes, beyond things or events. Bennis and Nanus (1985) comment on the Western world tendency to think in terms of a linear, cause - effect way, and the limitations in this regard.

  "Linear information, linear thinking and incremental strategies are no match for the turbulence of today's business climate. Extrapolating fails to recognise new unknowns, and temporising solves nothing"

  (Bennis and Nanus 1985 :10).

- Moving beyond blame - you and the core of your problems are part of a single system.

- Focusing on areas of high leverage - where change, with minimum of effort - leads to lasting significant improvement.

- Avoiding symptomatic solutions (short term solutions).

2.8.3 Follower expectations of leaders - Kouzes and Posner (1989).

Fund mentally, the authors point out that leaders can, by definition, only lead if they have followers. Kouzes and Posner have been included because of their research on the followers expectations of leadership which adds a further dimension to the reciprocity and complimentarity of the leader and the led. From a systemic point of view, the leader continually affects and is affected by the follower in an ongoing cycle.

Kouzes and Posner (1989a) base their findings on over five hundred case studies concerning the personal best experience of leaders and over six thousand interviews and questionnaires of followers. They list four essential characteristics that followers expect from leaders : honesty (integrity); competence (adding value); forward looking and inspiring. They also quote studies of factors underpinning perceived source credibility of a person which point out the importance of perceived trustworthiness, expertise and dynamism, which are strikingly similar to the expectations of leaders.

The authors cite research showing that management who were perceived to have high credibility, exhibited employees who had a correspondingly high commitment to the organisation, had similar values to those of their managers, and were more likely to talk about the organisation in positive terms.

Commenting on the difference between the process of leadership and management, Kouzes and Posner state that leadership appears to be the art of getting others to want to do something that the leader is convinced needs to be done. This compliments Bennis and Nanus' management of meaning and Frankl's (1984) intrinsic motivation where "*Most of us are looking for a calling, not a job. Most of us, like the assembly line worker, have jobs that are too small for our spirits - jobs that are not big enough for people*" (Kouzes and Posner, 1988b Tape 1).

A leader is someone who takes a routine job and creates that which is meaningful, new and transforms people in this process.

There are, according to research done by Kouzes and Posner (1989a), involving over 6000 followers, five actions that develop and fulfil follower expectations of leaders:

1. Challenging the process (change) - a vision of a better future.
2. Inspiring a shared vision.
3. Enabling others to act (empowerment).
4. Modelling the way (management of self).
5. Encouraging the heart.

These, from a follower perspective are remarkably similar to the leadership competencies described by Bennis and Nanus - developed from a leader perspective.

On a cognitive level, leaders perceive change as a challenge and reframe crises as a sense of opportunity. This must be communicated and turned into meaningful action for the common good.

Perhaps the most significant finding of the study is the view leaders have of their followers as creative and competent (Hall, 1990); and the communication of this to the primary customers - followers, with each contact being seen as a 'moment of truth' and opportunity to be

congruent in word and deed. This emphasis on communication emphasises the primacy of interpersonal skills, and the use of self as an instrument to develop trust and empower followers.

Kouzes and Posner (1989a) also comment on ways leaders lose their credibility with followers. The primary reason this occurs, according to their research is because of insensitivity to constituents. This can take the form of credibility being questioned or losing touch with constituents. The authors quote studies by the Centre for Creative Leadership in North Carolina showing the primary reason for a loss of credibility is the failure to empathise and understand others perspectives either through arrogance, pride, failure to listen or by taking people for granted. This relates to Senge's (1990) primary leadership role of steward - in service of others as a means of retaining credibility.

Retaining credibility also involves leaders being able to apply the notion of followership themselves. Leaders of necessity need to be in touch with the people they lead so that together they can move in a constant direction.

Further, leaders can lose credibility through a misuse of power or simply by lying. Concurring with McClellands' (1975) concept of primitive versus socialised power, successful leadership involves power in the service of others in contrast to power in the service of self. Commenting on lying, Kouzes and Posner cite a recent New York Times survey where only 32% of the public believes that most corporate executives are honest. Clearly this indicates a difference between what people expect and what they think they are receiving in terms of credible leadership.

Exhibiting all the leadership qualities thus far described however, does not guarantee that everyone will accept you as a leader - particularly if you are leading from a subordinate point of view. Leadership behaviour displayed by a subordinate may be perceived as disloyalty to the organisation, and if the subordinate has a different vision to those above him/her or the organisational hierarchy, the only solution may be to leave the company. This is due to the different expectations leaders have of followers - with the leader being 'allowed' to be forward looking and inspiring, while the subordinate is expected to be dependable and co-operative. This dilemma the authors refer to as the General McArthur Syndrome where, despite being a superb leader, McArthur was fired by President Trueman because he was not a good follower.

The follower exhibiting leadership behaviour must skilfully manage upwards by being honest, competent, enthusiastic and involve leaders in decisions, together with the sensitivity and awareness of leadership behaviour that can threaten superiors.

The manager, on the other hand, has to make a choice between the trade-off of change and growth and the subsequent instability and loss of control and the need to develop new products in an exponentially changing environment.

Kouzes and Posner articulate the dilemma as follows:

"On the one hand if organisations inhibit t[he] articulation of visions of the future - they will never grow a[nd] [to] create a climate that fosters leadership. On the other h[and] [wa]nt to subordinate themselves in a shared purpose [to] [lea]de. In these times of business transformation (and expo[nen]tial) however, it is probably wise and healthier to embrace more in[novation] we have in the past. If we expect people to take initiative in [the] numerous challenges, we have to relax expectations of devotion. In[stead] we must encourage all citizens to use imagination and vision. We must support efforts of these competent and responsible people to find solutions to problems confronting us - we must develop the leader in everyone" (Kouzes and Posner, 1989b: Tape III).

Finally, the distinction between leadership and management as defined by the dictionary underscores the importance of the leader stepping out and being willing to take a risk to create a new and better future. The Oxford dictionary word for leadership from the root means 'to go, to travel, to guide'. Management, on the other hand, originates from the latin word manos (hand) - to handle things. You can manage from a seated position using your hands, but leadership involves using your feet (and your head) on a journey to create a vision, meaning, trust and empower others to create a better future (Kouzes and Posner, 1989a).

2.8.4 CONGRUENCE OF LEADER-FOLLOWER PERCEPTIONS

Perceptions are the mental image created through sensory impressions of events in the internal world. Its base is past experience which can be accurate, inaccurate, negative or positive. Needs, beliefs,

emotions and expectations affect the way we construct our perceptual world and our sensory evidence is not always reliable (Wade, 1987).

Baron (1987) concurs stating that perception is a model of the individual's view of the world. Rules, convention, norms, notes, stereotypes and attitudes all govern the way the individual believes he sees. We impose our own structure on what we see. We tend to organise information in a way that is predictable and makes sense into a perceptual set (Baron, 1987).

Consequently, the reason why change is not embraced by many people could be that it requires changed perceptions, or a changed world view before constructive action is taken. In the absence of perceived competence, change may require people to embrace stability or a place along the stability, change continuum.

Leadership as a change process, of necessity must clarify self perceptions and the perceptions of others in order to provide a basis for co-ordinated activity.

"*All organisations depend on the existence of shared meanings and interpretations of reality which facilitate co-ordinated action*" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985 : 39).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) point out that the worldwide commitment and credibility problems facing organisational leaders is of their own making. Leaders have failed to instal meaning, trust and empowerment in their followers, because they are out of touch with themselves, and the people they serve. Kouzes and Posner (1989) concur stating that the primary reason for a loss of credibility is leadership that is insensitive to its constituents. They quote studies by the Centre for Creative Leadership showing a failure to empathise and an inability to understand others perspectives through arrogance, pride, failure to listen or taking people for granted, as reasons for credibility loss.

In essence, distorted perceptions occur because leaders don't apply refined interpersonal skills and operate from an egocentric perspective rather than as a steward - in service of others (Senge, 1990). This relates to the disuse of power for self gain in service of self and consequent mistrust in constituents.

In contrast the management of self involves the ability to recognise strengths and to compensate for weaknesses, including an eagerness

to get feed-back concerning performance and the impact behaviour is having on others. This includes the realisation that reality for constituents is their perception of events rather than the intention of the leader. Shared perceptions also involve leaders who have the sensory awareness to identify activity that is not working and to accordingly change this and accepting personal responsibility for change, rather than blaming other people.

Distorted perceptions indicate a failure to demonstrate Boyatsis' (1982) competencies of accurate self assessment, and perceptual objectivity including having a realistic grounded view of self, and ability to be relatively objective, rather than being limited by excessive subjectivity or personal biases. Shared perceptions also require an element of self control or the ability to inhibit personal needs in service of organisational goals (Boyatsis, 1982).

Mark McCormack, cited in a R.E.S. International Brochure (1991), an international executive recruitment firm points out that performance problems often stem from a disparity between a manager and his/her subordinate's perception of key job priorities. Bennis and Nanus (1985) concur, using the term introgenic, where illness or declining productivity results from ineffective management behaviour.

In terms of the above it is hypothesised that through the exhibition of leadership competencies excellent leaders will have a significantly smaller perceptual gap differential with their followers, than the average group. In other words, effective leadership involves a shared and inspiring vision, constant communication, trust and congruence between word and deed, and sound interpersonal skills eminating in a perceptual overlap with followers.

2.9 BENNIS AND NANUS - LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES AND COMPETENCIES

In an effort to better understand and participate in this age of change, Bennis and Nanus see leadership as the central ingredient to the way progress is created and to the way organisations develop and survive. They conducted a series of ninety in-depth interviews and observations of top leaders in the U.S.A. Sixty of these were from business, with the remainder including leaders from across the political spectrum, orchestra leaders, film producers, athletics coaches and others.

Three basic questions were asked of all participants:

- What are your strengths and weaknesses?
- Was there any particular experience or event in your life that influenced your management philosophy or style?
- What were the major decision points in your career and how do you feel about your choices now?

The researchers stress that there seemed to be no obvious pattern for their respondents' success. Personalities, physical characteristics, managerial styles all differed. Yet, by careful probing and synthesis of data, the researchers were able to isolate four areas of competency, four types of human handling skills that they believed applied to all ninety of their participants. These they call *'strategies'*.

At this point it becomes relevant to distinguish between a strategy and a competency. A competency refers to a persons ability to do something, or to demonstrate a particular skill or activity which goes further than the *'potential'* to perform. Because Bennis and Nanus' study was based on what effective leaders do, they were able to isolate four areas of competence common to all leaders. These they termed strategies or approaches from a range of choices that together constituted overall leadership competence that impacted on the growth and development of the organisation.

It is important to note that leadership is the sum total of the four competencies and strategies described by Bennis and Nanus. The four competencies are interdependant and build on each other. Effective leadership, however, must display all elements of vision, meaning, communication and trust which are generally sequential. First, leaders need to capture people's attention, through an inspiring vision of the future. This then needs to be communicated through the organisation to ensure common *'views'* of reality and to motivate people. Trust is essential in order to commit people to action, particularly in adverse circumstances. These three strategies are dependent on the leaders' self management, or ability to accept responsibility for personal action and change and to have the awareness of inappropriate actions and independently alter these in terms of organisational objectives. The net consequence of all of these competencies is empowerment.

Bennis and Nanus summarise the interdependence of the leadership strategies:

"Leadership involves positioning of a set of actions necessary to implement the vision of the leader. If vision is the idea, then positioning is the niche the leader establishes. For this niche to be achieved, the leader must be the epitome, not only of clarity (of communication), but of consistancy of reliability (self management), through establishing the position - and staying the course - leadership establishes trust" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985:46).

2.9.1 Strategy I - Attention through Vision

This includes the creation of focus of where the organisation is going and the transmission of unbridled clarity of what is wanted by the employees. This is a vision of what "*might be*" a new direction or a mental image of the organisation (Bennis and Nanus, 1985 : 89).

The vision must articulate a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation, a condition that is better than the present.

Leaders are constantly aware of exactly what they want, are extremely results oriented and use this vision to create a focus of dreams, goals, values and activities for the people they lead (Backer, 1984 : 42). This vision can be as vague as a dream or as precise as a goal or mission statement. This strategy then has two components : The creation of the vision and the providing of focus that animates, inspires followers and transforms purpose into action. This allows both the leader and follower to make choices in terms of their time and activity and consequently to distribute decision making widely.

A clear direction that is shared enables individuals to find their own roles within the organisation and helps people engage in a creative and purposeful venture. Under these conditions the human energies of an organisation are aligned toward a common end, rather than fragmented. The leader, by focusing attention on the emotional and spiritual resources of the organisation and its values and operations engenders commitment rather than compliance. The manager by contrast, operates on the physical resources of the organisation, on its capital, human skills, raw materials and technology.

The vision does not originate from the leader personally, but from others. Bennis and Nanus (1985) recall the example of John Kennedy

who spent a great deal of time reading history and studying the ideas of great thinkers, and Luther King who studied religious and ethical ideologies as well as the traditions of his own and other peoples. There are three sources from which to seek guidance; the past (trends; outside indicators); the present (internal and external swot analyses and small experiments) and the future (scenario plans and predictions). This presupposes the ability to listen effectively and discern what information is important. It is in the interpretation of this information that the real art of leadership lies and the final choice of creating a new future. This requires selecting, synthesising and articulating skills which must be formulated into an appropriate vision that combines both reason and intuition as well as the ability to draw boundaries in terms of time and focus. These judgement calls include exploring the *'what if' consequence of certain decisions.*

Table 2.3 includes additional leadership models that complement and expand on the Bennis and Nanus competence approach. Kouzes and Posner (1988) point out the importance of inspiring a vision of the future that exists others; Limmerick (1990) the certainty of purpose; Kelly (1986) the need for clear driving philosophies; and competencies that require conceptualisation and logical thoughts (Boyatsis, 1982). Senge (1990) und ores the importance of a shared vision that results in alignment , s); Carkhuff (1988) - the need to centralise by mission; Peters (1988) the importance of vision and values and Falkenburg (1990) the importance of a vision that inspires and foc ng on spiritual resources and fundamental principles of truth, justice, love, dignity and quality.

In terms of the above, the following competency concept statements are included in the leadership questionnaire, elaborating on the activity of developing a vision of the future. The brackets illustrate the focus of the competence statement.

- Develops and communicates a clear vision of the future of the organisation or department in order to provide direction for people (organisation).

- Expects uncompromising standards of excellence and concern with improving previous standards in pursuit of objectives (excellence).

- Creates focus and transmits clarity concerning what is expected from employees (fundamentals).
- Expresses a sense of mission that catches people's attention, inspires commitment and transforms purpose into action (attention).
- Seeks to understand what is preventing an organisation or department from growth and achieving its objectives (current reality).

2.9.2 Strategy II - Meaning Through Communication

This refers to both the ability to communicate a vision and the ability to provide meaning for people in the organisation.

Bennis and Nanus (1985 : 39) point out that all organisations depend on the existence of shared meanings and interpretations of reality, which facilitate co-ordinated action. This meaning needs to be communicated and involves more than verbal expression. Bennis and Nanus echo Peters and Waterman (1982) by referring frequently to the use of symbols, and the ability to express ideas graphically, in order to achieve emotional richness in the message. The purpose of their communication is to influence and organise meaning for members in the organisation so that they feel empowered.

Bennis found that many of his interviewees were not especially articulate in the conventional sense but displayed the ability to create the right metaphor. For example *"one man I interviewed had a safety belt on his chair of the type found on aeroplanes, his purpose : to communicate to his staff that the enterprise is taking off"* (Backer, 1984 : 42).

A vision or idea requires an acceptance of that idea which requires creating an *'audience'* who is willing to pay attention or *'hear'* the vision. The best ideas are only as good as their ability to attract attention in the social environment. Leadership creates a *'new audience'* for it's ideas because it alters the shape of understanding by transmitting information in such a way that it fixes and secures tradition. Leadership by communicating meaning, creates a commonwealth of learning and that in turn is what effective organisations are (Bennis and Nanus 1985 : 42). In this manner the leader becomes a social architect who understands the organisation and shapes the way it works. Social

architecture is intangible although it governs the way people act, the values, norms, and content and quality of inter-personal interaction. In so doing, employees align themselves behind a vision, and become committed to it as their behaviour, and thinking is reinforced on a daily basis.

Change in the social architecture or culture of an organisation requires attention to an organisations structure, and policies, procedures, reward systems and hidden, often implicit assumptions about the way things are done around here - all of which reinforce the company's vision. If an organisation is to be transformed the leader must create and articulate new values and norms, offer new visions, and use a variety of tools to transform, support and institutionalise new meanings and directions.

The management of meaning compliments the work of Victor Frankl as described in Mans Search for Meaning (1984) and cuts to the root of what motivates people. Frankl contends that striving to find meaning in one's life is the primary motivational force in people, in contrast to the "*will to pleasure* (Freud) *or the will to power*" (Adler), (Frankl 1984).

Psychology today can be divided into a number of groups. The behaviourist approach sees people as being reactive and whose behaviour is totally determined by inner drives and outer conditions. The approach favours objectivity and causal explanations. The Freudian psycho-analytic approach sees people as reactive beings controlled and unable to escape the I'ds influence.

In contrast the phenomenological and humanistic approaches attempt to deal with issues such as choice and responsibility, values and meaning in an effort to understand humanity (Misiak and Sexten, 1973) Frankl (1984) points out that life can be made meaningful in three ways. Firstly, through what we give to life (creative values); what we take from life (experiential values) and the choice or stand we take to events that happen to us.

The leader through creating the social architecture of an organisation taps into peoples need for meaning and intrinsic motivation by communicating and providing a context where peoples creative and experiential values converge with those of the organisations. The leader can also model the way to respond to setbacks or failure which will be explored under the management of self (Bennis and Nanus 1985).

Table 2.3 lists additional leadership models and research that compliment the management of meaning through communication. Limmerick (1990) points to the certainty of purpose and use of language, knowledge and symbols in the communication of this purpose. Kelly (1986), in a South African study, concurs on the need to communicate meaning, as do Ball and Asbury (1989); Senge (1990) and Manning (1988). Peters (1988) elaborates on the use of work teams and individual ownership and shared values as the vehicles through which a vision is derived and meaning is communicated. Carkhuff (1988) points to the importance of thinking and planning skills as well as entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial activities in building a social architecture that creates meaning.

In terms of the above, the following competencies have been developed, and included in the questionnaire:

- Consciously communicates a focus that is meaningful for people, through verbal expression, symbios and graphic expression of ideas (expression/communication).
- Fosters strategic change while maintaining a clear purpose for the organisation (meaning in change).
- Communicates through understanding and empathy a sense of meaningfulness in work (communication).
- Raises the aspirations, shapes the values and mobilises the potential of followers in a way that improves the quality of their lives (creating meaning).
- Inc[illegible]es followers to act for common goals, thereby creating synergy [illegible]d alignment in action (synergy through meaning).

2.9.3 Strategy III : - Trust Through Positioning

Trust is the *'lubrication which makes it possible for organisations to work'* and it is the determined persistent stance of the leader that creates trust. Leadership is doing the right thing with absolute clarity and reliability. Staying the course, maintaining basic goals and values against all odds is as important as selecting the right vision and values in the first place (Backer, 1984 : 42).

Bennis (1985) sees trust as the *'glue that maintains an organisations integrity'*, and implies accountability, predictability, and reliability and is established by the clear articulation of the organisations positioning by the leaders consistency in a course of action.

The most common statement made about Bennis' 90 leaders by their board members and staff was that they were *'all of a piece'* and congruent in word, vision and deed. In this way leaders enrol themselves (and others) in the belief of their ideals as attainable, and their behaviour exemplifies the ideals in action. Leaders place a premium on reliability, persistence and clarity of a position which they continually advocate. The authors point to exceptional people who have made continual sacrifices, sometimes even facing death for causes in which they believed, because they chose an angle and stuck resolutely to it.

Ultimately it is this relentless dedication that engages trust (Bennis and Nanus 1985 : 46). The significance of positioning is best exemplified in the two notions of organisational integrity and persistent constant advocacy. Trust is essential for *'organisational integrity'*. Bennis and Nanus compare an effective organisational structure to a healthy individual - with a healthy identity. The alignment of various subcomponents or personalities is a precondition of mental health or efficient organisational functioning.

The significance of *'staying the course'* or consistency is particularly relevant in the calculated risk taking component of leadership. Innovation - any new idea - by definition will not be accepted at first. Innovation causes resistance; defences to set in and opposition to form (Bennis and Nanus 1985 : 52). It takes repeated attempts, endless demonstrations, and monotonous rehearsals before innovation can be accepted and internalised by any organisation. It requires courageous patience.

