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**How to cite this thesis**

THE INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED'S PERCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP

by

LUDEVINA MERCIA MULDER

DISSERTATION

submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER EDUCATIONIS

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My deepest gratitude and admiration to Prof. Coley who guided me through this study and always encouraged me to be myself.

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Last but not least to my family Chris, Chris Jnr, Mercia and Suzi for their patience, love, understanding and encouragement during this period of research.

Commit to the Lord whatever you do and your plans will succeed
Proverbs 16.3
OPSOMMING.

In hierdie navorsing is daar gepoog om vas te stel hoe die intellektuele begaafde persoon leierskap waarnem.

Hoofstuk 1 handel oor die konteks van die studie naamlik: die oriëntasie, motivering en kontekstualisering van die navorsing.

Die begripsverheldering van leierskap, leier, begaafdheid, intelligensie en Ik, asook die verskeie skole van denke aangaande hierdie begrippe word duidelik uiteengesit in hoofstuk 2.

In hoofstuk 3 word daar besin oor wie die intellektuele begaafde leier is.

Die metode van ondersoek en die navorsingsonderwerp word in diepte behandeld in hoofstuk 4.

Hoe die intellektuele begaafde persoon leierskap waarnem word in diepte bespreek in hoofstuk 5.

Hoofstuk 6 handel oor die samevattinge, gevolgtrekkings, leemtes en aanbevelings van die ondersoek.
"We must guard against defining intelligence solely in terms of ability to pass the test of a given intelligence scale. It should go without saying that no existing scale is capable of adequately measuring the ability to deal with all possible kinds of material on all intelligence levels"

Lewis Terman
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CHAPTER ONE

1. CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1 ORIENTATION

The study of giftedness began with Galton's (1869) studies of hereditary genius. From this study Galton was convinced that intelligence is a genetic inheritance. Galton's work stimulated interest methods which could be applied to measure mental ability. Binet (1905) and Simon (1905) developed the first test to measure "g", or general mental ability. Terman (1916) revised the Binet Simon test and published the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale.

The term "gifted" was not introduced into the field of education and psychology until during World War 1. At this points it was introduced into the field by Whipple (Henry 1920 in Stein 1986:XVI). This term denoted students who were "super normal" (Stein 1986:XVI). Abraham (1958 in Stein 1986:XVI) claims that there are 113 definitions from which one could select to try and define this concept.

The most common definition of giftedness is associated with the IQ. Galton (1870) regards someone as gifted if his or her IQ is 150+. Burt (1975) regards someone as gifted if his or her intelligence quotient is 130+, while Terman
locates the cut-off point at 140+. The HSRC (1988) threshold/cut-off point is 130+. What can be noted is that giftedness as identified from the above relies on a sole criterion - the outcome of the intelligence quotient score.

Even today, at the close of the twentieth century, the elusive term "intelligence quotient" has a mysterious quality about it. It is still often understood in the sense expressed in the early view of Galton (1870) and Terman and Oden (1959) and others: namely, that if one knows the IQ score, one can determine if a person is gifted or not. This one-sided approach overlooks the other forms of giftedness as identified by the Marland Report (1972 and 1978) and Renzulli (1978). The concepts articulated here expanded the definition of giftedness to include not only the cognitive abilities, but also the non-cognitive abilities - those abilities that cannot be measured by standardised intelligence tests - such as leadership, creativity, motivation, perseverance and task-commitment.

The concept "leadership" has not enjoyed the same attention as intellectual giftedness (Davis & Rimm 1989). These two terms were seen as synonymous; quite often, gifted children were perceived as future leaders (Davis & Rimm 1989:197; Kruger 1992:158; Terman in Pendarvis et al. 1990:109) because they were classified as gifted.

However, not all gifted students are in fact good leaders. Being gifted does not automatically endow one with the qualities of a leader.
Many theories (cf chapter two) have been put forward in an attempt to explain leadership: there are more than 350 definitions at present which attempt to define this much studied but little understood concept (Bennis & Nanus 1985:20).

This study had to resort to using the abovementioned concepts independently to assist in the inquiry, as no literature was found pertaining to the specific concept "intellectually gifted leader" (Eric 1985-1996). The literature surrounding these two concepts of "giftedness" and "leadership" provided the parameters for this investigation.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although the concepts of "giftedness" and "leadership" have been studied for 150 years (Galton 1829; Terman 1921 and 1925; Terman & Oden 1959; Renzulli 1978; HSRC 1981) and seven decades (Bowden 1926; Bogardus 1934; Stogdill 1950; Bass 1981; Foster 1981) respectively, no consensus has been reached as yet concerning a universally acceptable definition of either.