The significance of trust on an interpersonal level is underscored by the premium psychotherapy has placed on creating an environment where people can open up and explore themselves. Only once trust has been established can the therapist begin to help clients look at how they are contributing to a situation, and therefore what they can change or do differently. Earning the right to confront someone, or to challenge their belief systems is an essential ingredient in the complexities of the change process - whether on an individual or organisational level (Carkhuff, 1988).

Table 2.3 - Includes different leadership models that elaborate on the competency of trust through positioning. Boyatsis (1982) within his human resource management cluster of effective management competencies identifies the importance of having a positive regard for others and for managing group process. Effective leaders demonstrate trust through being in touch with people, having superb interpersonal skills, candour and putting people in a position to achieve their goals (Kelly, 1986). This requires autonomous delegated authority which empowers people and openly shared goals and values for collaborative - individualism (Limmerick, 1989). In this way people experience ownership (Peters, 1989) as the leader relies on people (Manning, 1988) and individual contributions are recognised, and their accomplishments celebrated (Kouzes and Posner, 1988). This implies that a leader has human and situational empathy (Carkhuff, 1988). Through a combination of interpersonal trust and a leader consistently and passionately advocating a position, people become *'enrolled'* in a vision of the future that has intrinsic motivation for them (Senge, 1990).

In terms of the above, the following trust competencies were included in the questionnaire.

- Demonstrates trustworthiness and consistency in behaviour that is congruent in word and deed (congruence).
- Inspires and develops trust, through expressing positive regard and belief in others (individual trust).
- Manifests accountability, predictability and reliability of an organisation or departments position and viewpoint (constant positioning).
- Articulates and embodies a moral code that cares about people (innate worth of people).
- Relies on people and enables them to more purposefully manage and enrich their lives (trust/socialised power).

2.9.4 Strategy IV - The Deployment Of Self Through Positive Self Regard

"When Yen Ho was about to take up his duties as tutor to the heir of Ling, Duke of Wei, he went to Ch'u Po Yu for advice. 'I have to deal', he said, 'with a man of depraved and murderous disposition ... How is one to deal with a man of this sort?' I am glad that you asked this question ... The first thing you must do is not to improve him, but to improve yourself"
Taoist story of Ancient China (Bennis and Nanus, 1985 : 55).

Bennis and Nanus found that top executives spend ninety per cent of their time with others and much of this was taken up by people problems. Without the management of self, which has an interpersonal and intrapersonal component, leaders will do more harm than good. Bennis refers to the term *"introgenic"* which refers to illness caused by Doctors and hospitals as side effects of medical intervention - stating that managers too can be *"stress carriers"* and cause as well as cure problems.

Essential to the creative deployment of self is a positive self regard. This includes :

- knowledge of ones strengths
- capacity to develop and nurture these with discipline.
- ability to discern or fit between ones strengths and weaknesses and the organisations needs and compensate for weaknesses.

The result of positive self regard was to induce the same in other people indicating the contagiousness of the leaders presence and a tendency to expect from others what you expect of yourself. This also illustrates, says a C.E.O. in the study, that individual potential is a derivative of self esteem (Bennis and Nanus 1985 : 64).

This *"pygmalian effect"* of getting what you expect from others compliments the essential leadership belief of seeing others as creative and competent (Hall 1990).

Positive self regard is related to *"emotional wisdom"* which includes five key skills found in all ninety leaders:

- the ability to accept people as they are and use empathy to understand individual's worlds;
- the ability to approach relationships and problems in terms of the present, rather than the past;
- the ability to treat those who are close to you with the same courteous attention that you extend to strangers and casual acquaintances (family and work);
- the ability to trust others;
- the ability to get on without constant approval and recognition from others.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) identified an interesti. ' cognitive approach that leaders had in responding to failure. Leaders simply did not think about failure nor used synonym words for the concept. They sa' failure as feedback from which they ! arnt to do something differentl,. This assumes responsibility to initiate and sustain change or an internal locus of control.

Leaders constantly face criticism and the need to understand events as they really are, which Senge (1990) calls current reality which is used, together with a vision of the future to create d, namic tension and choose an appropriate strategy for the organisation.

Table 2.3 records the results of leadership studies and models which elaborate on the management of self. Boyatsis (1982) found the following competencies to include effective self-management: accurate self assessment, self control, stamina, concern with impact and self confidence. Limmerick (1990) found that effective Australian C.E.O's were pro-active, individualistic and self aware; exhibited change management skills; were good at motivating and had a sense of personal mastery. Senge (1990) defines personal mastery as the ab' y to accept responsibility for change and the achievement of a clea. vision. This presupposes that leaders identify and challenge belief systems or *'mental models'* that hinder the sense of creative deployment of self. Peters (1988) points to the importance of self esteem and continuous learning to expand *'self'* while Kelly (1986) cor. urs that these leadership competencies can be developed. South African leaders, she found were continually looking for new challenges; prepared to risk, loved work, were alert to learn and had confidence

and faith in their own judgement. Leadership requires energy, initiative and time at the *'coal face'* (Ball and Asbury, 1989) as the leader becomes a role model for others (Kouzes and Posner, 1988). This requires the ability to foster change through understanding human nature and *"tolerating ambiguity and accepting responsibility"* (Manning, 1988). In addition the leader requires mastery of core thinking, planning and relating skills (Carkhuff, 1988).

The result of these four leadership competencies is to empower others to translate intention into reality and sustain it.

"Effective leaders will reap the human harvest of their efforts by the simple action of powers reciprocal : empowerment. It puts the duality in motion - power to empowerment, empowerment back to power. This reciprocity creates its own rhythm, its own vitality and momentum" (Bennis and Nanus, 1989 : 80).

In terms of the above, the following activities characterise a Leader who is competent in the management of self - and one included in the leadership questionnaire.

- Development of personal strengths and weaknesses by the leader, through self awareness and a realistic view of him/herself (self awareness).
- Is committed to self development and continual learning (growth and change).
- Perceives change and threatening situations as a challenge and opportunity for growth (cognitive hardiness).
- Accepts responsibility for creating individual life experience rather than blaming the situation or people for misfortune (responsibility and internal locus of control).
- Able to diagnose and change inappropriate behaviour and independently take constructive action (processers of information/personal mastery).

2.10 SUMMARY

In summary, Table 2.3 overleaf, illustrates various leadership research together with internationally and locally renowned authors and how they compliment and expand on the competence model of Bennis and Nanus as a focal point - thereby arriving at the leadership competence statements included in the questionnaire.

Table 2.3 LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES/APPROACHES

LIMMERICK	KELLY SKILLS AND DEVELOPMENT OF CEO SUCCESS	FULL & ASSURY	BOYATZIS R DIRECTING SUBORDINATES CLUSTER	KOUZES & POSNER	BENNIS & NANUS	SENGE	CARKHUFF	PETERS	MANNING	FALKENBURG
• Loosely coupled systems handle change more effectively • Collaboration individualism	• Ability to cope with and initiate change • Leadership is process • In touch and empower people	• Leader key to successful company • Team that hums • Training	• Effective use of power • Developing others • Spontenaity	• Leadership is process - not a position • Enabling others to act - foster collaboration - strengthen others	• FOCUS • Empowering others	• Personal Mastery Empowerment • Self • Others • Metanoic learning organisation	• Empowering the creative leader (everyone) • Processors of information	• Everyone is a leader • Change centred to growth • Growing leaders	• Leader as change agent • Recruit and train • Competencies • Leadership a scarce resource • Empowerment	Leadership - creating challenge out of change
• Manager of meaning - vision, mission, identity, culture	Clear driving philosophies	Vision creates meaning	LEADERSHIP CLUSTER Conceptualisation Logical thought	• Inspiring a vision - envision the future - enlist others	• Management of meaning	• Vision / Purpose Mission • Systems	• Centralise by mission	• Vision and values	Align behind common objective • Communicate vision	Vision that inspires Provides meaning and purpose
• Certainty of purpose • Use of language, knowledge, symbols	• Communicate • Understand fundamental principles and processes of business	Communicate	GOAL AND ACTION MANAGEMENT • Efficiency orientation • Proactivity • Diagnostic use of concepts	• Challenging the process - search for opportunities - experiment and take risks	• Management of attention	• Alignment	Critical Mass • Thinking Planning skills • Entrepreneurial • Intrapreneurial	• Work Teams	• Does the RIGHT things	• Reduce stress • Focus on spiritual resources • Fundamental principles and ultimate values (truth, justice, love, dignity, quality) • Service, quality, integrity, growth
• Autonomous delegated authority - empower the individual • Openly shared goals, values for collaborative action	• Being in touch with people • Interpersonal skills • Warmth/ candour • Put people in position to achieve goals	Encourage the head and heart	HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CLUSTER • Positive regard others • Managing group process	• Encouraging the heart - recognise individual contributions - Celebrate accomplishments	• Management of trust	• Enrolment	• Situational Empathy - identify gaps Explore, analyze, synthesize, understand, act	• Ownership	Relies on people	Creativity • Merge individual and organisational excellence • Empathy
• Proactive, individualistic, politically aware • Empathy • Change skills • Networking • Personal mastery	• Competencies can be developed • Lookout for new challenges • Prepared to risk • Confidence and faith in own judgement • Love to work • Allow to learn	• Energy • Initiative • "Goal Face" MBWA Work is play	• Accurate Self Assessment • Self Control • Stamina • Concern with impact • Self confidence	• Modeling the way - set example - plan small wins • Credibility, honest, competent, inspiring	• Management of Self	• Personal Mastery • Improve Mental Models	• Core thinking relating planning skills • Move from conditioned responders; Participative learners to processors of information	• Self esteem Continuous learning	Foster change • Understand human Nature • Tolerate ambiguity and accept responsibility • Gut feel	• View change as opportunity • Courage, toughness/ focus on principles • Patience and understanding

CHAPTER III

LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the context of leadership implementation within organisations and its importance as a vehicle for individual and economic growth, and has been included in terms of the action orientation of the research. The initial chapters will deal with the qualitative and quantitative failure of management education which is based on a misguided assumption of what leadership is. Thereafter, the problems of training methodology will be explored.

Any strategy or model is only as good as its implementation which is ninety per cent of the change effort (Fombum et al 1984). The chapter will end with recommendations for the effective development of leadership within organisations, and will be displayed in Table 3.1 as a summary of the literature dealing with leadership development.

Significant effort and expenditure on management training and education followed the recognition of the importance of management as a permanent institution. Company interest in leadership worldwide is evident in the number of companies expounding the *'word'* in their mission statements and strategic plans (Lapinsky, 1989).

Management development activities can be seen to comprise two major categories, namely formal management education through academic institutions and business schools and informal development programmes which do not result in formal qualifications but which assist managers to acquire additional tools and insights (Cunningham, 1988).

The effectiveness of both formal and informal management development has been seriously questioned (Livingston, 1971; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Research has constantly highlighted the fact that managers and Chief Executive Officers perceive formal management training as having contributed very little to their overall success (Hogarth, 1979; Margerison and Kakabadse, 1984; Cunningham, 1988; Pruett, 1989; Margerison and Kakabadse, 1989).

This question mark concerning the credibility of professional management development is of immense concern in light of the considerable expenditure outlayed by organisations, and increasing needs for competent managers and leaders to impact on an exponentially changing environment. These changes are reflected in the behaviours described in the new theories of leadership discussed in Chapter II.

Many managers are unfortunately not evolving with and actively influencing the greater environmental and organisational complexity that characterises their lives. A general pattern of complacency and limited vision has developed with many leaders opting for known technology and predictable processes and isolation (stability) from situations that generate anxiety (Andrews, 1988; Kolb et al 1988). Compounding the questionable competence of existing managers is the widening demographic shortage of future managers. South Africa is faced with a dearth of leadership skills with serious implications for organisational effectiveness (Spies, 1984; Andrews, 1988; Sadie, 1988).

Leadership, it appears, is the scarcest resource of any organisation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982; Manning, 1988). From this perspective it is evident that an organisations ability to survive and thrive is constrained by the capability of its managers. Yet, research by Ball and Asbury (1989) indicates that invariably the critical success factor behind successful organisations is the leader or C.E.O. The apparent failure of leadership development initiatives therefore has serious implications for the survival and overall performance of organisations.

The reasons for this failure will be reviewed together with recommendations for future action to fill this gap. In this regard this research has an action orientation with a concern for the effective development of leadership within a business context.

3.2 FORMAL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

The criticism of business schools appears to have increased proportionately to the growing demands for organisational leadership. Livingston (1971) argued that there is no relationship between performance in business schools and records of managerial success. He referred to management education as *'miseducation'*, which distorted the ability of managerial aspirants to grow as they gained experience. Mintzberg (1973) concurred with this criticism, indicating the failure of

business schools to teach relevant managerial skills. Cunningham (1988) ascribes the failure of business schools to the divergent culture of business, stressing skills (competence) and action as opposed to knowledge and research, underpinning academic institutions.

The major current criticism of formal management education is the excessive emphasis on methods of quantitive analysis at the expense of *'process'* competencies such as creativity, intuition and interpersonal skills (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Behrman and Levine, 1984; Bennis and Nanus, 1985). These are however the critical success factors identified in recent leadership studies (Limerick, Cunningham and Trevor-Roberts 1984; Kelly, 1986).

Kotter (1988) in an extensive industry wide study of succeusful general managers found that most of their contact was interpersonal, taking between seventy per cent and ninety per cent of their time. They were found to prefer an action or *'hands-on orientation'* reacting to the initiatives of others, with much of their time being unplanned. This picture is vastly different from the assumption underlying many training programmes that teach managers to rationally plan, organise, lead and control.

Manning (1988) points out that the climate of uncertainty and ambiguity impacting on business demands new and innovative paradigms of looking at the world. He comments on the need to challenge outdated traditions and myths about *'rational leadership'* and focus on the complex interrelationships or patterns underlying changing conditions. Mintzberg (1973)concurs, stating that the effective C.E.O. is a holistic intuitive thinker who is constantly relying on hunches to cope with problems far too complex for rational analysis. Senge (1990b) points out the importance of the leader in helping people to restructure their views of reality to see beyond the superficial conditions and events into the underlying causes of problems - and therefore to see new possibilities for shaping the future. This allows for generative learning which is about creating organisational growth and renewal, as opposed to adaptive learning which is about coping (Senge, 1990). This presupposes a paradigm shift from institutions oriented toward control to seeing people as competent and capable (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Carkhuff, 1988; Peters, 1988; Human, 1989; Senge, 1990; Hall, 1990).

Despite the above evidence little attention to systemic thinking leadership competencies and human-interpersonal skills has taken place at business schools.

"What makes matters worse is that much of the human element is either avoided or short changed in most curricula. To the best of our knowledge the four basic competencies we have outlined in this book are honoured more in the breach than in the execution."

(Bennis and Nanus, 1985)

3.3 THE AMERICAN MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION STUDY

A detailed study undertaken by Margerison and Kakabadse (1984) provides an understanding of Chief Executives perceptions of the process of management development. 711 American Chief Executives participated in this study and were drawn from a wide cross-section of industries.

Chief Executives cited factors such as hard work, ambition, leadership ability and the need to be results oriented as key influences in their success. They placed greater emphasis on personal skills, pointing to communication skills, delegation, patience and respect for others in preference to knowledge of financial systems, marketing technology and production methods. They furthermore saw the most difficult aspects of their jobs as being those related to managing other people (Lapinsky, 1989).

It is precisely these skills together with leadership competencies emanating from a major international study, that this research aims to identify within a South African context.

The research undertaken by Margerison and Kakabadse compliments the new theories of leadership which stress factors such as interpersonal skills, transforming leadership and empowerment of employees. From a South African perspective a similar pattern has emerged from a study involving twenty-five Chief Executive Officers - where Kelly (1986) identified the importance of being in touch with ones people, of being able to communicate with them, empower them and draw them in behind one.

It therefore becomes vital to explore, expand upon and validate the human handling competencies involved in transformational leadership and to use these as a basis for formal and informal leadership development activities. In this respect, the research takes on added significance both in a national and a local context.

Kelly (1986) also highlighted the importance of initiating as opposed to coping with change which relates to Senge's (1990) generative as opposed to adaptive learning.

Margerison and Kakabadse (1984) offer the following recommendations concerning the implementation of management education. They recommend an individualised approach; self development and action learning building on real life experience, together with significant process skills input.

It is evident that business schools need to review their objectives and programme content, in order to contribute significantly to the development of effective leaders. Kelly (1986), however cautions against generalised pervasive criticism of business schools as some have indeed accepted the changed emphasis and adapted their curricula accordingly.

3.4 INFORMAL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

The picture as it relates to informal management education is unfortunately no more encouraging. Training and development practitioners have unfortunately, tended to follow the latest trend or flavour of the month, thus contributing to the *'uncertain course of management development over the last thirty years'* (Robinson, 1982 : 1). This has resulted in the development of hundreds of different courses or packages which appear to do little to develop effective leaders. In reviewing the perceived success of management programmes, Clarke (1981) discusses research indicating that successful managers attributed no more than ten per cent of their growth to such programmes. Mumford (1988) criticises management programmes for their unreality, the propensity of training practitioners to follow the flavour of the month and the adoption of a single learning technology. Cunningham (1988) highlights a number of weaknesses in management development which incorporates many of the concerns expressed by other researchers :

- dissatisfaction with the level of material taught
- lack of competence of seminar leaders
- content of the programmes outdated
- no evaluation of the effectiveness of programmes
- a tendency to follow fads
- an emphasis on the wrong type of skills
- an emphasis on knowledge rather than skills
- lack of top management commitment

From a South African perspective Pruett (1988) identified the reasons for failure of management development to be as follows, in order of importance :

- courses too general and/or cannot be applied and/or irrelevant and/or needs are not identified
- too many 'foreign' courses are used
- lack of support of senior managers
- insufficient focus on disadvantaged people and on related issues
- poor selection of individuals to attend the programmes
- no control over the transfer of skills to the work place
- management development is seen as merely comprising courses
- management development occurs on an ad hoc basis
- the absence of manpower or succession plans

Respondents were also asked how they believed the situation could be improved. Their recommendations included the following :

- management activities must be related to the job and to specific needs
- full management support is essential
- the correct selection of trainees
- practical implementation of topics learned
- effective succession planning

These findings are of particular relevance within the South African context, where the development of black managers has received a great deal of attention, but where results have been extremely unsatisfactory (Tomasko, 1985; Charoux, 1988; Pruett, 1989).

3.5 ASSESSMENT

Mumford (1988) expands on the problem of focusing on the wrong type of skills and states that the problem with much of our management development is that it is derived from an inadequate assessment of what comprises effective managerial behaviour. This results in management development being perceived as theoretical and unrealistic. Training practitioners have expended much time and effort on improving training technology through techniques such as criterion referenced instruction, action learning and open learning. These are however unlikely to improve the situation if the underlying premise on which the training is based is incorrect. The need for an adequate assessment of managerial/leadership behaviour as a prerequisite for management development is the major focus of the present study.

Commenting on the growing importance of assessing and finding effective leadership competence, RES International, a firm of executive research consultants point out that the perfect C.E.O. is difficult to describe, hard to find and even harder to hire (RES International, 1991). They cite studies pointing out that within the next five years, 71% of senior executives are expected to join other companies, thereby placing a premium on companies to have efficient, effective selection procedures to identify outstanding leadership competence.

In a joint study undertaken by Korn/Ferry International and the School of Business at Columbia University in 1989, 1 500 executives in twenty countries were asked to identify specific areas where leadership competence will be required over the next decade. The sample identifies vision and the management of people as two primary indispensable components of sustained corporate performance (RES International, 1991). The management of people involves clear communication, developing trust and obtaining committment, synonymous with leadership competence identified by Bennis and Nanus.

A summary of the need for leadership development and subsequent failure of formal and informal development efforts and how these relate to one another is described in Table 3.1 at the end of the chapter. The remainder of this chapter will explore crucial strategic issues relating to training methodology and the implementation of development activity within organisations.

3.6 THE LINE MANAGER AS TRAINER

In light of South Africa's burgeoning skills shortage and the fact that the demand and sanction for behaviour are in the hands of the line manager, of necessity, a fundamental task of the manager is to train and develop followers. Roberts (1974 : 24) succinctly states that the most powerfull influence in the development of managers is the man's superior.

"*Every encounter between a superior and a subordinate involves learning of some kind for the subordinate. (It should involve learning for the superior, too, but that is another matter). When the boss gives an order, asks for a job to be done, reprimands, praises, conducts an appraisal interview, deals with a mistake, holds a staff meeting, works with his subordinates in solving a problem, gives a salary increase, discusses a possible promotion, or takes any other action with subordinates, he is teaching them something. The attitudes, the habits, the expectations of the subordinate will be either reinforced or modified to some degree as a result of every encounter with the boss ... The day-by-day experience of the job is so much more powerful that it tends to overshadow what the individual may learn in other settings*" (Roberts, 1974 : 24).