Giftedness and leadership have been studied in a variety of contexts. Examples include the following: Creative Giftedness (Sternberg & Lubart 1993), Die onderrig van die begaafde kind (Taylor & Van der Westhuizen 1983), Emotional disturbance and giftedness (Schauer 1976), Contemporary issues in leadership (Rosenbach & Taylor 1984). However, as yet no study has...
focused exclusively on the perceptions of leadership by the intellectually gifted.

The problem in this study can be formulated as follows: How do the intellectually gifted perceive leadership?

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE INVESTIGATION

The purpose of the investigation is to try and understand how leadership is perceived by the intellectually gifted.

1.4 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

It is important to define clearly concepts used in scientific inquiries as this elucidates precisely what the researcher means when referring to that specific term. As Creswell (1994:106) contends, "... Scientific language ostensively strips this multiplicity of meaning from words in the interest of precision."

Conceptual clarification is dealt with extensively in chapter two.

1.4.1 Intelligence

A phenomenological approach has been adopted to the concept of intelligence. In other words a person is viewed in his or her totality which implies that intelligence must not be seen as a "thing" (as quoted in Clark 1983), but rather
as a composition of various intellectual abilities: capacity to solve problems, the ability to learn, to think and to interact with one's environment effectively (Clark 1983; Wallace 1983).

However, Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:117) argue that there is "no universally acceptable definition of intelligence." There are various reasons for this state of affairs. Firstly, a diversity of theories of intelligence have been put forward: For example, the single-factor theory of Binet (1905), the two-factor theory of Spearman, and the multi-factor theories of Thorndike and Thurstone (1938). (The theories revolving around the issue of intelligence are discussed in chapter two). The advocating of different theories has proven to be a hurdle in defining exactly what intelligence is.

Secondly, dictionary elucidations do not help to provide a clear definition either. Dictionary explanations operate basically from one operative: that intelligence is equal to one's IQ score.

Thirdly, theorists differentiate between various types of intelligence. For example, Eysenck (1994) refers to biological and social intelligence, while the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR) refers to conceptual, practical and social intelligence (Hallahan & Kaufman 1994).

All these factors contribute to the fact that, at present, there is no universally acceptable definition of intelligence. The view of this study is that intelligence
is surely much more than the outcome of one's IQ score. It is the ability to
cope with one's life-world effectively and satisfactorily. Intelligence also
includes non-intellectual factors such as motivation, task-commitment and
perseverance. Intelligence can partially be measured by the Intelligence

1.4.2 Intelligence Quotient (IQ)

Sir Francis Galton, the British scholar, was one of the pioneers who attempted
to measure general intelligence by using psychological testing. Galton's mental
tests were not successful (Weiten 1992:307). However, Galton laid the
foundation in attempting to measure the IQ by using standardised tests. The
initial work of Galton paved the way for the French psychologist Binet (1905)
and Seman (1905) to devise the first useful standardised intelligence tests to
measure general mental ability. These intelligence tests were designed to
ascertain whether children would perform satisfactorily at school. The
prediction rates proved to be successful.

The Stanford-Binet test, although loyal to the original concept of IQ testing by
Binet, incorporated a new method of scoring based on Tern's (1914)
suggestion that the "intelligence quotient" should be used.

The Stanford-Binet Test achieved world renown (Zimmer & Woo-Sam 1984
in Witen 1992:308) and has been periodically updated, (in 1937, 1960 and 1986).
The intelligence quotient score is derived from standard intelligence test scores which are obtained in the following manner:

\[ IQ = \frac{MA \times 100}{CA} \]

\[ (IQ = \frac{\text{mental age}}{\text{chronological age}} \times 100) \]

The mental age is determined from the intelligence tests, for example:

\[ IQ = \frac{MA \times 100}{CA} \]

\[ MA = 6 = \frac{6 \times 100}{CA} = 100 \]

\[ CA = 6 \]

The mental age is the expression of the level of mental development. The mental age is determined by comparing the individual person's ability to the ability of others (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:146).

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:119) proffer the following categorisation of the IQ scoring:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>140+</td>
<td>genius</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>131 - 140</td>
<td>very superior</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121 - 130</td>
<td>superior</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111 - 120</td>
<td>high average</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90 - 110</td>
<td>average</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 - 89</td>
<td>low average</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 - 79</td>
<td>borderline</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mentally defective</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All IQ testing is administered by psychologists only. IQ testing is often conducted in educational settings to determine which children have scholastic problems. For example, learning problems. IQ tests also determine intellectual giftedness, help with acceleration, magnet classes, selection and placement (Hallahan & Kauffman 1994:133; Weiten 1992:309).