Consequently, the successful application of any leadership competence training must involve and empower the line manager either directly as a trainer or informally as a coach.

3.7 LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING METHODOLOGY

Traditional management education sessions are based upon the usual lecture inputs or concepts, ideas and research. They are followed up by standard case studies, together with experimental simulations, all supported by group discussions. Learning takes place in an indoor/outdoor classroom and it is hoped that the skills and attitudes will be transferred back into the workplace. However, research indicates that as much as seventy five per cent of learning takes place on the job, because the reward and sanction for training rests with the line manager (Hofmeyar, 1989). This suggests a move away from formal classroom training to empower the line manager as trainer (Hofmeyr, 1989; Human, 1989). Alternatively, there is a growing trend toward "mod management development", epitomised by the Outward Bound

Courses and the "T" or Encounter Groups aimed at generating self-awareness and improving relationships. Given the failure of management education to impact on organisational performance and more specifically, the relevance and transference of training, an overview of effective training methodology needs to be undertaken.

Psychologically, Outward Bound operates under the premise that there is a strong and perceptible parallel between wilderness survival and corporate survival. The programmes generally are designed to encourage creative thinking, refine problem-solving and leadership skills, strengthen communication and interpersonal skills, encourage risk taking (and recognition of the difference between real and perceived risks), facilitate trust, promote stress management and develop teamwork. The activities are engaging, the environment is unique and distraction-free and the tasks serve as metaphors and analogies for comparable challenges in the work environment (Newstrom, 1990).

Wilderness survival programmes however, have been criticised for the lack of company and individual specific programmes, for the quality of trainers and for the problems with evaluation and transfer of training to the workplace (Newstrom, 1990).

In contrast, the action learning approach to management development is particularly strong in the transfer and application of learning into the workplace and studies report considerable success in this regard (Margerison, 1989).

Action learning ensures that managers/leaders can :

(a) learn from experience.
(b) share that experience with others.
(c) have those other colleagues criticise and advise.
(d) take that advice and implement it.
(e) review with those colleagues the action taken and the lessons that are learned.

This is what Margerison (1989) called the *'comrades in adversity'* approach to learning. He believed that people really begin to learn effectively when they are confronted with difficulties (a need they own) and have the opportunity to constructively share (feeling of competence and reliance) their concerns and experiences with others.

Action learning rests on the existential philosophy of free choice and commitment - the managerial team face the realities of their existence as a group. Increasingly trainers should strive to get their philosophy, methods and structures closer to the managers life, existence and reality. (Margerison, 1989) This may also involve relinquishing our *'expert'* control in the classroom for a more facilitative role.

In terms of the appropriate training methodology underpinning the development of leadership competence, it is suggested that the strongest components of each approach be incorporated into the training process. These include :

1. The strength of the *'Mod Management'* lies in its use of creative methods and experiences in order to facilitate learning. These can be built into existing methodology - such as team building through river rafting in order to relieve existing stress, or to develop the groundwork for relationship and trust before more formal competencies are taught. This must, however, be based on individualised and appropriate selection criteria as part of clear and measurable training objectives.

2. The strength of the Action Learning approach lies in its hands on approach to the transfer of learning. It provides a simplistic yet different focus from the more formal training approach. It is logical to draw 'leaders' together (based on their need) and facilitate the giving, sharing and application of learning. The promotes competence in a type of informal mentor relationship and presupposes individual autonomy to take what is relevent and to apply it.

3. The competency approach which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter IV, is useful in identifying behavioural clusters which can be observed, taught, learnt and consequently evaluated. The initial audit allows the development of a unique competency profile and specific development goals, upon which strategic selection, appraisal, development and rewards can be based, particularly as it provides a causal link between activity and performance. Self awareness is a key component of the approach as is the *'evidence'* provided by managers that they have applied the skill in the workplace. Follow up and reinforcement is consequently an essential component of any training.

3.7.1. Developing Leaders And Learning Organisations

While it is essential for successful development to identify competencies of leadership and to adapt innovative training methodologies, the organisational context of training must compliment and result in the application of learning on-the-job. Senge (1990) advocates the utilisation of a learning laboratory and the development of a learning culture as part of a strategic systems approach to provide maximum leverage for the development of organisational leadership.

Senge (1990) points out that unlike team sports where learning is the norm rather than the exception, management teams have great difficulty in learning (enhancing their collective intelligence and ability to create).

The microworld of the learning laboratory needs to combine meaningful business issues with meaningful interpersonal dynamics.

The laboratory should allow a testing of long term, systemic consequences of key strategic decisions, and new skills should be developed and tested in a low risk setting. Senge also quotes Sashkin and Warner-Burke (1990) who see a return to the emphasis on developing leaders who can develop organisations, and in turn develop organisational culture. They see the need in the 1990's, for organisational development and (a new sort of) management development to merge.

From a developmental point of view, Senge (1990) offers the following characteristics of the learning organisation where training becomes the norm and part of the organisations culture.

ORGANISATION CHARACTERISTICS	LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS	OPERATING PRINCIPLES
Vision Values Core purpose	Building shared Vision	Commitment to the highest standards
Alignment	Enrolment ⟨ commitment vs compliance	Genuine caring
Personal Mastery	Empowerment of self and others	Integration Reason/Intuition
Systems thinking	Improve mental models	Commitment to the truth

Figure 3.1 Senge, 1990a. Vision, Leadership and Systems Thinking. Papers presented at a seminar - Vaal Holiday Inn, Vanderbijl Park, June.

In summary, De Geus underscores the importance of developing a learning organisation as a primary role of the leader:

"Our exploration into the area of institutional learning is not a luxury. We understand that the only competitive advantage the company of the future will have is its managers' ability to learn faster than their competitors. So the companies that succeed will be those that continually nudge their managers towards revising their views of the world. The challenges for the planner are as considerable. So are the rewards"
(De Geus 1991 : iii in Centre for Innovative Leadership Brochure).

3.8 ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COMPLEMENTING LEADERSHIP TRAINING

Change viewed from a systemic perspective sees the interrelationship between different systems both internal and external to the workplace. This suggest that change introduced by a training programme will affect and should be complemented by change throughout the system.

Commenting on the failure of equal opportunity programmes, Hofmeyr (1989) points out the importance of top management support; evaluating line managers on their contribution to equity and the focus on introducing complimentary *'white advancement'* attitudes as essential precursors to programme success. Senge (1990) refers to the importance of focusing on the fundamental cause or deterrents to success, viewed from a *'systemic'* rather than *'event'* perspective, which becomes the crucial *'leverage'* point for change and allows a fundamental rather than short term solution to the problem. Zimbler (1986) concurs, stating that change involves a common strategic thrust of both the *'traditional'* operating variables (goals, technology, cost, structure) and perhaps more importantly a focus on the process or *'soft'* variables - perceptions, culture, values, attitudes, feelings and aspiration - which are less visible, therefore, appear less important to manage. Finally, Senge (1990) underscores the importance of having a common vision to guide or channel change in a common direction otherwise the empowerment of people through leadership training could lead to dispersement or fragmentation of effort, rather than alignment of purpose and action.

In terms of organisational survival, given South Africa's skills shortage, the development of black leaders as part of an equal opportunity programme is mandatory (Human, 1989; Hofmeyr, 1989; Andrews, 1988; Charoux, 1989). Equal opportunity is a strategic necessity vital to ensuring the continuity of the free enterprise system (Project Free Enterprise, 1989).

Gavin Relly concurs, stating that one of the most important ongoing tasks as crucial to the country's stability as it is to the future of private enterprise, is to create and develop non-racial organisations, armed by well educated, trained and competent staff (Project Free Enterprise, 1989 : 13).

Yet despite the importance of developing black leaders and managers, there has been limited progress in the implementation of equal oppor-

tunity, with only 9% of women and 5,5% of blacks occupying managerial positions (Hofmeyr 1989). Project Free Enterprise points out that organisational leadership provides a critical leverage point for organisational change efforts. This ensures support for development and through the competence of empowerment and leader as coach, that the success of equal opportunity and advancement will occur. Consequently, the success of equal opportunity programmes involves both a top-down and a bottom-up approach.

3.9 RECOMMENDATIONS

In terms of the preceding explanatory theory describing the failure of management development programmes, the following recommendations are made for the successful development of leadership competence. These will be incorporated into a broader strategic approach, discussed in Chapter VI.

3.9.1 Clarification Of A Corporate Philosophy, Values And Strategy

> Strategy is the process of thinking through what today's business is and what tomorrows business should be and then getting there. It is the fit between an organisation and its environment over time (Manning, 1988 : 80).

This presupposes an understanding of demographic and educational factors impinging on the skills shortage in South Africa, and a clear, creative response to *"identify needed skills and active management of employee learning for the long range-future in relation to explicit corporate strategies"*. (Fombrum et al 1984 ; 159).

From the above, it becomes clear that strategic development of competence is part of the overall human resource strategy, which in turn takes its lead from the overall business strategy.

If the human resource specialist does not have input into the business strategy or the business strategy is ill conceived and does not focus on implementation, the training strategy can only have limited impact on the organisation. In essence the training strategy is only as strong as the overall business plan.

A corporate strategy is based on *"the creation of focus and direction of where the organisation is going, and a vision of the future that is realistic, credible, attractive and better than the present"*. (Bennis and Nanus, 1985 : 89). The vision of the future of the organisation directs the development of a corporate mission, which in turn directs organisational values, objectives, tactics and finally, the budget (Manning, 1988 : 89).

Strategic development relies on a clear idea of what competencies, in terms of quality and quantity are required by the organisation in order to realise the vision of the future. Without the clarification and transmission of a vision, mission and values individuals cannot define their own roles within the organisation, nor align and commit their energies towards a common end. In this respect the core leadership competencies of *'attention through vision'* and *'meaning through communication'* are crucial to any training a development intervention.

3.9.2 Commitment From Top Management

Commitment moves beyond a statement of intent to providing time, energy and congruence in word and deed to a particular course of action. With respect to leadership competencies, top management must be wholeheartedly convinced of the importance and support for the programme, which they must clearly and consistently express to employees.

This relates to the competencies of the management of trust through positioning where a leader constantly advocates and follows up on the development of leadership competence in creation of an environment where people are willing, able and allowed to perform (Human, 1989).

This constant positioning is essential to provide continuity and assurance amidst change which is part of the expression of leadership. The commitment from top management presupposes that the strategic development specialist has access to top management and that she/he in turn earns their respect and trust. In this respect, professional and credible leadership by training and development staff themselves, is fundamental.

3.9.3 Sound Strategic Human Resource Planning

The Human Resource department has a crucial role in the implementation of corporate strategy - getting people to the right things to make strategies happen. The Human Resource system consists of sequential, interrelated tasks of selection, appraisal, rewards and development, all of which have an impact on performance at the individual and organisational level.

Performance is a function of all Human Resource components: selecting people who are best able to perform the jobs defined by the structure, appraising their performance to facilitate the equitable distribution of rewards, motivating employees by linking rewards to high levels of performance and developing employees to enhance their current performance in positions they may hold in the future (Fombrum, 1984 : 41).

From a leadership development perspective the effectivenessss of any intervention is only as strong as the support and complimentary nature of strategic reward, appraisal and selection systems. This requires the alignment of these four components in the expression of competent leadership by the head of the Human Resource Department - in order to get the right people in the right place at the right time. The efficiency of these components should be constantly measured and changed to ensure complimentarity of purpose and a link between strategy and action.

3.9.4 Line Managers Ownership And Accountability For Development

Despite many years of experience with advancement programmes, companies still give responsibility for the implementation and management of their programmes to the Human Resource department (Hofmeyr, 1989). If the argument concerning top management commitment is extended, then ownership of and accountability for the intervention must reside with line management. This is equally valid for any training intervention, because the rewards and sanctioning of behaviour resides in the trainees department (Human, 1989).

Managers have to be evaluated on their contribution toward overall business development objectives in the same way they are evaluated on their bottom line results. The Human Resource department can play a consultative role, but the burden of effort for the development implementation of leadership competence should rest with individual strategic business units (Hofmeyr, 1989).

In this respect line managers must be involved in the development intervention and recognition given that they are best placed to take decisions concerning the implementation of the programme.

3.9.5 Set Specific Targets For Training

Numerous training and development interventions face a credibility crisis because they cannot evaluate or demonstrate their effectiveness and impact toward organisational objectives. In terms of leadership development this study adopts a competency approach which is based on specific behaviour concerning what effective leaders do in a specific organisational context.

This behaviour is an expression of leaders traits, motives, values, attitudes and skills and is therefore amenable to pre and post intervention measurement and its impact on the job.

This moves away from assumptions underlying a multitude of training programmes that information will lead to behaviour change (role play) which will lead to attitude change; and that there is an automatic transference of training to the workplace. The setting of targets and evaluation of training needs to occur in terms of the quality of the training experience and at a later stage, the application of skills on the job. This has implications concerning the training methodology employed and the competence of the trainer.

3.9.6 Appropriate Relevant Training Methodology

Principles of adult education should underpin any leadership intervention, which compliment an action learning approach to

development. Essentially a skilled practitioner needs to help trainees express current problems on the job and to facilitate the transference of competence from people who have mastered similar problems. This assumes that trainees have the ability to be creative and find solutions to their own problems.

Action learning also ensures the relevance of training and the continual *'trial - error - adapting'* approach to a specific task such as the development and communication of a vision and meaning that creates synergy and commitment for people in the organisation.

3.9.7 Competent Trainers

Unlike the professions of psychology and social work, where practitioners are licenced to practice only after extensive selection process, and theoretical and practical foundation, many trainers have no grounding in training methodology. In addition, many trainers do not have a broad theoretical understanding nor a model upon which training is developed - they have little understanding of change on an individual and organisational level; nor the personalities to utilise process skills and encourage participative learning.

Extensive research into the application of *'life skills'* indicates that the quality and professionalism of the trainer is the key variable in the successful application of these skills in a work setting (Rijavec, 1990).

In this regard, organisations must commit extensive time, money and support to the development of competent trainers as well as competent leadership of the training and development department.

3.9.8 Dispel Negative Attitudes

The best plans can founder because insufficient attention is paid to the attitudes of people who do not support training interventions. Because attitudes influence behaviour, negative sentiments and their reasons need to be identified and

managed. This of necessity, involves leadership behaviour in communicating the importance of a strategic development intervention as well as allowing fears to surface and concerns to be expressed. This two-way communication is an essential component of any change process. This also indicates the marriage between organisational development and leadership competence.

3.9.9 Organisational Development - Creating Learning Organisations

Training or adult learning is a life long process. Any training intervention is simply a more formal attempt to accelerate skills that are needed. However, a broader organisational culture which rewards and encourages learning that generates organisational growth is paramount. In this regard, Senge (1990) cites Sashkin and Burke (1990) who see a need in the 1990's for organisational and management development to merge. Senge (1990) calls for a *'learning laboratory'* to be created which allows for the testing of long term systemic consequences of key decisions and where new skills can be tested in a low risk setting. In essence training should take place within a learning organisation as described previously, with the line manager adopting the key function of empowering people. In this way the organisation reduces its reliance on formal training and the problem of transferring skills to the workplace.

3.9.10 Regular Monitoring And Follow-up

What gets measured gets done. This relates to the importance of setting specific targets for any leadership intervention, receiving feedback concerning what is not working and having the sensory awareness and flexibility to introduce alternative behaviour with the desired impact.

This of necessity involves courage to face and discuss *'current reality'* or the present position of any programme, relative to its targets and the courage to change the intervention with acute timing in the face of adversity. This journey begins with the commitment to the management and growth of self.

3.9.11 Transformational Management Attitudes For Changing Worker Expectations

Much of the previous chapters has pointed to a fundamental premise behind successful organisational leadership - the perception of people as creative and competent and the wise use of power to empower employees.

Demographic trends indicating a burgeoning skills shortage, leave organisations with no option but to empower employees (Sadie, 1988). Megatrends worldwide suggest that changing worker expectations including quality of life issues, which call for the adoption of a clear, meaningful mission; individual agenda control; share of value creation and opportunity for individual learning and growth (Moss-Kanter, 1989). Quite simply, the best and brightest people will gravitate to organisations fostering personal growth.

These trends demand a leader who can think creatively, understand the systemic nature of problems; operates from an expandable-pie concept of power and who exhibits the four competencies of leadership previously described. This has enormous implications for selecting people into organisations and the challenging of existing managerial competence.

3.10 SUMMARY

Table 3.2 summarises the literature described in this chapter, and significant author's comments on Strategic Development and Empowerment. This forms the basis for the recommendations concerning the development of leadership competencies identified in this research and will be discussed in more detail in Chapter VI.

Table 3.1 STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENT - LEADERSHIP & EMPOWERMENT

DEVELOPMENT - WHY - Chapter II	3.2 FAILURE OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT	FAILURE OF INFORMAL DEVELOPMENT IN S.A.	3.7 TRAINING METHODOLOGY	3.8 RECOMMENDATIONS	OBJECTIVE
• 450 000 skills shortage by year 2000 (Sadie, 1988) • Human Development - axiom behind successful nations (de Geus, 1991) • Leadership - key to organisational growth (Cardiff, 1988) • Quality of people - primary source of competitive advantage (Deucker, 1974) • Rate at which individuals, organisations learn - key to growth (Senge, 1990, Sunter, 1987) • Leaders are the scarcest resource of any organisation- (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) • A need for leadership not *management development* • Leadership development - key strategic issue (Manning, 1988) • Demand for quality of life, participation (Nalebaff and Abuddene, 1985)	• Failure of Business Schools - miseducation and wrong focus on hard technical skills (Mintzburg, 1973; *Cunningham, 1988*; Bennis and Nanus, 1985) • Leadership demands interpersonal and process skills (Kohler, 1988) • C.E.O. success - hard work, interpersonal and motivational skills (Margerison and Kakabadse, 1984) • S.A. study (Kelly, 1986) - In touch with people - Communication - Empowerment	• Failure of equal opportunity programmes (Holmeyr, 1988) • No empowerment (*Human*, 1989) • Irrelevant material • Lack of trainer competence • Follow fads • Not strategic • Lack support and line manager ownership • Skills, not attitude focus • No follow-up - transfer of skills (Frueh, 1988) • No assessment of required competence (Mumford, 1988)	• Creative developmental experiences to facilitate learning (Newstrom, 1990) • Action learning - on the job team learning around specific task (Margerison, 1988) • Competence approach - overt measurable behaviours reflecting skills, values and attitudes (Boyatzis, 1982) • Learning organisations and developing a learning culture (Senge, 1990) • Principles of adult education and process learning	• Clarification of corporate values and strategy • Commitment from top management • Strategic human resource planning • *Line ownership* (70% of training is on the job) • Specific targets for training • Dispel negative attitudes • Regular monitoring/ follow-up (Holmeyr, 1988) • Appropriate training methodology • Competent trainer • Organisational development/learning culture • Transformational management attitudes	STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENT • The identification of needed skills and competence, as well as active management of employee learning for the long range future, in relation to explicit corporate strategies. • To get the right people in the right place at the right time (Fombrun et al, 1984)

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Approaches to leadership have given us a variety of data collection methods - observation diaries, self report systems, interviews, questionnaires, and content analysis documents (Boyatsis, 1982; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Kelly, 1986; Yukl, 1989). The competency approach adopted in this study provides a rigorous and emperically tested method of identifying the characteristics associated with effective leadership (Boyatsis, 1982). It is also a valid method of elaborating on and testing the competence model of Bennis and Nanus in a South African context.

The study makes use of a self administered questionnaire administered to twenty leaders and forty of their subordinates who have been divided into excellent and average sample groups. The perceptions of leaders and subordinates in the excellent group have been compared with those in the average group in order to identify distinguishing factors underpinning effective leadership. The sample was drawn from leaders of twenty diverse departments/functions within a major South African company providing a service and consultancy to the entire gold mining industry.

4.2 THE CHAMBER OF MINES

The Chamber of Mines of South Africa is a private enterprise service organisation set up in 1889 to promote and protect the interests of the South African mining industry.

It is a voluntary association of some 98 members which include the country's six major mining finance houses, other mining companies, and independent mines. In 1989 the Chamber and its affiliates operated on a budget in excess of 570 million - which has remained relatively constant at the time of writing, as a result of retrenchments and rationalisations deemed necessary due to South Africa's depressed economic climate and falling gold price. The mission of the Chamber is to provide a variety of advisory and service functions which can most cost effectively be handled on a central, co-operative basis.

This is achieved by:

1. Maintaining close contact with the mining industry, and anticipating and identifying those areas where collaborative services would be beneficial.

2. The advancement, protection and promotion of the mutual interests and common requirements agreed by members.

3. The provision of leadership and representation in matters of industry concern, in both national and international affairs.

4. The maintenance of expertise and excellence in areas of importance to the industry.

5. The co-ordination of industry activities.

6. The promotion of activities which result in reduced costs to mines (Chamber of Mines Strategic Plan, 1990).

The 1991 Chamber of Mines Management Conference, convened to asses past and develop future strategy, was characterised by the themes of change; and a depressed gold mining industry with an estimated retrenchment of 45 000 employees in 1990/91. This is likely to impact on the Chamber with calls for greater leadership (external and internal) than at any other time in the history of the organisation. Emphasis was placed on service excellence, marketing, upgrading staff skills and expertise, and maintaining and expanding customer base as key success factors contributing to competitive advantage (C.E.O. address - Management Conference, 1991).

However, despite the call for leadership and acknowledged weakness of management skills (Chamber of Mines Strategic Plan 1990), little formal strategic development for the top management has taken place over the last ten years. This illustrates the gap between strategic formulation and implementation which this study aims to bridge through developing a comprehensive leadership competence programme based on empirical findings.

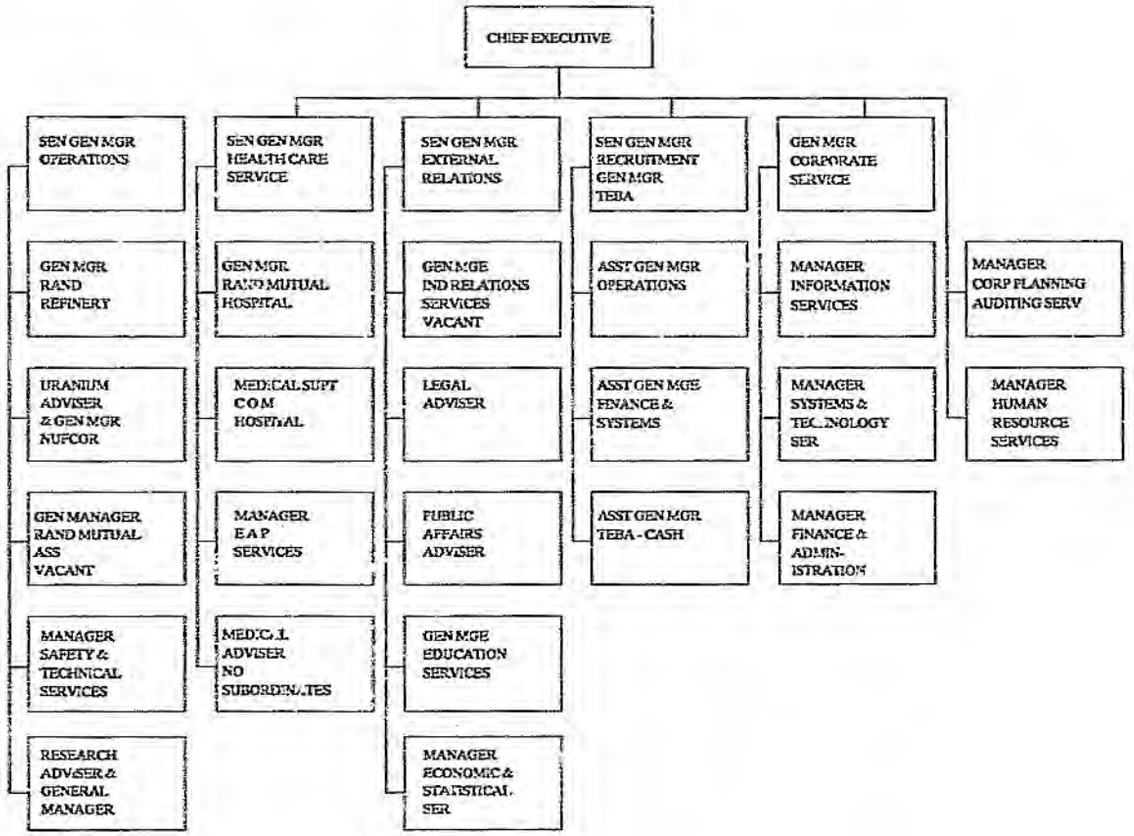


Figure 4.1

CHAMBER OF MINES MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE

4.3 THE SAMPLE

The Chamber consists of a number of services employing approximately 6000 people, headed by 28 leaders who comprise the Management Co-ordinating Committee, hereafter referred to as the M.C.C (Figure 4.1).

The Chamber is headed by a Chief Executive Officer who oversees five Senior General Managers. Two M.C.C. positions were vacant at the time of this research, while one person did not have any subordinates reporting to him. This left a total number of 25 leaders, twenty (80 per cent) who were randomly selected to comprise the sample. The sample was divided into ten average and ten excellent leaders based on previous merit ratings: the independent rating of two key corporate leaders and two subordinate ratings per leader. Scores were allocated to the above ratings in terms of: 1-Excellent, 2-Above Average, 3-Average. Candidates with a merit rating of 8 were allocated a score of 1 (Excellent); 7/6 allocated a 2; and 5 and below a score of 3.

The 5 scores (1 merit rating; 2 leader peer ratings; and 2 subordinate scores) were totalled and people with the lowest scores were included in the excellent group.

Table 4.1 illustrates the candidates raw scores and consequent separation into the two categories. All candidates with a score of 10 and below were included in the excellent sample which had an overall range of 6.25 - 9; a minimum performance rating of 6 and a follower rating of 2 and above. Interestingly, there was not always agreement between the peer ratings, although only one person was rated as an average performer. This suggests the necessity of including more than one peer rating and the inclusion of peers in general to measure leadership competence for future research.

The average sample had an overall range of 11-14, with two scores of 2 (above average) and 3 (average) dominating.

Where no performance appraisal scores were available due to a different method of evaluation, or having recently joined the organisation, the average of the four available scores was obtained and added to the composite score. This accounts for the fractions in the total score.

The two peer raters were chosen because of their extensive contact with the other leaders by virtue of their functions at work.

It should also be noted that initially the study was going to use rating according to objective performance criteria. These criteria, however, do not exist in the organisation, and rating was considered too sensitive an issue to introduce.

Table 4.1

Excellent/Average Ratings

Candidate Excellent	Perf.App.	$Peer_1$	$Peer_2$	$Foll_1$	$Foll_2$	Total
1	8 (1)	2	2	2	1	8
4	7 (2)	1	2	2	2	9
7	7 (2)	1	1	1	1	6
10	6 (2)	2	1	1	1	7
13	7 (2)	1	2	2	1	8
16	7 (2)	2	2	1	2	9
19		2	3	1	1	8.75
22		1	1	2	1	6.25
25		2	2	2	1	8.75
28	7 (2)	1	2	2	2	9
Average						
31	6 (2)	2	2	2	3	11
34	4 (3)	3	3	3	2	14
37	6 (2)	3	3	3	3	14
40	5 (3)	3	3	2	2	13
43	6 (2)	2	3	3	3	13
46	6 (2)	2	2	3	2	11
49	5 (3)	3	3	2	3	14
52	6 (2)	3	3	2	2	12
55	7 (2)	2	2	2	3	11
58		2	3	2	3	12.5

Forty subordinates, two per leader were randomly selected from those people immediately below the leaders in the organisational hierarchy. Subordinates therefore, occupied at least a level of middle management in the organisation.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN/METHODOLOGY

A self administered questionnaire (Appendices I and II) was developed from an exhaustive literature search concerning the application of the four leadership competencies described by Bennis and Nanus, as well as previous leadership research and theory concerning empowerment (the fifth competency) and its relationship to leadership (Table 2.3). As previously described, empowerment has been added to the four competencies because it is hypothesised that empowerment is a specific competence or strategy that excellent leaders conciously express in addition to the competencies of vision, meaning, trust and the management of self.

Twenty-five single concept statements, five per competency, were developed and placed in random order throughout the questionnaire. There are therefore, more than twice as many people in the sample as there are questions. This was piloted and altered accordingly on five leaders and five subordinates who were not included in the random samples. Two covering letters were attached to questionnaires depending on the leader/follower category, explaining the purpose, rationale, confidentiality and benefits of completing the questionnaire. Clear instructions were attached to the questionnaire together with the importance of completing all questions.

The questionnaire statements were measured on a nine point ordinal scale. A score of 1 indicated that leadership 'activity was not expressed'; 5 - a moderately frequent expression of activity; and 9 - where 'activity was manifested in all situations'. The scale allows the comparison of competent behaviour on a number of levels which will be exhibited under the analysis of results.

For the purposes of comparing the two groups (mean scores), and to compute the perceptual gap analysis, the assumption was made that the scale behaves in an interval fashion. Runyon and Haber (1980 : 25) point out that although it is debatable that many scales achieve

Interval measurement, most behavioural scientists are willing to make the assumption that they do (Runyon and Haber, 1980 : 25).

Questionnaires were administered to leaders at the monthly Management Co-Ordinating Committee (M.C.C.) meeting by the Manager of the Human Resources Department. He was briefed by the researcher as to the purpose, confidentiality and benefits both organisational and individual of the research and the method of completing and returning the forms to the researcher. Those people not present at the meeting were visited individually by the manager of Human Resources.

One month after the questionnaires were first administered one person from the 'average' group had not returned the form, necessitating the random selection of a new person. Questionnaires were administered to all M.C.C. members (25 in total), and at a later date only those people in the random sample (20) were analysed - thereby ensuring anonymity of individual persons.

Two questionnaires per leader wer administered personally to subordinates by the researcher who was available to answer any questions concerning the research. On a number of occasions both leaders and subordinates volunteered their experiences of effective/ineffective leadership activity within the organisational conte. ., which proved valuable in the interpretation of results described in Chapter V.

4.5 COMPETENCE AND LEADERSHIP

The search for a model of management/leadership is complicated by a persons confusion between espoused theory and theory in use. Although managers do not always consciously follow a model during their daily activities, every managerial act, like research, rests on generalisations, assumptions and hypotheses (Boyatsis, 1982:2). This study adopts a competence approach to identifying leadership which is shared by Bennis and Nanus and the recent international trend focusing on what effective leaders do in a work context (Kouzes and Posner, 1983; Peters, 1989; Limmerick, 1990; Senge, 1990).

Job competence is defined as:

"*An underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance of a job. A set of generic characteristics expressed as*

motives, traits, skills, self image, social rules, knowledge which may be apparent in many forms of behaviour and different actions"
(Boyatsis, 1982:21).

The emphasis underlying competence is on the application of knowledge and skills, representing a move away from traditional testing instruments, such as the I.Q test measuring inherent potential. The competence approach represents a shift from activities, roles and descriptive models to results and output - based on models of excellence (McClagen, 1983). A major reason for selecting the competence approach is that is provides a causal link between a statement of competence and superior performance by a leader (Boyatsis, 1982).

The foray into what McClelland (1973) called competence assessment, saw standardised tests of intelligence and aptitude as crude instruments that may be irrelevant to real life success (Goleman, 1981). At that time, McClelland concluded that:

"*It seems wise to abandon the search for pure ability factors and select tests instead, that are valid, in the sense that scores on them change as the person grows in experience, wisdom and ability to perform effectively on various tasks that life presents him*"
(McClelland, 1973 : 8).

Tests should assess competencies involved in clusters of life outcomes and should include not only occupational, but social outcomes, such as leadership and interpersonal skills (McClelland, 1973).

The competence approach has been adopted by the American Society for Training and Development (McClagen, 1983) and by the South African Board for Personnel Practice who have developed a Generic Competency Model for Human Resource practitioners (Sacht et al, 1990). The American society for training and development made use of a theoretical appraisal of training; a nominal group technique and competence questionnaire in order to arrive at training and development competencies.

A similar approach has been followed for this research with a questionnaire being used to collect data in preference to the behavioural events interview used by Bennis and Nanus (1985). The questionnaire was chosen because it was an objective of this research to validate a questionnaire that would be used with comparative ease in a number

of different organisational settings in the future - a process that is less expensive and time consuming than the behavioural events interview.

Warren Bennis has subsequently developed a competence questionnaire which is used during his leadership development seminars using concept statements of leadership behaviour which form an overt expression of motives, traits, skills, self image, social roles and knowledge of leadership. It is the behavioural outcome and skill level of competence that is primarily measured in the questionnaire (Nassar and Associates, 1985).

The skill competence level is described as *' individuals behavioural demonstration of proficiency or expertise - the ability to do something well'* (McBer, 1988). However the social role level of competence is also measured in certain questions, for example in response to 'responsibility for initiating change' and 'creating individual life experience'. The leaders self image is also measured indirectly in terms of seeing oneself as a leader; or motivator and developer of people. *The self image level* is also measured in the 'Management of Self' cluster in the sense that a positive self image is imperative to manage yourself, which is a prerequisite to managing others. In this regard (McBer, 1988) defines self image as "an individuals conception of his or her identity, personality and worth as a person".

On an unconscious level, leaders power motives are also measured as, for instance, an expression of viewing people as creative and competent which is a prerequisite to empowering others. In this regard, a motive is described as *'thoughts in a particular area - achievement, affiliation or power - that drive, direct and select an individuals behaviour'* (McBer ,1988).

4.6 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

The structure of the leadership questionnaire allows the analysis of results from a number of different perspectives.

Firstly, the individual raw questionnaire scores and totals can be compared, together with excellent and average leader self scores; comparison between the different subordinate groups and between the total samples (30 each) of the two groups. The mean scores from the five leadership competencies can be compared together with the total

mean scores between the two groups. Finally, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to test for significance of the above data at the 0.5% significance level. The Mann-Whitney U test is one of the most popular non-parametric tests and can be used to compare samples from two populations in those cases where the following assumptions are satisfied:

1. The two samples are independent and random.
2. The value measured is a continuous variable.
3. The measurement scale used is at least ordinal.
4. If they differ, the distributions of the two populations will differ only with respect to location (Groebner and Shannon, 1989 : 707).

"*The logic of the Mann-Whitney U test centres around the idea that if the sum of the rankings of one group differs greatly from the sum of the rankings of the second group, we should conclude that there is a difference in the central locations of the populations*" (Groebner and Shannon 1989 : 708).

The equation for the Mann-Whitney U test is as follows:

$$U_1 = n_1n_2 + \frac{n_1(n_1 + 1)}{2} - \text{sum of ranks}_1$$

$$U_2 = n_1n_2 + \frac{n_2(n_2 + 1)}{2} - \text{sum of ranks}_2$$

If the test interval limits fall within the critical values at a 0.05 per cent significance level, the null hypotheses is confirmed:

Ho: (Null hypotheses)
The two populations have identical distributions

Alternatively the Alternate hypotheses is confirmed:

Ha: (Alternate hypotheses)
There is a significant difference between follower scores of leaders on all five competencies or:
Follower Excellent > Follower Average

The significance tables for the Mann-Whitney U test are recorded in Chapter V - tables 5.2 and 5.3.

This will allow the testing of the following hypotheses:

1. **The four competencies of the management of attention, meaning, trust and self will emerge. Consequently there will be a significent difference between leader self ratings and follower ratings of the leaders between the excellent and average leader sample.**

2. **The perceptions of excellent leaders and their followers will be relatively congruent. This will be expressed through comparative mean scores and a significantly lower 'gap differential' than the average sample.**

3. **Followers of excellent leaders will feel significantly more empowered than followers of average leaders. Empowerment, therefore, is both a consequence and a competence of effective leadership.**

The comparative findings will be displayed graphically comparing the two groups and the significance of the results, allowing the objectives of the research to be realised:

1. **To identify South African leader competencies that distinguish effective from average performers.**

2. **To clarify how these correspond with an international study. It is hypothesised that there will be a high degree of similarity in that leadership competencies are considered generic as the original study was run across a number of leadership contexts, such as businessmen, politicians, church and sportsmen.**

The gap differential is calculated using the following formula:

The higher the leaders self-perceptions and the extent of the congruence with subordinate perceptions - the lower the total score (which will always be positive).

For example : self-score x maximum - self-score x subordinate score

(nine point scale)

(i) Assume the leader rates himself (8) on a statement, as does his subordinate, this can be equated as:

Leader 1

$$8 \times 9 - 8 \times 8$$

$$72 - 64 = 8$$

(ii) If the leader (identified as average by subordinates) rates himself 4, and subordinates scores him 3, the equation is:

Leader 2

$$4 \times 9 - 4 \times 3$$

$$36 - 12 = 24$$

Given a choice in selecting these two candidates for a position on the M.C.C., candidate one will be preferred, because of the higher self score, and higher subordinate score. The same process can also be undertaken with the candidate's superiors to confirm leadership ability. This formula for calculating the gap differential is a useful, quick selection device when assessing prospective candidates for leadership positions. In this respect it forms part of a comprehensive strategic approach to leadership as discussed in Chapter VI.

4.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As described in Chapter I, the following limitations of the research must be considered :

i. The focus of this research is on a large South African company that plays a major leadership role with respect to the mining industry through twenty-eight diverse service functions. For this reason, results may not be applicable to other organisations which would necessitate controlling for organisational and industry effect.

ii. The questionnaire as a research instrument is limited in its ability to probe for more detailed information. It does, however, allow for a statistically valid time saving method which can be duplicated across organisations in the future.

iii. The Mann-Whitney U test, strictly speaking, uses an ordinal scale of measurement. The use of comparitive mean scores in Chapter V assumes an interval scale of measurement which is a valid assumption most behavioural scientists are willing to make (Runyon and Haber, 1980 : 25).

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This section of the report presents the results of the leadership competence questionnaire. Initially raw scores will be presented, from which the comparative scores and their significance have been calculated. This enables the overall sample mean to be calculated and comparative mean scores between the two samples to be compared. Throughout the report comparisons are made between:

- leaders and followers of the excellent group and leaders and followers of the average group
- comparative leader self scores between the two groups
- comparative follower scores between the two groups

Section 5.2 in Chapter V displays the overall comparative scores. Table 5.1 displays the raw scores which have been used to confirm and refute differences and similarities between the above groups (Table 5.2). Figures 5.1 - 5.4 illustrate these results which include:

- A significant difference between the excellent sample (N=30), and the average group of leaders and followers (N=30).
- A significant difference in follower perceptions of average leaders which was far lower than the leaders self perceptions.
- No difference between the excellent and average leader self perceptions, with congruence between excellent leaders perceptions and their followers.

Consequently, the critical determinant of effective leadership is the perception of followers concerning the impact of leadership activity.

Section 5.3 presents the comparative scores of the five leadership competencies - testing hypotheses 1 and 3, as described in Chapter IV.

Hypotheses One :
The four competencies of the **management of attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust and the management of self,** will emerge as competencies of excellent leadership.

Consequently, excellent leaders will rate themselves significantly higher than average leaders, and the followers of excellent leaders will score their leaders significantly higher on all four competencies. Results have been tabulated in Table 5.3 and illustrated in Figures 5.5 and 5.6. The results confirm the above hypotheses with follower ratings being the significant variable in identifying effective leadership.

Table 5.3 illustratee results pertaining to hypotheses three.

Followers of excellent leaders will feel significantly more empowered than average followers. Empowerment , therefore, is both a consequence and competence of effective leadership.

Section 5.4 presents the comparative gap analysis scores (Table 5.4), measuring the perceptual difference between leader activity and follower experience, elaborating on hypotheses two:

The perceptions of excellent leaders and their followers will be relatively congruent (as expressed through comparative mean scores and a lower gap differential) than the average sample.

Finally, section 5.5 records individual leadership activities, that together make up the competencies of leadership (Table 5.5). This allows strong and weak activities to be identified - thereby suggesting specific guidelines for future intervention. Table 5.6 records the 'perceptual gap' ranking between average leaders and followers, indicating priorities for the development of leadership amongst this target group.

5.2 OVERALL COMPARATIVE SCORES

Table 5.1 tabulates the raw scores of the two sample groups. The first thirty candidates constitute the excellent group, while the remainder make up the average sample - providing a total sample of sixty people.

Subtotals of each question divide the two groups, allowing comparison of the highest and lowest individual questionnaire items between the two groups. Category refers to sample group, with "E" representing "excellent" and "A" representing "average". Status refers to the leader (L) or follower (F) sample. Each leader has two follower scores, which are seperated from the next candidate by a dotted line.

Table 5.1 Comparative raw scores

			QUESTIONAIRE NUMBERS																									
CAN-DIDATE	CAT.	STATUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	7	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	TOT
1	E	L	2	3	3	7	7	7	3	5	6	5	5	6	3	6	5	8	2	8	7	8	6	6	7	6	7	135
2		F	7	6	8	6	8	5	6	8	7	7	6	8	8	7	7	6	8	9	8	7	6	7	8	7	8	
3		F	4	7	8	9	9	9	6	9	8	5	8	9	9	5	7	8	5	8	7	8	6	7	8	6	8	186
4	E	L	7	8	7	8	7	8	6	8	5	7	8	6	7	7	6	8	7	8	6	7	7	7	8	7	7	177
5		F	6	7	6	8	6	6	5	8	7	7	5	6	6	7	8	7	5	7	8	7	7	6	7	6	7	166
6		F	7	6	8	8	9	7	8	7	7	7	8	7	7	8	7	7	8	8	6	6	7	9	7	8	7	182
7	E	L	8	7	7	8	9	7	9	8	7	9	9	8	7	9	9	9	9	9	7	9	9	9	7	7	7	201
8		F	8	8	7	8	8	7	7	8	8	8	7	9	8	6	7	6	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	7	193
9		F	8	7	8	8	8	8	7	9	8	7	8	9	7	7	9	8	6	8	8	7	8	7	9	8	8	192
10	E	L	7	8	7	8	9	9	7	9	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	7	8	7	7	198
11		F	8	7	7	7	9	8	8	8	8	8	9	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	9	8	8	9	9	8	9	206
12		F	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	198
13	E	L	7	8	9	7	7	8	8	7	8	7	7	8	7	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	180
14		F	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	8	7	8	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	200
15		F	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	196
16	E	L	8	7	7	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	7	196
17		F	7	8	6	8	8	8	6	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	198
18		F	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	207
19	E	L	8	8	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	7	7	8	7	187
20		F	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	8	7	8	7	8	7	7	184
21		F	8	7	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	192
22	E	L	8	8	7	7	7	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	7	7	7	7	179
23		F	7	8	7	7	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	7	7	191
24		F	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	198
25	E	L	8	7	7	8	7	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	7	7	7	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	7	7	189
26		F	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	198
27		F	8	7	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	7	8	194
28	E	L	7	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	7	7	189
29		F	7	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	198
30		F	7	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	199
SUB TOTAL		L	204	194	202	216	224	229	202	216	215	196	213	210	201	209	229	208	203	217	210	206	215	212	223	207	210	5204
31	A	F	8	7	7	9	8	7	8	8	7	7	8	9	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	203
32		F	8	4	5	7	6	4	5	6	4	5	5	4	4	5	6	6	4	5	6	5	4	4	6	6	5	126
33		F	3	5	4	3	5	3	3	7	5	3	3	4	3	5	5	7	3	6	4	5	5	3	7	4	3	107
34	A	L	7	7	6	7	7	7	6	7	7	6	7	7	7	7	7	5	6	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	7	158
35		F	5	5	5	4	5	6	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	140
36		F	4	7	5	8	6	5	4	5	6	5	4	5	5	5	5	7	4	7	5	5	5	6	7	5	6	136
37	A	L	6	7	7	8	7	7	6	8	7	5	7	6	7	6	7	7	6	6	6	7	6	7	6	8	6	160
38		F	2	2	1	2	3	5	1	1	2	1	3	1	2	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	2	3	2	49
39		F	3	2	1	3	1	6	3	1	2	2	1	3	1	6	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	3	3	61
40	A	L	6	7	6	7	7	7	7	7	6	5	6	8	8	7	7	5	6	7	5	7	7	8	7	5	6	150
41		F	4	6	3	7	5	7	4	4	4	6	5	5	6	5	5	4	4	4	6	5	4	6	6	6	5	124
42		F	5	7	5	8	8	5	5	6	6	7	5	5	6	6	6	7	5	8	7	5	5	6	7	4	7	145
43	A	L	6	7	5	8	7	7	6	6	7	6	5	6	8	7	7	5	5	7	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	153
44		F	2	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	3	1	2	1	2	39
45		F	3	2	1	3	1	4	3	3	2	2	3	4	2	4	5	5	3	3	3	2	1	3	3	2	4	78
46	A	L	7	7	8	7	7	7	5	6	8	7	6	8	5	5	7	7	5	6	8	7	7	8	5	7	8	163
47		F	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	35
48		F	5	6	5	8	5	7	6	5	6	7	5	5	7	8	8	7	6	6	6	5	8	6	7	6	7	160
49	A	L	8	8	6	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	7	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	185
50		F	6	5	3	1	5	8	6	5	8	8	5	5	7	6	7	3	4	6	2	4	7	7	3	5	7	130
51		F	2	2	1	1	6	7	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	1	1	2	3	2	3	2	81
52	A	L	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	7	8	7	7	6	7	8	7	7	7	7	8	7	7	7	7	8	175
53		F	5	5	5	5	5	8	5	5	8	5	8	5	4	6	8	4	6	6	4	5	5	6	4	6	5	134
54		F	6	7	8	6	6	6	8	6	8	5	6	6	6	7	8	7	6	8	7	6	4	6	6	6	6	161
55	A	L	8	7	7	8	8	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	8	7	7	7	8	7	7	8	8	7	7	7	169
56		F	5	6	4	4	6	6	5	4	6	4	4	6	5	5	6	4	5	5	4	6	6	5	5	4	6	125
57		F	7	5	5	7	7	8	7	5	7	4	6	5	7	5	7	7	7	5	3	6	5	6	5	7	5	140
58	A	L	7	7	7	8	8	8	5	4	6	3	6	3	3	4	6	3	5	3	7	4	7	5	3	6	3	132
59		F	4	3	4	6	6	7	5	5	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	5	3	5	4	109
60		F	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	207
SUB TOTAL			158	162	142	167	175	183	150	156	171	145	148	142	144	157	184	160	143	155	152	143	166	155	150	155	157	3927
GRAND TOTAL			362	346	344	383	402	418	352	371	386	341	361	360	345	366	413	368	346	372	370	347	381	367	381	362	367	9211

Table 5.2 originates from Table 5.1 and illustrates the comparative scores between different sample categories and their significance.

Table 5.2 Overall significant difference between samples

CATEGORY	SAMPLE	MEAN	VALUE	PROBABILITY LIMITS	SIGNIFICANCE
OVERALL COMPAR				0,05	YES
EXC	30	176,10	4,029	0,0001	REJECT Ho
AV	30	133,00			(EX> AV)
EXCELLENT GROUP					NO
EXCL	10	177,10			CONFIRM Ho
EXCF	20	175,70	-0,110	0,9124	
AVERAGE GROUP					YES
AVL	10	168,10			REJECT Ho
AVF	20	112,30	3,454	0,0006	(AVL> AVF)
LEADER SELF					NO
EXCL	10	177,10			ACCEPT Ho
AVF	10	168,10	1,134	0,2568	
FOLLOWERS					YES
EXF	20	175,70			REJECT Ho
AVF	20	112,70	4,112	0,0000	(EXF>AVF)

DECISION RULE : IF THE PROBABILITY LEVEL IS >0.05,
ACCEPT Ho (NO DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS)
IF THE PROBABILITY LEVEL IS <0.05,
REJECT Ho, AND CONFIRM Ha (SIGNIFICANT
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS)

The following information can be gathered from Table 5.2 and is illustrated in Figures 5.1 - 5.3.

- The total sample mean (N=60) was 154, with the mean for the excellent sample being 176 (N=30)), compared to 131 (N=30) of the average group. According to the Mann-Whitney U test, there is a significant difference between the two groups.

- The mean for the excellent leader self rating (N=10) is 177.1 compared to 168.1 for the average leader self rating (this is not significant).

- There is a significant difference between the excellent follower mean of 175.7 compared to 112.3 of the average follower sample.

- Consequently, we can deduce that there is no difference between the excellent leaders (177.1) and their followers (175.7), but a significant difference between leader self perceptions (168.7) and their followers (112.3) in the average sample.

From the above data, we can conclude that the most valid rating of leadership is from a follower perspective. Leader self rating is not a good indicator of leadership performance. The average sample of leaders are not aware of the impact they are having on their staff.

The following figures illustrate the above. Figure 5.1 shows the overall mean difference between the two groups. Figure 5.2 displays the narrow difference between the leader self perceptions, while Figure 5.3 illustrates the statistically significant difference between follower perceptions. Figure 5.4 combines the comparative mean scores of the four groups.

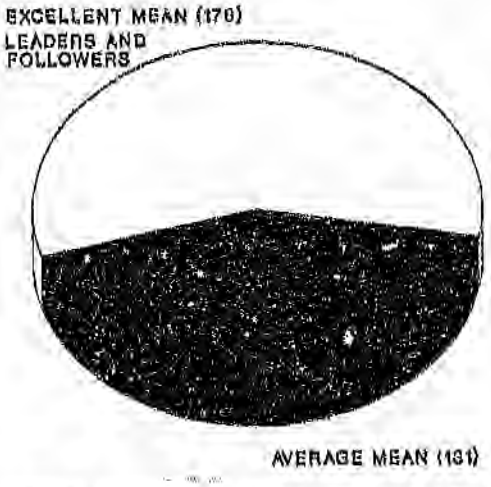


Figure 5.1 Overall comparison between excellent and average sample

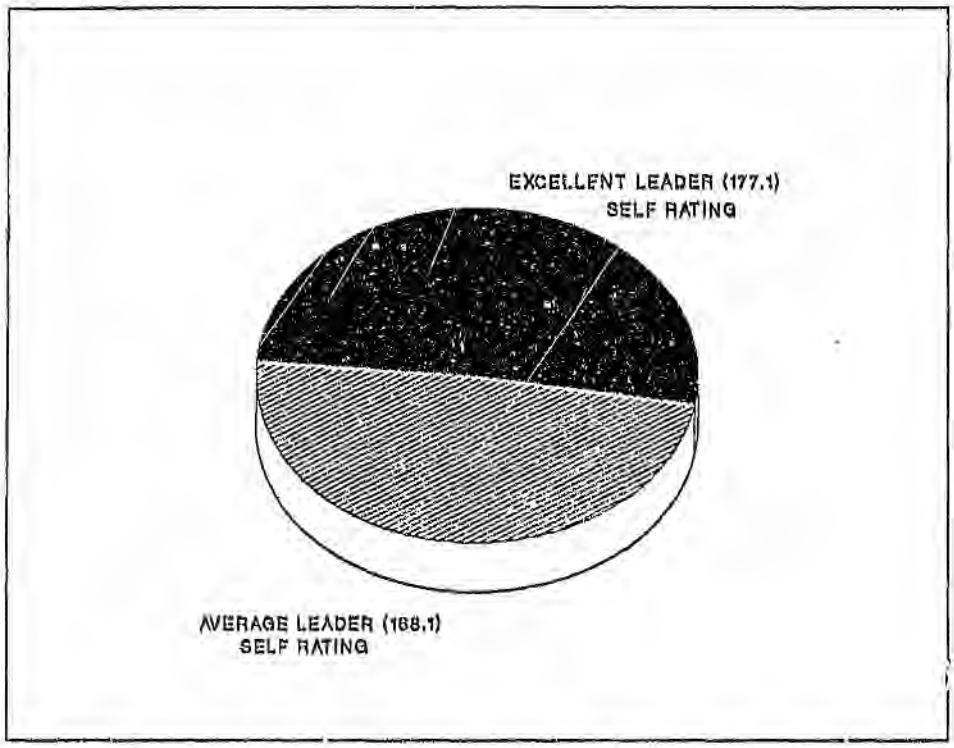


Figure 5.2 Comparison of leader self ratings

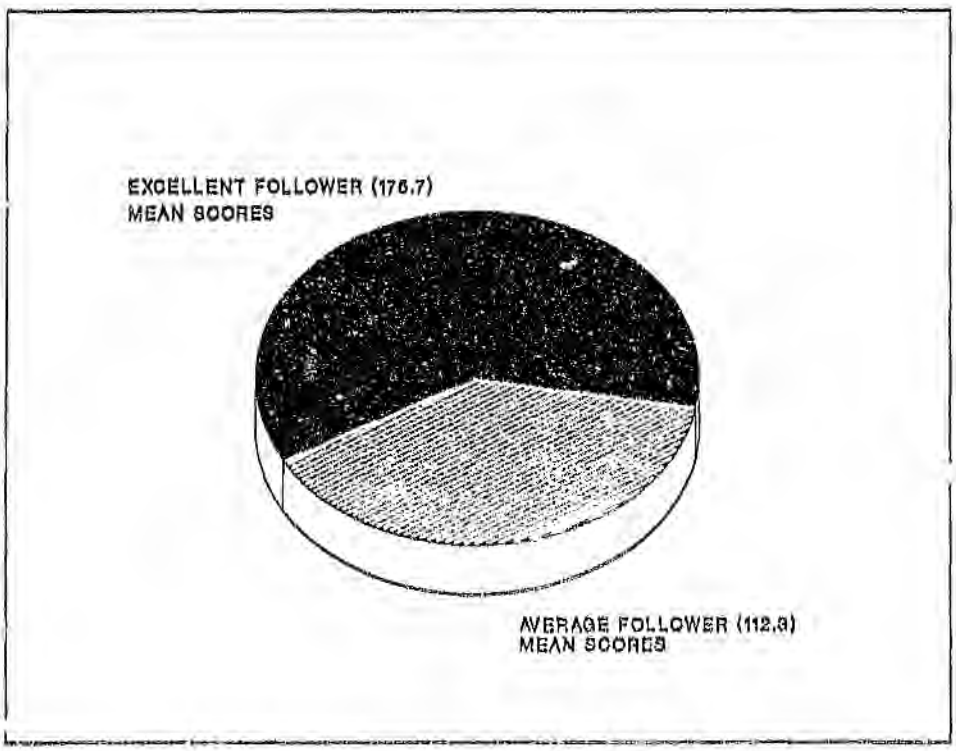


Figure 5.3 Follower comparative means

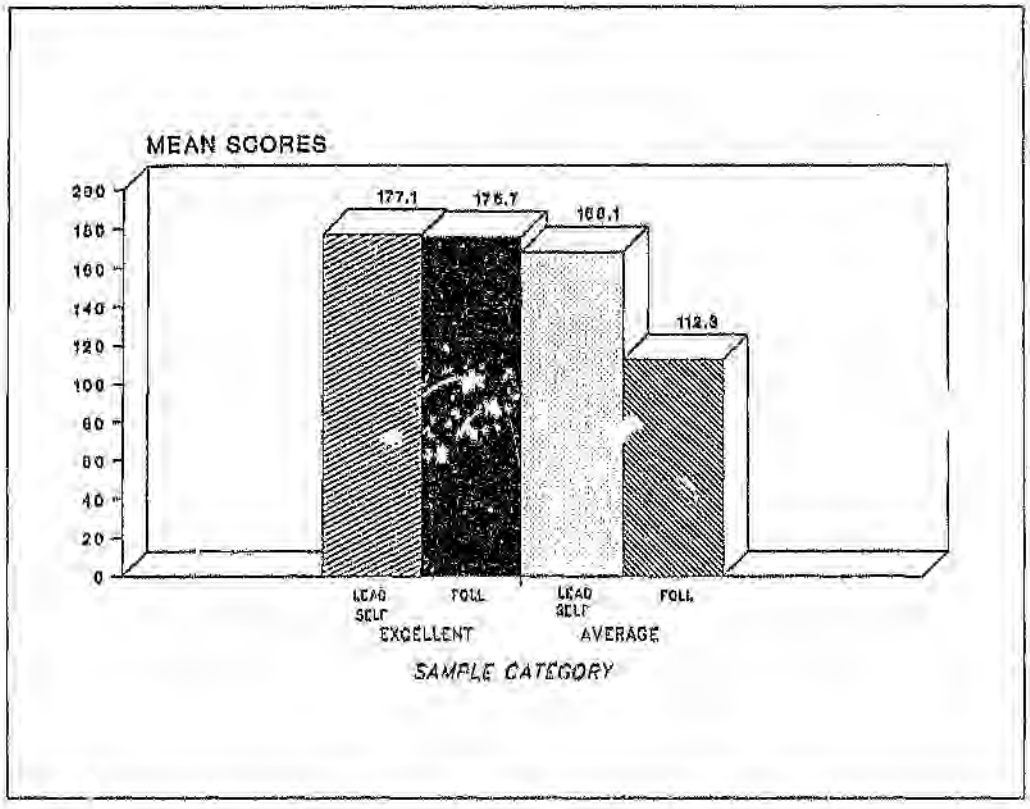


Figure 5.4 Comparative mean scores

5.3 COMPARATIVE COMPETENCY SCORES.

Table 5.3 displays the statistical significance of the five leadership competencies allowing for the testing of hypotheses one and three. Figure 5.5 illustrates the significant difference in mean scores between the average sample of leaders and followers. Figure 5.6 compares the mean scores of follower ratings of excellent and average leaders.

Table 5.3 Significant leadership competencies

CATEGORY		COMPETENCE	SAMPLE	MEAN	Z VALUES	PROBABILITY LIMITS	SIGNIFICANCE
EXCELLENT	L/F	ATTENT					NO
	L EX		10	36,50			
	F EX		20	35,50	1,144	0,2527	ACCEPT Ho
	L EX	MEANING	10	34,40			
	F EX		20	34,70	-0,264	0,7918	ACCEPT Ho
	L EX	TRUST	10	36,90			
	F EX		20	36,00	0,066	0,9474	ACCEPT Ho
	L EX	SELF	10	34,70			
	F EX		20	35,80	-0,858	0,3910	ACCEPT Ho
	L EX	EMPOW	10	34,60			
	F EX		20	34,20	-0,704	0,4815	ACCEPT Ho
AVERAGE	L/F	ATTENT					YES
	L AV		10	34,80	3,542	0,0004	(AVL > AVF)
	F AV		20	22,80			REJECT Ho
	L AV	MEANING	10	31,70	3,234	0,0012	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	20,80			
	L AV	TRUST	10	34,30	2,948	0,0032	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	23,10			
	L AV	SELF	10	34,80	3,498	0,0005	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	23,30			
	L AV	EMPOW	10	32,50	2,728	0,0064	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	22,40			
LEADER COMPAR		ATTENT					NO
	L EX		10	36,50			
	L AV		10	34,80	1,134	0,2568	ACCEPT Ho
	L EX	MEANING	10	34,40			
	L AV		10	31,70	1,323	0,1859	ACCEPT Ho
	L EX	TRUST	10	36,90	0,907	0,3643	ACCEPT Ho
	L AV		10	34,30			
	L EX	SELF	10	34,70	0,227	0,8206	ACCEPT Ho
	L AV		10	34,80			
	L EX	EMPOW	10	34,60	1,096	0,2730	ACCEPT Ho
	L AV		10	32,50			
FOLLOWERS		ATTENT					
	F EX		20	35,00	4,233	0,0000	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	22,80			
	F EX	MEANING	20	34,70	4,531	0,0000	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	20,80			
	F EX	TRUST	20	36,00	3,949	0,0001	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	23,10			
	F EX	SELF	20	35,80	4,179	0,0000	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	23,30			
	F EX	EMPOW	20	34,00	3,665	0,0002	REJECT Ho
	F AV		20	22,40			

DECISION RULE : IF THE PROBABILITY LEVEL IS > 0.05,
ACCEPT Ho (NO DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS)
IF THE PROBABILITY LEVEL IS < 0.05,
REJECT Ho, AND CONFIRM Ha (SIGNIFICANT
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS)

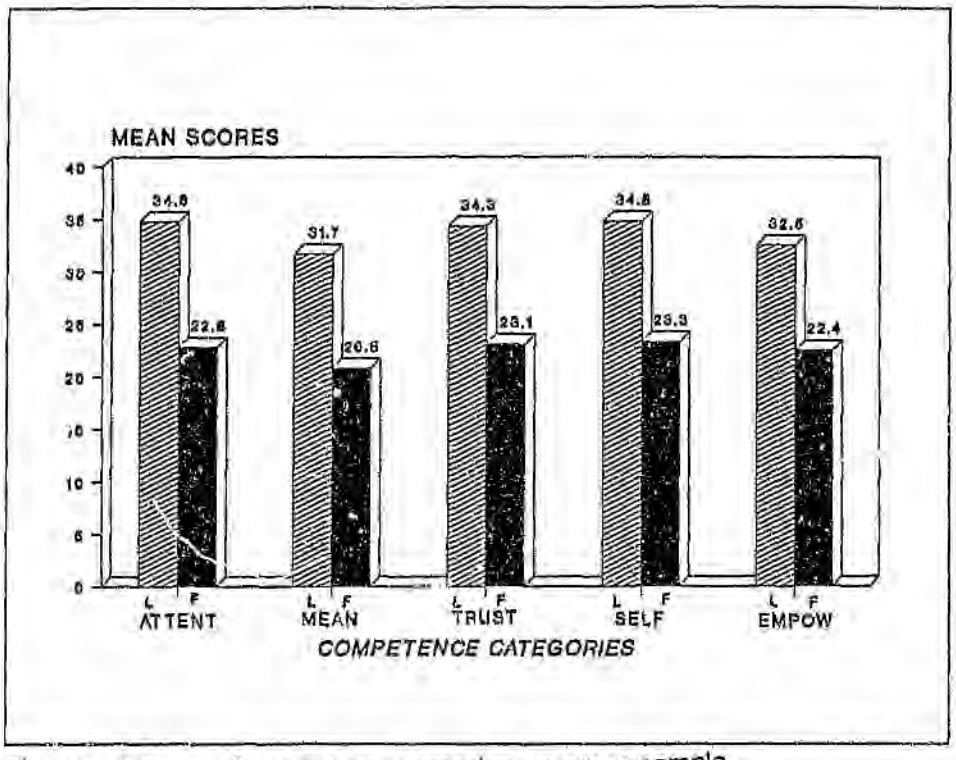


Figure 5.5 Competence categories - average sample

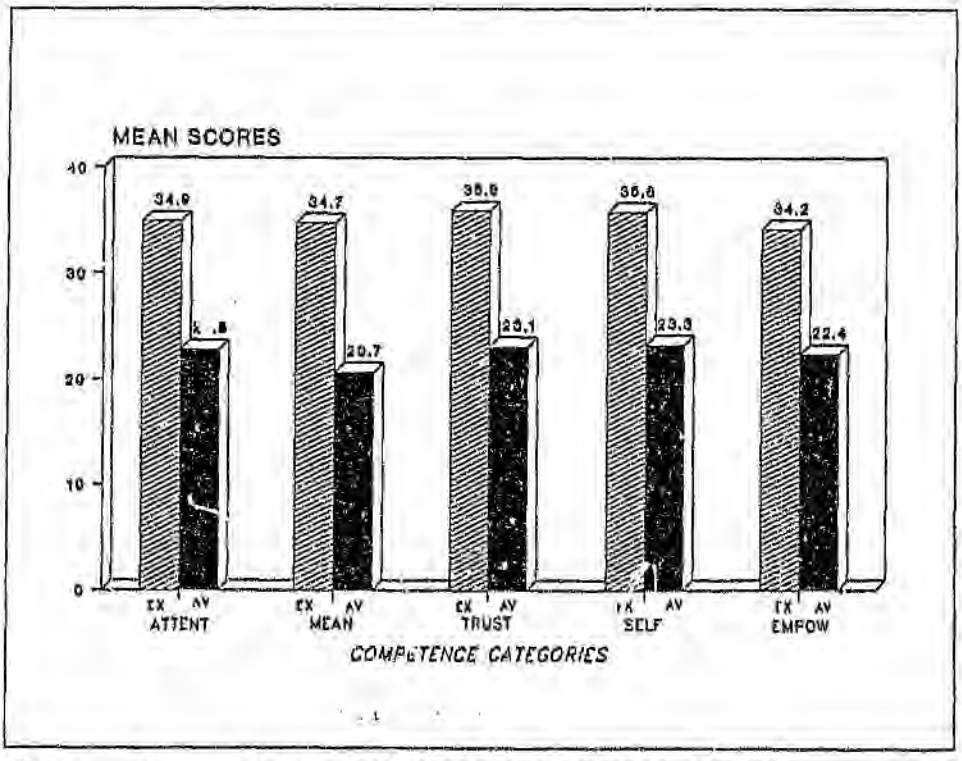


Figure 5.6 Competence categories - follower comparison

The following information can be derived from Table 5.3 and Figures 5.5 - 5.6.

- There is no significant difference between the leader self scores on all five competencies.
- There is a significant difference in the scores of the followers. Excellent followers scored their leaders significantly higher on all five competencies.
- There is a significant difference between the average leaders self rating and their followers who scored them lower on all five competencies.
- There is no significant difference between excellent leaders and their followers.

Consequently hypotheses one and three are confirmed :

Hypotheses One :
"The four competencies of the management of attention through vision, communication through meaning, trust and the management of self, distinguish excellent from average leadership - from a follower perspective." As previously evident, leader self rating is not a reliable indicator of leadership competence.

It needs to be remembered that the highest mean score amongst the excellent leader self rating was 36.9, and the highest score amongst followers was 34.95 out of a total score of 45. This indicates that there is still room for improvement amongst the excellent group.

Hypotheses Three :
"Followers of excellent leaders will feel significantly more empowered than average followers." Empowerment is therefore both a competence and consequence of effective leadership. This finding adds a new competence to leadership in a South African context.

5.4 COMPARATIVE PERCEPTUAL GAP

Table 5.4 records the 'gap analysis' between perceptions of leaders and followers along the five leadership competencies.

Table 5.4 Gap analysis comparative scores

CANDIDATE NUMBER	LEADERSHIP CATEGORY	LEADER FOLLOWER	ATTENTION	GAP ANALYSIS	MEANING	GAP ANALYSIS	TRUST	GAP ANALYSIS	SELF	GAP ANALYSIS	EMPOW	GAP ANAYSIS	TOTAL	MEAN
1	E	L	22		24		35		30		30		135	
2		F	32	11.44	30	5.64	40	5.60	35	10.4	35	10	176	10.15
3		F	32	11.44	30	6.72	41	5.28	38	8.36	47	4	189	2.99
4	E	L	36		35		50		32	3	32		177	
5		F	20	22.4	29	22.4	37	12.16	36	11.52	39	12.6	160	16.7
6		F	34	15.4	37	11.2	40	7.6	35	11.52	33	12.6	102	12.16
7	E	L	43		43		45		35		37		201	
8		F	37	13.76	38	12.04	40	8.6	30	8.4	30	8.68	185	10.29
9		F	39	10.92	38	12.04	40	8.6	37	11.2	30	10.36	192	10.61
10	E	L	30		38		41		34		30		189	
11		F	43	8.26	41	8.03	42		40	8.8	40	7.6	200	8.76
12		F	41	8.68	41	8.06				9.92	39	9.12	196	8.77
13	E	L	37		20						38		169	
14		F	42	4.44	41	4.46					39	8.64	200	7.2
15		F	31	20.72	29	17.92	38			17.12	37	26	185	18.9
16	E	L	41		40		30				30		196	
17		F	27	29.52	26	30.4	15				18	41.01	119	33.24
18		F	41	8.68	42	5.2	42				39	9.12	217	8.68
19	E	L	37		34		46				34		187	
20		F	33	17.16	34	14.03	42	4			38	10.08	184	12.27
21		F	34	16.28	40	6.6	39	9.6			33	10.06	192	9.87
22	E	L	42		34		33		33		34		176	
23		F	37	13.64	37	10.05	33	16.64	30	.64	39	13.6	181	12.6
24		F	34	16.40	28	25.04	32	16.64	32	10.72	33	16.31	159	19.19
25	E	L	40		36		30		37		35		189	
26		F	20	25.6	26	28.23	28	8.6	31	26.12	31	10.76	145	24.19
27		F	30	9.6	30	9.12	38	7.6	40	7.4	36	8.76	194	8.37
28	E	L	39		30		29		38		35		149	
29		F	25	12	20	19.2	26	21.0	31	10.0	27	18	146	17.94
30		F	30	10	26	22.6	27	21	30	24.0	20	23	139	21.50
TOTAL				14.32		15.93		11.73		12.86		14.14		13.79

CANDIDATE NUMBER	LEADERSHIP CATEGORY	LEADER FOLLOWER	ATTENTION	GAP ANALYSIS	MEANING	GAP ANALYSIS	TRUST	GAP ANALYSIS	SELF	GAP ANALYSIS	EMPOW	GAP ANAYSIS	TOTAL	MEAN
31	A	L	41		44		45		45		38		203	
32		F	22	37.72	21	30.08	30	29.24	26	30.4	27	27.36	126	32.16
33		F	12	48.92	19	42.2	30	29.0	23	38.2	13	40.8	107	37.68
34	A	L	34		33		37		34		33		166	
35		F	25	27	28	26.4	23	29.92	24	25.60	23	26.06	120	26.22
36		F	21	35.64	24	27.72	30	20.4	31	19.04	32	18.04	138	23.34
37	A	L	32		33		32		33		30		160	
38		F	10	37.12	6	52.8	8	47.36	12	43.68	8	49.8	49	44.64
39		F	14	30.88	9	47.52	8	48.02	10	43.68	10	43	51	44.34
40	A	L	30		29		32		31		31		163	
41		F	24	30.4	23	26.62	21	21.76	27	21.76	26	23.66	124	21.72
42		F	25	24	25	23.2	34	14.08	28	23.36	26	12.4	146	11.66
43	A	L	31		26		33		32		29		152	
44		F	11	42.16	0	43.68	7	50.16	7	40.64	8	42.02	39	45.53
45		F	14	35.44	16	33.6	17	35.68	14	29.68	10	33.64	78	36.48
46	A	L	32		28		30		37		36		163	
47		F	8	32.8	3	44.8	8	53.4	7	58.24	10	45	35	49.86
48		F	21	18.48	26	17.92	31	18.6	33	17.76	35	12.6	160	16.95
49	A	L	41		31		42		30		38		185	
50		F	30	28.8	25	24.8	24	33.36	27	26	26	31.92	140	28.12
51		F	15	40.2	10	49.4	15	41.4	11	48.96	10	53.2	61	46.64
52	A	L	35		33		35		36		36		175	
53		F	30	21	25	26.4	26	20	31	20.16	23	31.36	134	25.48
54		F	26	23.8	24	14.52	34	15.4	36	12.96	29	23.24	151	17.92
55	A	L	36		37		41		32		37		180	
56		F	27	20.06	24	31.06	25	33.7	28	26.6	23	32.67	128	31.24
57		F	26	14.04	27	26.12	27	20.52	29	22.4	30	22.2	140	22.86
58	A	L	32		28		32		34		30		152	
59		F	23	26.16	22	25.76	23	19.36	21	32.64	20	20	109	24.5
60		F	42	3.64	40	5.6	42	2.64	43	2.72	40	4	207	3.8
TOTAL				30.5		31.1		31.61		30.02		30.00		30.05

Figure 5.7 illustrates the comparative mean scores between the excellent and average sample. The lower the perceptual gap, the more congruent leader follower perspectives are.

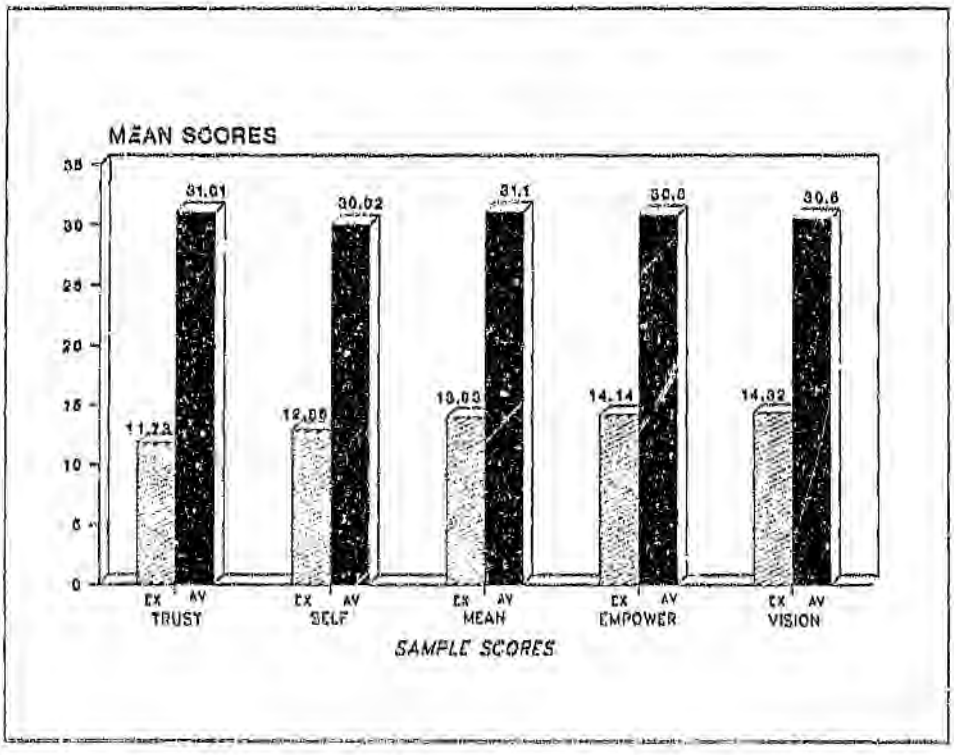


Figure 5.7 Comparative perceptual gap differential

The following information can be derived from Table 5.4 and Figure 5.7.

- The perceptual gap mean scores along all five dimensions of leadership are significantly lower in the excellent sample.
- The largest 'difference' between the two samples was recorded on the trust competency (11.73 Excellent - 31.01 Average), suggesting a possible intervention point to develop leadership in the organisation in the future. In this respect, trust cannot be commanded. It is earned by being and by being seen to be trustworthy.

5.5 INDIVIDUAL LEADERSHIP ACTIVITY

Table 5.5 records the total cumulative scores of individual leadership activity. The maximum total score is 90 (9x10). Followers scores have also been converted to mean scores with a maximum total of 90 by adding the two scores and dividing by 2 - thus accounting for the fractions in the sample. This allows comparisons to be made of individual scores across groups. The total scores have been derived from the raw scores displayed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.5 Individual leadership activities

SAMPLE CATEGORY	LEADERSHIP ACTIVITIES																								MEAN
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
Leader Excellent n=10	83	84	82	78	74	78	80	73	70	80	72	72	82	71	73	73	71	73	70	75	78	73	76	72	87	76.2
Average n=10	71	69	65	71	77	73	61	69	69	62	63	62	62	66	73	65	69	63	71	69	77	67	65	67	65	67.2
Mean TOTAL n=20	76	69	63.5	73.5	75.5	75.5	64.5	71	69	65	66.5	67	67	66.5	73	69	66.5	68	70.5	67	70	70	71.5	69.5	66	69.7
Follower Excellent n=20	67.5	69	70	70	75	76.5	67	71	73.5	64	70.5	75	69.5	69	70	67.5	60	72	74	66	70	69.5	72.5	67.5	71.5	70.2
Average n=20	43.5	41	38.5	40	60.5	50	44.5	43.5	61	41.5	41.5	40	41	45.5	55.5	42.5	40.5	45	40.5	40.5	44.5	44	47.5	44	45	44.04
Mean total n=40	55.50	53.50	54.25	55.00	62.75	63.75	55.75	57.25	62.25	57.75	56.00	56.50	55.25	57.25	67.75	57.50	53.25	58.50	57.25	53.25	57.25	56.75	59.50	55.75	58.75	57.37

The following information can be derived from Table 5.5.

- There was a similarity in the range of total scores within the respective groups, indicating no individual activity that was significantly different from the rest.

- The maxumum leader self rating was 78 with a minimum of 62 - suggesting that there is still room for improvement with all individual leadership activities, and competencies amongst the excellent group. Consequently, the average sample should not be the exclusive focus of future leadership development.

The following activities represent the highest scores for the different sample groups:

"EXCELLENT" LEADERS SELF RATING

- Expect uncompromising standards of excellence and concern with improving previous standards (78).
- Rely on people and enable them to more purposefully manage and enrich their lives (78).
- Create conditions where employees are willing, able, and allowed to perform (76).
- Seek to understand what is preventing an organisation or department from growth and achieving objectives (74).

"AVERAGE" LEADER SAMPLE

- Demonstrates trustworthiness and consistency in behaviour, that is congruent in word and deed (77).
- Seeks to understand what is preventing an organisation from growth (77).
- Expects uncompromising standards of excellence and concern with improving previous standards (73).
- Perceives change and threatening situations as a challenge and opportunity for growth (73).

"EXCELLENT" FOLLOWER SAMPLE

- Perceives change and threatening situations as an opportunity for growth (78).
- Expects compromising standards of excellence and concern with improving standards (75.5).
- Demonstrates trustworthiness and consistency in behaviour that is congruent in word and deed (75).
- Accepts responsibility for creating individual life experience, rather than blaming situations (74).

"AVERAGE" FOLLOWER SAMPLE

- Expects uncompromising standards of excellence and concern with improving previous standards (58).
- Perceives change and threatening situations as a challenge and opportunity for growth (55.5).
- Demonstrates trustworthiness and consistency in behaviour that is congruent in word and deed (50.5)
- Creates conditions where employees are willing, able, and allowed to perform job related activities (48).

Table 5.6 has been generated from the follower scores detailed in Table 5.5. The significantly different scores between average leaders and their followers suggests immediate intervention amongst this target group. The greater the gap differential between leaders and followers - the more urgently that particular activity needs attention.

Table 5.6 ranks individual leader activity according to the largest gap differential - thereby suggesting a starting point for future intervention.

Table 5.6 Follower/leader perceptual differences

Questionaire Number	SAMPLE group		Perceptual GAP	Ranking	Leader Activity
	L	F			
21	77	44,5	32,5	1	Removes organisational obstacles
19	71	40,5	30,5	2	Internal locus of control
1	71	43,5	27,5	3	Future vision, provides direction
2	68	41	27	4	Self Awareness
3	65	38,5	26,5	5	Communicates clearly
5	77	50,5	26,5	6	Congruence - word and deed
6	69	43,5	25,5	7	Individual trust
11	65	41,5	23,5	8	Focus on business essentials
4	71	48	23	9	Socialised/constructive power
22	67	44	23	9	Synergy through common meaning
24	67	44	23	9	Competence
16	65	42,5	22,5	12	People as creative/competent
12	62	40	22	13	Communicates understanding/empathy
20	62	40,5	21,5	14	Creates meaning
17	62	40,5	21,5	14	People attention and commitment
13	62	41	21	16	Focus on current reality
14	66	45,5	20,5	17	Constant organisational positioning
10	62	41,5	20,5	17	Aware organisational constraints
18	65	45	20	19	Innate worth of people
20	58	48	19	20	Development and training role
9	59	51	18	21	Individual growth and learning
23	65	47,5	17,5	22	Relies on people (trust)
15	73	55,5	17,5	22	Cognitive hardiness
7	61	44,5	16,5	24	Create meaning in change
8	73	58	15	25	Uncompromising standards - Excellence

The following information can be derived from Table 5.6:

- The first eight activities are spread across all five competencies suggesting the interdependance of leadership activity. Consequently any leaderhip intervention should cover all five competencies, beginning with:
  - removing organisational obstacles to individual and/or organisational growth (empowerment)
  - developing an internal locus of control (self)
  - vision of the future (attention)
  - self awareness (self)
  - communicates clearly (organisational trust)
  - congruence in word and deed (organisational trust)
  - individual trust
  - focus on business essentials (attention)

5.6 SUMMARY

The following points summarise the findings of the researc'

1. Excellent leaders were rated significantly higher on the dimensions of the management of attention, meaning, trust and self, by their followers.

2. There was no difference between excellent leader self scores and average leader self scores on the above dimensions.

3. Consequently, follower perceptions of leadership become the crucial variable in identifying leadership competence. Leader self rating is not a good indicator of leadership competence.

4. As expected from the above, the perceptions of excellent leaders and their followers are more congruent than those in the average sample.

5. The empowerment of followers by excellent leaders emerged as a distinguishing competence and consequence of effective leadership.

Consequently, the Bennis and Nanus (1985) leadership competence model was confirmed in a South African business context - from a follower perspective. The original model was not scientifically derived, and included only leaders in the original sample. The above results will be interpreted in Chapter VI together with recommendations for future research, and the future application of the findings to developing leadership competence within organisations.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to critically discuss the research findings as well as offering recommendations for future research and the strategic development of leadership within organisations. This chapter consists of four major sections.

Section 6.2 discusses the reasons behind the large perceptual gap between average leaders and their followers, as well as the organisational culture and how this impacts on ineffective leadership.

Section 6.3 - 6.4 offers an explanation for effective leadership, despite the organisational culture with reference to previous research and the theoretical framework underpinning the study.

Section 6.5 - 6.6 provides an overview of the effectiveness of the assessment methodology used in identifying leadership competence and makes recommendations for future research.

Finally, section 6.7 explores critical strategic issues concerning the development of leadership within organisations from a process, content and methodological perspective.

6.2 Ineffective Leadership and Divergent Follower Perspectives.

6.2.1 Introduction

Table 5.2 illustrates the significant difference between average leader self perceptions and follower perceptions of the same leadership activity. In contrast, there is no difference between the perceptions of excellent leaders and their followers. Overall, excellent leaders had a mean score of 177.10 compared to 175.70 scored by their followers. In contrast to the average leaders self score of 168.10 compared to 112.70 of their followers. A similar significant difference of vastly divergent

perceptions occurred on all five competence dimensions, between average leaders and their followers.

Consequently, the critical variable in measuring leadership is the followers who experience the impact of leadership behaviour. Leader self assessment is not a good indicator of effectiveness. Average leaders are not aware of the negative impact they are having and consequently there is a perceptual gap between leader intentions and follower experiences. This has implications for the necessity of follower and peer assessment as a fundamentally essential performance appraisal technique which will be discussed later under strategic leadership development.

6.2.2 Perceptual Congruence and Shared Meaning

Kouzes and Posner (1989) point out that leader self studies reveal only half of the essence of leadership. A leader, by definition, must have followers who choose to follow the leader. In this regard, leadership is in the eye of the follower or the experience followers have of leadership activity. Consequently, it is not the intention of the leader that is important, but the follower's experience of this behaviour that will determine the action that is taken, and thus the effectiveness of leadership. In this regard, the extent of perceptual overlap between leaders and followers is vital for effective leadership.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) point out the importance of leadership that is flexible and can adapt to a variety of situation demands and follower expectations. Comparing ones self perception of leadership with perceptions of others is essential, particularly since ones self perceptions may not reflect actual leadership behaviour, depending on the degree of perceptual overlap with others. Complex managerial tasks in an exponentially changing environment require diverse leadership flexibility and the congruence of perceptions between leader and follower.

A useful vehicle to explain divergent leader/follower perceptions, and ways of rectifying this is the Johari Window (Luft and Ingham, 1970).

6.2.3 Perceptual Congruence - Giving and Receiving Feedback

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) summarise recent thinking by pointing out that leadership competence/style can be learnt, but question the willingness of people to learn to become adaptable. Once people are conscious of the impact they are having on others, research has shown that behaviour can be altered if people choose or are willing to do so (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). Consequently, self awareness of the impact you are having on others is crucial to effective leadership, together with a willingness to change this behaviour to the benefit of self, followers and the organisation. This in turn is dependent on receiving and giving feedback from other people such as followers.

Luft and Ingham (1970) developed an instrument know as the Johari Window, designed to measure the extent to which people give and receive feedback. Luft and Ingham (1970) point out that there are some attitudes and behaviours engaged in by leaders that they know about themselves. This 'known to self area' included their knowledge of the way they are coming across to the people whom they are trying to influence. At the same time, part of the leader's personality is 'unknown to self' and the impact they have on others. This could be due to their followers not giving them feedback or due to the leader not being sufficiently alert to pick up and comprehend the verbal and non verbal environmental cues. There will also be parts of the leader's personality that are known to other people that he is not aware of (blind spot), as well as the private area which he/she is aware of but does not disclose to other people. The arena that is known to self and is disclosed to others is referred to as the 'public arena', while the area that both the leader and others are not aware of has been labelled the 'unknown'. This unconcious area may be having a relevant and dramatic impact in terms of choices of activity and the way this impacts on others.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982 : 243) comment from extensive leadership research involving the Johari Window, that it is possible to predict the shape of the public arena. If there is a great discrepancy between leader self-perception and followers' perception, the leader's public arena would tend to

be very small. The converse applies with a large arena where significant perceptual overlap occurs. Consequently, we would expect average leaders in this study to have a narrow arena due to extensive defences and an organisational culture that does not encourage the giving and receiving of feedback, particularly from subordinates.

There are two processes that affect the shape of the Johari Window, or configuration of the above four areas. The first is called feedback - the extent to which others in the organisational setting are willing to share with the leader on how he or she is coming across. This is dependent on the degree of trust in the organisation and the degree of openess in the organisational culture to challenge the status quo and to learn from mistakes. It also requires openess or willingness from the leader to perceive this feedback. This willingness is in turn related to an internal locus of control or 'assuming responsibility to initiate and sustain change'.

The willingness to receive feedback is also related to the following competencies listed in the questionnaire:

- Seeks to understand what is preventing an organisation or department from growing and achieving its objectives.
- Is able to diagnose and change inappropriate behaviour and indenpendently take constructive action.
- Accepts responsibility for creating individual life experience, rather than blaming situations or people for misfortune.
- Perceives change and threatening situations as a challenge and opportunity for personal and/or organisational growth.
- Is committed to self development and continual learning.

Table 5.5 shows that excellent leaders were scored significantly higher on all of the above, by their followers in contrast to follower scores of average leaders. Many managers cut off and eventually stifle feedback from their people by arguing with them about their feelings and perceptions, not being able to draw the distinction between unacceptable feelings and unacceptable behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982 : 239).

In contrast, successful people realise that 'feedback is the breakfast of champions' and is the only way for people to learn, adapt and grow. Feedback which is negative is construed by successful people as an opportunity to try something new, and not as failure, with the consequent employment of defenses to protect a weak self concept (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Bennis (1989) concurs, pointing out that leaders encourage dissent, or the organisational corollary of reflective backtalk, "*Leaders need people around them who have contrary views, who are devil's advocates, variance sensors who can tell them the difference between what is expected and what is going on*" (Bennis, 1989 : 195).

The second process affecting the shape of a person's Johari Window is the process of disclosure or giving feedback. This involves the extent leaders are willing to share with others in their organisational setting data about themselves, their feelings, attitudes and assumptions. In the process of disclosure, the more organisationally relevant information the leaders disclose, the more the public arena opens up, and followers themselves can make informed decisions about how to act more effectively.

"*An interesting phenomenon occurs in settings where there is simultaneous feedback and disclosure. Not only does the public arena of these leaders begin to extend itself into the blind and private arenas, but there is also the high probability that some of what was previously unknown will begin to surface into the public arena*" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982 : 241).

This practice which is familiar to both the psychotherapist and organisational development experts, of necessity involves an element of risk and rejection. Giving and receiving feedback involves identifying where an organisation now stands in relation to its objectives, or identifying the self defeating patterns and learning disabilities preventing organisational and individual growth (Senge 1991).

In summary, the key to obtaining a perceptual fit between leaders and followers appears to be the leader's willingness and ability to manage him/herself by receiving and giving feedback. This view is reinforced by the high scores of the

excellent leaders on the management of self competency (Tables 5.3 and 5.5).

This explanation is supported by local findings emanating from research involving twenty-six chief executives. Kelly (1986) found that leadership was essentially an interpersonal activity including the importance of being in touch with one's people, of being able to communicate with them, empower them and draw them in behind one (Kelly, 1986 : ii). Self awareness and congruence in word and deed are critical factors underpinning the above.

On an international level, Boyatsis (1982) found that the competencies of effective self management were significantly related to self assessment, self control, concern with impact and self confidence as criteria underpinning managerial success.

Bennis (1989) summarises the importance of self awareness and other competencies in developing complementary leader-follower perceptions:

"*Leadership development is based on the assumption that leaders are people who are able to express themselves fully. By this I mean that they know who they are, what their strengths and weaknesses are, and how to fully deploy their strengths and compensate for their weaknesses. They also know what they want, why they want it, and how to communicate what they want to others, in order to gain their cooperation and support.*

Finally, they know how to achieve their goals. The key to full self-expression is understanding one's self and the world, and the key to understanding is learning - from one's own life and experience" (Bennis, 1989 : 3).

6.2.4 Organisation Culture in Contrast to Leadership and Empowerment

The previous section pointed out the importance of giving and receiving feedback as a fundamental criteria of effective leadership. However, in an environment where information is withheld as a form of power within an hierarchical organisation, with a win-lose power orientation, candour and honestly may

be actively discouraged. In such an organisation, there may be little or no consequence to denying feedback.

Edgar Schein (1980) points out the interdependence between leadership and culture, where leadership influences and is influenced by the organisation's myths, rules, folk laws, values, policies, attitudes and behaviours which are both implicit and explicit.

In attempting to explain ineffective leadership, the broader context of the mining industry needs to be explored. The Chamber of Mines is dependent on the major Mining Houses for funding and is consequently answerable to the industry for the effectiveness of its services. Over the last two years, there have been a number of retrenchments within the Chamber as a result of the poor gold price and a perception that certain Chamber services are not cost effective. As a result, most departments have taken on a defensive or reactive stance vis-a-vis the Mining Houses, including cost cutting and severe budget constraints. Stability has become the norm amidst tumultuous change, and departments have become immobilised, adopting a 'wait and see' attitude, despite the espoused leadership role in the company's strategic plan. Individual visits to various departments, during the administration of the questionnaire confirmed the depressed, apathetic atmosphere and reactive stance of many leaders.

The organisational culture of the Chamber of Mines is inextricably bound up with the Mining Houses. Jacobs (1961 : 360) points out that the mining industry constitutes a peculiar type of industrial complex with its own unique structure and value concepts. He compares the mining community to the army - sharing a similar hierarchical structure, with an emphasis on status.

The group system in the mining industry, while having merits in terms of the mobilisation of technical and financial resources, reinforces the system's hierarchical control structures. Under this system, individual mines are subjected to a veritable array of experts who are superimposed upon the existing management structure - introducing excessive centralisation and vertical span of control. The Chamber of Mines is also subject to

this pressure, where for example, within the industrial relations context it has little room to manoeuvre at yearly wage negotiations and the need to accomodate the most conservative Mining House's (the lowest common denominator) wishes.

Against this background and in response to the committee system of decision making, there arises a strong compulsion to behave as a manager rather than a leader, because responsibility is often delegated without authority.

This adherence to structures places emphasis on the conventional and familiar, and induces resistance to change and reinforces the managers autocratic and patriarchal position and entrenches a value system which gives excessive prominence to status, earning capacity and other materialistic considerations (Jacobs, 1960).

This structure and culture is in direct contrast with the global trends, necessitated by exponential change to reduce hierarchical levels, encourage autonomy and decentralisation and to empower people - as a source of competitive advantage (Senge, 1991; Hall, 1990).

Moss-Kanter comments on the above changes impacting on managers:

"*Managerial work is undergoing such an enormous and rapid change that managers are re-inventing their profession as they go. Managers have little precedent to guide them, as they are faced with extraordinary levels of complexity and interdependency and eroding sources of traditional power and ineffective use of old motivational tools. In short, leadership is more difficult yet more critical than ever*" (Moss-Kanter, 1989 : 91).

In response to the eroding sources of traditional power, many managers will adopt a more excessive authoritarian approach. This illustrates the way these managers handle power, as a win/lose situation and how they see their followers.

"Managers have a distorted view of the people they manage. Fewer than twenty per cent of managers today manage as if their workers were competent. Yet realistically, very little that managers do would have any relevance at all if it were not for one basic fact; by and large people are capable of doing what needs to be done" (Hall, 1990:14).

The belief of incompetence, and consequent self fulfilling prophecy is expressed in authority relationships, decision making structures and job descriptions (Hall, 1990).

This description of seeing followers as incompetent is confirmed by the significantly lower scores of the average leader sample by followers on the following leadership activities tabulated on page 98.

- Views people as creative and competent (excellent followers - 67.5; average followers - 42.5)
- Articulates and embodies a moral code that cares about people (excellent followers - 72; average followers - 45.1)
- Relies on people and enables them to more purposefully manage and enrich their lives (excellent followers - 72.5; average followers - 47.5)
- Creates an opportunity for self development and continual learning in others (excellent followers - 71.5; average followers - 46)

In terms of removing organisational obstacles associated with bureaucratic organisations, excellent leaders were scored 64, compared to average followers (41.5).

The same can also be said for communication problems - excellent leaders had a follower mean of 70 compared to 38.5 by average followers in measuring the activity of *'consciously communicating a focus that is meaningful for people, through verbal expression of ideas, symbols and graphic expression of ideas'.*

It must be remembered that the same hundred year organisational bureaucracy and committee system confronts both sets of leaders. Excellent leaders however, have learnt to 'cut

through the red tape' and empower their people, particularly in the sphere of influence of their own departments. In contrast, average leaders have maintained the status quo and contributed to the bureaucratic culture. The process of learning and explanation behind successful leadership despite this organisational culture will be explored in the next section.

6.3 Accounting for Successful Leadership

Traditionally the social sciences have operated from a pathogenic paradigm, focusing on factors conducive to disease, mental disorder, stress and poor performance. The competence approach in contrast, identifies factors conducive to excellence that people have cultivated over a lifetime in order to accelerate the development of trainees over a shorter time span.

This section seeks to identify factors conducive to the development of leadership competence, despite the organisational culture; failure of formal management development (Livingstone, 1973; Mintzberg, 1973; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Margerison and Kakabadse, 1984) and failure of informal development in South Africa (Pruett, 1988). The explanation of effective leadership will draw on previous research and the theoretical overview discussed in Chapters II and III.

The excellent leaders in the sample have learnt their craft despite a multitude of restraining factors. This process of learning is described below by South African executives.

"I had to learn to be more sensitive in my dealings with people."
(Executive no 5)

"I learnt that you can't play around with people as if they're pawns. If somehow a trust relationship breaks, you can't easily fix it."
(Executive no 25)

"Being self-taught, I'm a very hands-on manager. I had to learn to allow people to do it their way; I head to learn to allow them to make their own mistakes."
(Executive no 20)

(Kelly, 1986 : 098)

On an international level, the American Management Association Study, Leading at critical success factors underpinning leadership (Margerison and Kakabadse, 1984) highlighted the importance of leader flexibility in accepting the views of other people and to adjust their own actions to accommodate organisational processes. This relates to the previously described Johari Window, with a willingness to give and accept feedback, as does the primacy of 'process' or people competencies. Self understanding was also considered vital, including an appreciation of strengths and weaknesses and a willingness to change in this regard. As described previously, self awareness or exploring the unconscious arena is a precursor to change. Thereafter, the critical determinant of growth is a willingness to change, starting with self which relates to management of self described by Bennis (1989).

From a South African perspective, Kelly (1986) identified the following key influences on a leader's career development:

1. Ability to work with a wide variety of people (consequently interpersonal skills must be incorporated into any development programme).

2. Desire to achieve results (which can be likened to a personal and/or organisational vision and used as a basic selection determinant in any leadership development process).

3. Analytical Ability - including the ability to think laterally, divergently and understand 'the real parameters and dynamics of a situation' (Kelly 1986:69). This related to the natural ability executives have to think systemically, tolerate ambiguity and to determine current reality. Consequently, systems thinking is an essential ingredient of fundamental change and needs to be included in the process of leadership development.

4. The ability to manage, change and handle ambiguity. Consequently, the dynamics underpinning change on an individual and organisational level should be included in leadership development.

5. Broad business experience requiring a structural developmental path.

6. Relevant education and training - that related to immediate needs and has applicability on the job.

7. A clear vision or value system.

Executives also identified the importance of obtaining commitment through teams; understanding key business principles; developing a clear mission; having a marketing orientation and the importance of setting high standards and measuring these - a factor confirmed by this present study.

Bennis (1989), points out the importance of lifelong learning as a fundamental vehicle for leadership. He points out that leaders have learnt to overcome learning disabilities where what we need to know gets lost in what we are told we should know. Learning then, is simply a case of remembering what is important.

"*This process of learning has many recurring themes - the need for education both formal and informal; the need to unlearn so that you can learn (overcoming self defeating patterns of behaviour); the need for reflecting on learning, so that the meaning of the lesson is understood; the need to take risks, make mistakes, and the need for competence, for mastery of the task at hand*" (Bennis, 1989 : 9).

Bennis distinguishes between the once-born, and twice-born leader and learner. The first group has an easy transition though life and have become a product of their circumstances. In contrast, the twice-borns are often isolated or suffer in the developmental process, learning to become independent, relying wholly on their own beliefs and ideas.

Consequently, they have learnt what works for them, and to commit themselves to follow their own inner voice in order to express themselves fully, regardless of the context (Bennis, 1989).

6.4 Critical Leadership Competencies

As expected from the theoretical overview of leadershp, the five competencies of leadership emerged as distinguishing factors between excellent and average performers.

6.4.1 Vision

The importance of vision is supported by previous research concerning leadership in a South African context (Kelly, 1986). However, Lapinsky (1990) found that the ability to conceptualise was not a distinguishing factor between excellent and average managers.

Conceptualisation refers to the ability to perceive a pattern or structure in a set of facts not evident to others - a skill used by creative and innovative thinkers (Lapinsky, 1990 : 130). This competence is essential for the identification and clarification of strategic issues and is a fundamental competence required when moving from a managerial to a strategic position in the organisational hierarchy.

The results of this study agree with Kelly's (1986) findings. The ability to inspire a vision of the future of the organisation that is attractive and aligns activity is particularly relevant in a changing political climate which generates fear and apathy.

6.4.2 Meaning Through Communication

Kelly (1986) found that chief executive officers had superb communication skills, both on an interpersonal and an organisational level. Surprisingly, however, Lapinsky (1990 : 127) did not find managers who consistently demonstrated the ability to persuade and influence others as a significant competence of effective management. On a conceptual level, these managers had a clear understanding of the importance of persuasive oral communication, although this was not actualised on a social role and a skill level. Given the primacy of this competence, Lapinsky concluded that the ability to influence and persuade others was an essential competence these managers needed to learn.

The importance of being available and visible to promote two-way communication is expressed in the following extracts of the Kelly study (1986 : 111).

"I make myself available to my executives immediately for business and private needs." (Executive no 21)

"My days are totally unstructured - they involve a few meetings and appointments and a lot of walking about and chatting to people at all levels. I believe in very heavy networking." (Executive no 22)

"I spend the greatest portion of my day moving around talking to people; we are a great company for visible management." (Executive no 20)

This study confirms excellent leaders competence in the management or meaning through communication, although there is still significant room for improvement amongst this target group with a mean self score of 34.4 and follower rating of 31.7 out of a maximum score of 45.

6.4.3 Trust

Predictably the management of trust emerged as an essential ingredient of leadership in previous South African studies (Kelly, 1986; Lapinsky, 1990). It is also predictable that average leaders were scored low by followers on this dimension because of the leader incongruence between word and deed. Trust is significantly related to the individuals view of people.

Lapinsky (1990) found the ability to express positive regard for others was a distinguishing threshold competency of effective management. This competence represents a fundamental human value and therefore interacts with all the other competencies; particularly empowerment which depends on leaders investing faith in others and trusting their judgment. Kelly summarises the importance of trust (1986 : 88).

"The trust between me and my executive team is such that no notes are needed. If I say yes, then they know I mean yes, that I will remember that I said yes, and that if it turns sour, I'll take the rap with them." (Executive no 21)

6.4.4 Self

The ability to manage self has emerged as an essential ingredient of leadership studies (Kelly, 1986; Lapinsky, 1990). Kelly found each executive to 'have a conscious appreciation of his own value system together with an honest appraisal of his personal strengths and weaknesses' (1986 : 116). This involves the ability to change and adapt and to constantly learn from your environment.

6.4.5 Empowerment

Empowerment emerged as both a competence and consequence of excellent leadership in this study. Boyatsis (1982) found that 'developing others' and the wise use of 'unilateral power' were significantly related to managerial success. On a local level, Lapinsky (1990) points out the importance of providing effective feedback, while at the same time allowing individuals to take personal responsibility for making changes and testing their effectiveness. An example from Lapinsky (1990 : 132) illuminates the process of empowerment:

"I took on her development and I encouraged her to develop her job. I regraded the job and it came out as a far bigger job than the traditional job. She is now an integral part of the business ... I have started looking at giving people additional responsibilities. I am growing their jobs within international and local standards. The carrot I am offering them is to develop within their jobs and also clear standards. The benefit is obviously also to the business." (Lapinsky, 1990 132)

6.5 The Competence Assessment Methodology

This section critically reviews the origin of leadership competence, and the effectiveness of its application to this research before offering recommendations for future research.

A consistent theme emanating from the literature is the difficulty experienced in identifying what characterises an effective manager, and even greater difficulty in identifying competencies underpinning leader-

ship. Indeed, Bennis and Nanus (1985) point out that there are at least three hundred different leadership theories and models.

This lack of clarity concerning what constitutes leadership has had negative implications for the endeavour of leadership development. Pruett (1988), cites a fundamental problem in management development as stemming from the inadequate identification of management and leadership competence and consequent measurement problems concerning the effectiveness of development interventions. This results in a tendency to 'follow fads and flavours of the month' ; placing emphasis on the wrong type of skills, the importing of foreign courses and no control over the transfer of skills to the workplace (Pruett, 1988). Thus it comes as little surprise to realise that successful managers attribute no more than ten per cent of their growth to such programmes, and that a major problem training practitioners face is the lack of commitment of the top management.

Recent management and leadership studies have adopted a competence approach to identifying leadership (Boyatsis, 1982; Margerison and Kakobadse, 1984; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Kelly, 1986).

The job competence approach was adopted in this study because:

- A competency model generates behavioural definitions of effective performance.

- The approach provides a causal link between competence and superior performance by identifying the difference between average and excellent leadership.

- The approach involves rigorous empirical investigation.

Normally in practice, the competence model requires the identification of objective performance measurement criteria as a basis to separate excellent and average performers (Hay Management Consultants, 1990). It is significant that no such indicators existed within the Chamber of Mines and the Management Team preferred not to go through an exercise of ranking individuals for fear of recriminations in this regard.

Consequently, three existing independent methods were used to create the excellent/average division - performance appraisal ratings

where superiors rated subordinates, peer ratings of candidates; and follower ratings of the leaders. With the exception of one candidate, this method proved a good alternative method of distinguishing excellence.

It is however, recommended that future research distinguishing between average and excellent leadership :

1. Involve a more comprehensive peer rating system.

2. Identify objective performance measurement criteria which are critical, visible determinants of success.

The study adopted a questionnaire methodology in contrast with the behavioural events interview underpinning the American Management Association (1984); Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Kelly (1986) research. The decision to adopt a questionnaire approach was twofold:

1. The original research of Bennis and Nanus (1985) was not scientifically derived or tested. They had manually developed four constructs that accounted for the data generated during the interviews. The questionnaire adopted in this study allows a comprehensive scientific assessment of the above method.

   It must however be remembered that although the individual constructs were developed from an exhaustive review of the literature, it is not sufficiently clear whether they measure the competencies they say they measure. Consequently, it is recommended that:

   (a) This questionnaire be subject to comprehensive testing for validity and reliability and adapted accordingly. The original questionnaire can be expanded upon and checks and balances introduced in order to move the instrument beyond exploratory research.

6.6 Recommendations for Future Research

6.6.1 Broaden leadership sample - across organisations

This exploratory research lends itself to extended follow-up research across organisations. While this research confirmed and extended the international competence research, the South African leadership model needs further confirmation. This extension could be two-fold :

- across industries in a business and service environment
- across organisations within South Africa

The demand for leadership and its importance on international, national and organisational levels indicates the mandatory need to involve leaders from political, religious, sporting and cultural systems as well as business. The original competence model (Bennis and Nanus, 1985) included 90 leaders from all the above arenas and found competencies common to all leaders regardless of context. Research of a similar scope and magnitude in order to develop a South African model is essential to meet the challenges of a new decade and the beginning of a new century.

6.6.2 Application of Additional Methodology

The original leadership competence model was based on behavioural events interviews, which proved a useful - if time-consuming - method of identifying competence. The replication of this methodology and the process used by Boyatsis (1982) and MacLagen (1983) are useful proven methods of identifying competence.

6.6.3 Empowerment and Leadership

Empowerment is a much used but little understood term that is related to the leaders worldview of people. Accepting responsibility to develop people is critical given the continued skills shortage, although this can only take place with the wise use of power and specific skills and attitudes that are con-

ducive to development. Consequently, extensive research into the nature and process of empowerment within South African organisations is essential.

6.6.4 Leadership and Equal Opportunity

Hofmeyr (1989) comments on the dismal failure of equal opportunity programmes due to the lack of commitment from top management and destructive management attitudes to the process of advancement. Consequently the successful implementation of 'equity' is dependent on both bottom-up development and the top-down application of leadership competence. The critical strategic and development role of leaders underpinning successful equal opportunity programmes deserves extensive research.

6.6.5 Leadership and the Learning Organisation

One of the critical ingredients behind successful leadership appears to be the ability to learn independently at work. On an organisational level, the literature points out that an organisation's ability to learn will be its only source of competitive advantage in the future (Senge, 1991; De Geus, 1991).

Thus, research concerning how leaders learn and overcome learning disabilities is vital to the development of leadership as is the role that leaders can play in facilitating organisational learning. The link between the work done by Senge (1991) and the leadership competencies described in this study, is also a vital area of research.

6.6.6 Leadership and Intrinsic Motivation and Meaning

Surprisingly, there is a dearth of management and organisational literature and research concerning the 'will to meaning' as a primary source of intrinsic motivation. Much attention has been given to the work of Maslow and Hertzberg, without exploring the application of Victor Frankl's motivational and developmental approach in a work context. It is therefore recommended that more detailed research be undertaken

concerning both the theory and the practice of actualising meaning in a business context.

6.6.7 The Application of Leadership Competence

The identification of leadership competencies is a natural precursor to the development of a leadership training programme.

The leadership competence questionnaire allows a baseline to measure the impact of any programme after it has been implemented through pre and post programme measurement, from both a leader and a follower perspective. Consequently, research needs to focus on the content, methodology and application of a leadership training process and its impact on an organisations productivity, effectiveness and profitability. Research also needs to be conducted on the critical supporting variables to formal training such as peer and follower assessment and the role of the chief executive in support of the leadership process.

6.6.8 Identifying Leadership Competence at Different Levels of the Organisation

To date, leadership research has concentrated primarily on people at the top of the organisation. However, leadership exists at all levels of the organisation (Peters, 1988) and relates to activity that enables ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity, regardless of a persons position in the organisation. It is recommended that research be undertaken at different levels of the organisation in order to compare and contrast competencies identified by this research and the emphasis placed on different competencies. This would include focusing less on strategic issues and more on the impelmentation of tasks.

6.7 Recommendations for Strategic Leadership Development

Table 3.1 on page 76 summarises the essential criteria for successful development of leadership and empowerment within organisations. These recommendations have been integrated with the findings from this study as a wholistic model for strategic leadership development displayed in Figure 6.1.

The outer arena of the model displayed overleaf depicts human resource issues such as the skills shortage and demand for equal opportunity, quality of life and participation that comprise the changing environment of business. These can be summarised as the need to empower people which in turn demands effective transformational leadership to meet these challenges.

The second rectangle comprises the organisational human resource strategy, together with the need for organisational development and top management support. Environmental challenges, together with an organisations strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, gives rise to an organisations business strategy which, of necessity, must include developing a learning culture (De Geus, 1991; Senge, 1991). This culture provides the context where leadership activity is rewarded and reinforced.

The organisational strategy, in turn, guides the human resource strategy which is concerned with getting the right people in the right place at the right time (Fombrum et al, 1984) in order to implement the business strategy. Strategic human resource management comprises four essential components : selection; appraisal; development and reward systems (Fombrum et al, 1984).

The results of this study identify leadership criteria which can be used to select and appraise people. The research instrument can be used as a selection device and to evaluate organisational activity. A fundamental finding of this research is the need to involve followers in the evaluation process in addition to peer and superior assessment. Once 'managers' realise that they are accountable to their followers, the need to empower them increases momentum. Appraisal will indicate priority developmental needs which form the basis of the leadership programme at the centre of the model. Finally, 'leaders' need to be rewarded for their activity. The allocation of rewards can be based in part on competencies identified by the research as well as specific

performance measurement criteria identified by the organisation. As indicated in Chapter III, top management support and visibility is vital to the programme.

Bennis (1989) comments on the importance of personalising the need for learning through assessing individual strengths and weaknesses. A vital ingrediant in obtaining top management support is individual feedback to managers concerning the perceptual gap between individual and follower perceptions leading to specific learning objectives - catered for in the training programme. A feedback interview can also be used to 'de-stress' managers and deal with defensive behaviour preventing learning and commitment to change. Underpinning the learning culture and strategic human resource management, is the process of organisational development and involvement of people in the process of culture change (Sashkin and Warner Burke, 1990) which in turn engenders management support to the process.

On an implementation level, the involvement and empowerment of line managers in a 'train the trainer' cascading process is essential (Singer, 1979; Roberts, 1984; Human, 1989; Hofmeyr, 1989). This includes the transference of training skills to the line manager and their commitment to removing obstacles to organisational and individual growth. Allied to the training process is an emphasis on action learning (Margerison, 1989) and competence (Boyatsis, 1982) which ensures on-the-job application of leadership.

The central rectangle summarises individual programme content that could be included in the leadership programme. Participants should be required, through a course follow-up to demonstrate the application of attitudes and skills which in turn must be fedback into the strategic plan which is altered accordingly.

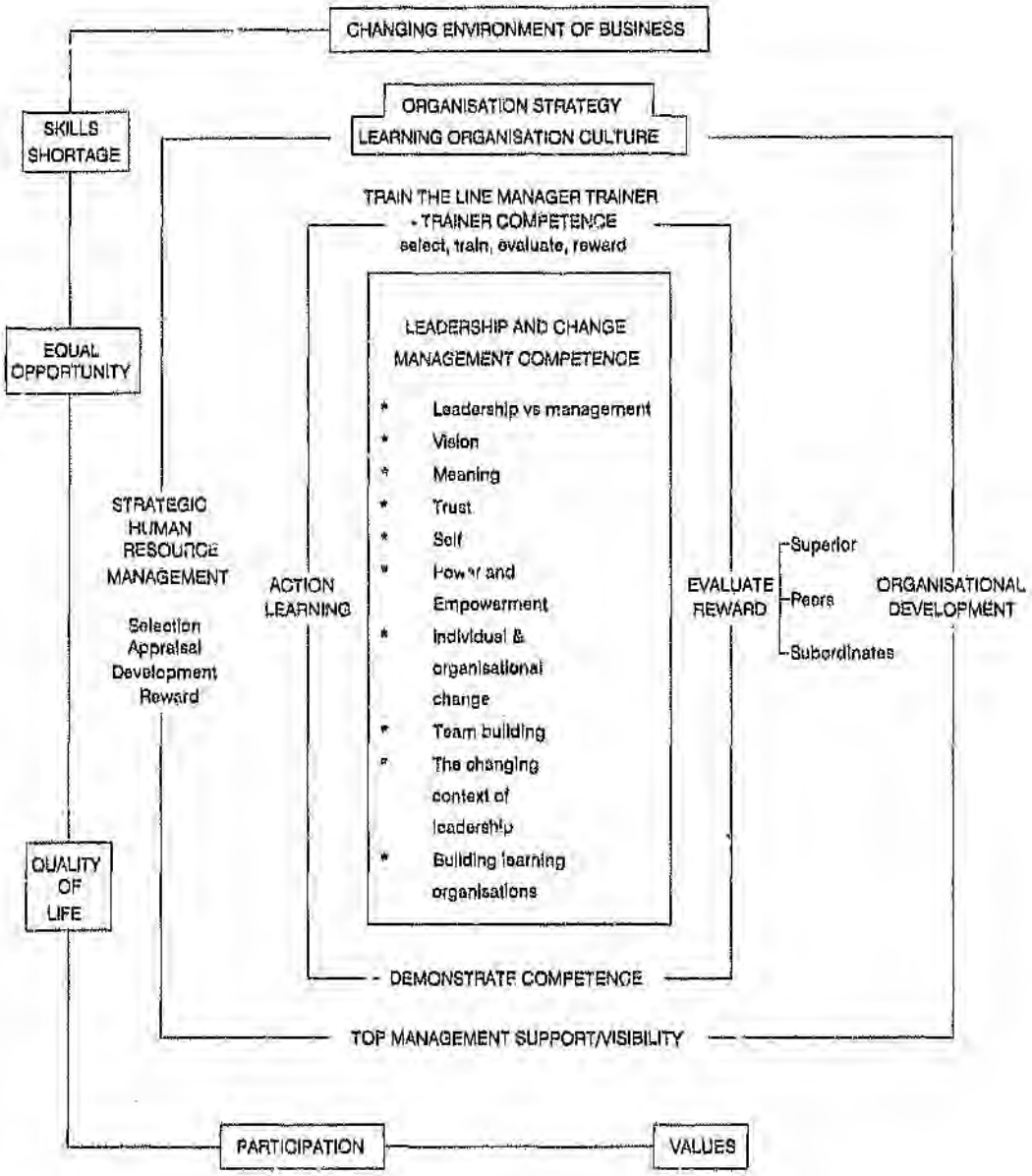


Figure 6.1 STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

6.8 Conclusions

A survey of the literature indicates that leadership is the axiom behind a successful nation, business and organisation. However findings emerging from widespread research demonstrate a lack of agreement on the nature of leadership activity.

This study adopts a competence approach toward identifying what excellent leaders do.

The purpose of this research was to identify leadership competencies within a major South African company, from both a leader and follower perspective. The sample consisted of ten excellent and ten average leaders who were categorised according to performance appraisal scores and peer and follower ratings. Each leader completed a self-administered questionnaire rating his own leadership activity, which was compared with two follower ratings per leader.

The results of the study confirm that leader self-evaluation is not a good indicator of effective leadership. Follower perceptions of effective leadership indicate a statistically significant difference between the two groups concerning the following competencies: the management of attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust and the deployment of self. These correspond with a large international study conducted by Bennis and Nanus (1985). In addition, excellent leaders demonstrated the ability to empower followers - which is vital in the South African business context. In accounting for the reasons behind excellent leadership and perceptual overlap with followers it appears that effectiveness depends on the ability to give and receive feedback, together with an extensive interpersonal skill repertoire, and ability to adopt a learning orientation toward other people and continually improve on inappropriate behaviour. These competencies have far reaching implications for the development and application of effective leadership within organisations.

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APPENDIX I

Leadership Competence Questionnaire

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. The purpose of this research is to identify leadership activity that facilitates superior performance as perceived by both leaders and people immediately below them in the organisational hierarchy. This dual approach allows comprehensive assessment concerning the impact of leadership competence and provide valuable information for future leadership development and organisational performance.

The results of this questionnaire will be strictly confidential. No individual will be identified by name in the ensuing report, and your own results will be pooled with others and expressed empirically as clusters of competent behaviour. A report, suitably safeguarding anonymity, and dealing with findings of importance for human resource implementation, will be made available to respondents on completion of the research.

Any queries regarding the questionnaire can be referred to Guy Charlton, Chamber of Mines Training Centre, 873 3930 or 493 3158.

NAME : . . . . . .

DEPARTMENT : . . . . . .

Instructions

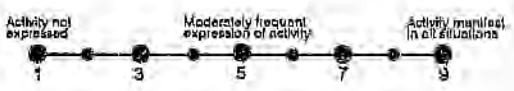
Please use the 9 point scale described overleaf to rate the extent that **YOU AS A LEADER** manifest or express the described activity.

* The questionnaire consists of twenty-five concept statements describing leadership activity.
* The questionnaire will take you less than fifteen minutes to complete.
* Please complete **ALL** the questions by circling (O) the appropriate point next to each statement.

LEADER'S SELF-ACTIVITY

Rate the following concepts in tems of **YOUR** activity within your department or organisation

1. • Develops and communicates a clear vision of the future of the organisation or department in order to provide direction for people .



2. • Development of personal strengths and weaknesses by the leader, through self awareness and a realistic view of yourself.



3. • Consciously comminucates a focus that is meaningful for people, through verbal expression, symbols and graphic expression of ideas.



4. • Creates conditions where employees are willing, able and allowed to perform job related activities.



5. • Demonstrates trustworthiness and consistency in behaviour that is congruent in word and deed .



6. • Expects uncompromising standards of excellence and concern with improving previous standards in pursuit of objectives .



7. • Fosters strategic change while maintaining a clear purpose for the organisation .



8. • Inspires and develops trust through expressing positive regard and belief in others.



9. • Is committed to self development and continual learning.

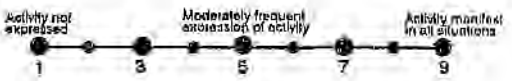


10. • Removes organisational obstacles hindering personal growth in other people.



11. • Creates focus and transmits clarity concerning what is expected from employees.

12. • Communicates through understanding and empathy a sense of meaningfullness in work.

13.	• Helps people achieve more accurate, more inspiring and more empowering views of reality.	
14.	• Manifests accountability, predictability and reliability of an organisation or departments position and viewpoint.	
15.	• Perceives change and threatening situations as a challenge and opportunity for personal and/or organisational growth.	
16.	• Views people as creative and competent.	
17.	• Expresses a sense of mission that catches peoples attention, inspires commitment and transforms purpose into action.	
18.	• Articulates and embodies a moral code that cares about people.	
19.	• Accepts responsibility for creating individual life experience, rather than blaming situations or people for misfortune.	
20.	• Raises the aspirations, shapes the values and mobilises the potential of followers in a way that improves the quality of their lives.	
21.	• Seeks to understand what is preventing an organisation or department from growth and achieving its objectives.	
22.	• Induces followers to act for common goals, thereby creating synergy and alignment in action.	
23.	• Relies on people and enables them to more purposefully manage and enrich their lives.	
24.	• Is able to diagnose and change inappropriate behaviour and independently take constructive action.	
25.	• Creates and encourages an opportunity for self development and continual learning in others.	

Thank you for completing the questionnaire. Please check that you have answered ALL questions and place the document into the envelope provided

APPENDIX II

Leadership Competence Questionnaire

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. The purpose of this research is to identify leadership activity that facilitates superior performance as perceived by both leaders and people immediately below them in the organisational hierarchy. This dual approach allows a comprehensive assessment concerning the impact of leadership competence and will provide valuable information for future leadership development and organisational performance.

The results of this questionnaire will be strictly confidential. No individual will be identified by name in the ensuing report, and your own results will be pooled with others and expressed empirically as clusters of competent behaviour. A report, suitably safeguarding anonymity, and dealing with findings of importance for human resource implementation, will be made available to respondents on completion of the research.

Any queries regarding the questionnaire can be referred to Guy Charlton, Chamber of Mines Training Centre, 873 3930 or 493 3158.

NAME : . . . . . .

DEPARTMENT : . . . . . .

Instructions

Please use the 9 point scale descibed overleaf to rate the extent that **YOUR LEADER/IMMEDIATE SUPERIOR** manifests or expresses the described activity.

* The questionnaire consists of twenty-five concept statements describing leadership activity.
* The questionnaire will take you less than fifteen minutes to complete.
* Please complete **ALL** the questions by circling (O) the appropriate point next to each statement.

LEADER'S SELF-ACTIVITY

Rate the following concepts in tems of **YOUR LEADER OR IMMEDIATE SUPERIOR'S** activity at work. Read the statements starting with - **MY LEADER**

- Develops and communicates a clear vision of the future of the organisation or department in order to provide direction for people .



- Develops personal strengths and weaknesses through self awareness and a realistic view of him/herself.



- Consciously comminucates a focus that is meaningful for people, through verbal expression, symbols and graphic expression of ideas.



- Creates conditions where employees are willing, able and allowed to perform job related activities.



- Demonstrates trustworthiness and consistency in behaviour that is congruent in word and deed .



- Expects uncompromising standards of excellence and concern with improving previous standards in pursuit of objectives .



- Fosters strategic change while maintaining a clear purpose for the organisation .



- Inspires and develops trust through expressing positive regard and belief in others.



- Is committed to self development and continual learning.



- Removes organisational obstacles hindering personal growth in other people.



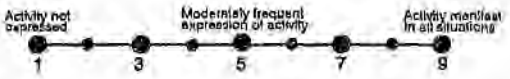
- Creates focus and transmits clarity concerning what is expected from employees.



- Communicates through understanding and empathy a sense of meaningfullness in work.



13. • Helps people achieve more accurate, more inspiring and more empowering views of reality.



14. • Manifests accountability, predictablity and reliability of an organisation or departments position and viewpoint.



15. • Perceives change and threatening situations as a challenge and opportunity for personal and/or organisational growth.



16. • Views people as creative and competent.



17. • Expresses a sense of mission that catches peoples attention, inspires commitment and transforms purpose into action.



18. • Articulates and embodies a moral code that cares about people.



19. • Accepts responsibility for creating individual life experience, rather than blaming situations or people for misfortune.



20. • Raises the aspirations, shapes the values and mobilises the potential of followers in a way that improves the quality of their lives.



21. • Seeks to understand what is preventing an organisation or department from growth and achieving its objectives.



22. • Induces followers to act for common goals, thereby creating synergy and alignment in action.



23. • Relies on people and enables them to more purposefully manage and enrich their lives.



24. • Is able to diagnose and change innappropriate behaviour and independently take constructive action.



25. • Creates and encourages an opportunity for self development and continual learning in others.



Thank you for completing the questionnaire. Please check that you have answered **ALL** questions and place the document into the envelope provided.

Author: Charlton, G.D.
Name of thesis: Identifying leadership competence

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