Hallahan and Kauffman (1994:132) state:

IQ tests are not the "be-all and end-all" when it comes to assessing a person's ability to function in society. A superior IQ does not guarantee a successful and happy life, nor does a low IQ doom a person to a miserable existence. Other variables are also important determiners of a person's coping skills in society.

1.4.3 Giftedness

In 1972, Marland tabled the first definition of Giftedness at the United States of America's Office of Education (USOE). Giftedness was defined as follows (HSRC 1988:16):
Gifted and talented children are those, identified by professionally qualified persons, who, by virtue of outstanding abilities, are capable of high performance. These are children who require differentiated educational programs and/or services beyond those normally provided by the regular school program in order to realize their contribution to self and society ... 

The USOE's (1972) definition acknowledges the following domains of giftedness:

(a) general intellectual ability
(b) specific academic aptitude
(c) creative or productive thinking
(d) leadership ability
(e) visual and performing arts aptitude
(f) psychomotor ability

This definition of giftedness has been widely accepted because of the diversity of domains included. However, in 1978, a slightly differently worded concept was tabled again. The psychomotor ability domain was deleted because it was felt that this domain was already incorporated in the fifth, and also because of the fact that the intellectually gifted enjoyed sufficient attention within the educational milieu and in society (Khatena 1992 in Joubert 1993:21).
However, this definition is acceptable only up to a point. It does not include non-intellectual abilities such as motivation, task performance, and perseverance (Renzulli 1978). In a concept such as giftedness, all abilities, whether cognitive or non-cognitive, should be included. Is the exclusion of non-cognitive abilities due to the fact that these cannot be measured like the domains of giftedness as set out by the USOE?

Giftedness should be viewed as an umbrella term (HSRC 1988). Giftedness cannot be characterised by a single criterion - IQ. The standardised intelligence tests are unable to measure every aspect of intelligence (cf. This discussion of intelligence in chapter two). A holistic attitude must instead be adopted whereby all abilities, aptitudes and skills (intellectual and non-intellectual) are included in the definition.

1.4.4 Leadership

Leadership, according to the USOE's definition of giftedness, is a specific dimension of the umbrella term. However, as the terms "intelligence" and "giftedness" suffer from definitional confusion, this concept is subject to the same problem (Stogdill 1950; Neumann 1988). Causes of definitional confusion are: Varying dictionary elucidations, and various schools for thought proffering different theories as to what constitutes leadership and which skills, abilities and personality factors are necessary in leadership. These causes are discussed in detail in chapter two.
Leadership approaches have undergone a metamorphosis in recent years (Adair 1983:1). Leaders cannot approach their followers, co-workers or subordinates in a top-down forms of relationship. Today, people are better educated and more articulate, and there is therefore more involvement and participation by all who constitute the group. Thus, leadership does not imply dictatorship (autocratic form). A good leader tries to evoke leadership within and from the group. He/she works as a partner (democratic style) in trying to achieve the objective.

1.4.5 Leader

The term "leader" indicates a person who has attained a specific position and status within a group. Furthermore, it implies that the leader will lead and the others will follow.

A leader in this research is not necessarily viewed as "one born with leadership characteristics", but also as someone who has learnt about leadership (Adair 1983:189). Learning implies that one seizes every available opportunity to enhance leadership abilities: for example, attending leadership courses, reading books about leadership, talking to leaders, and seeking opportunities to practise theoretically obtained knowledge of leadership. Adair (1983:189) claims, furthermore, that leadership cannot be taught; it can only be learnt.
Dwight Eisenhower (1965), the thirty-fourth president of the United States, urged "any young man with ambition never to be too hasty in concluding that he doesn't have the stature for top leadership. Often I have seen a man who had doubts about his own resources rise to the occasion and perform with great competence when the opportunity finally came" (Reader's Digest 1965).

As can be deduced from the above, the following operational definition of "leader" can be advanced. A leader is someone whose actions are determined by the situation, who will adapt his/her leadership style to suit the situation. A leader is someone who is not only in authority, but is also an authority (Hamm 1989). A leader communicates with openness to group members. A leader, in other words, is someone who displays the necessary traits and skills of leadership.

1.5 METHODOLOGY (cf chapter four)

This study had two main thrusts.

Firstly, an extensive literature study was conducted on the concepts of "giftedness" and "leadership". The researcher had to approach this inquiry in this manner as there is no available literature relating to the concept of "intellectually gifted leadership" (Eric 1985-1996). The concepts "giftedness" and "leadership" therefore provided the parameters of this investigation.
The second thrust of the study concerned data-collection. The researcher was faced with the problem of which method of data collection was most suitable to augment the literature study. In determining which research design would be most appropriate the researcher had to take note of the research determinants, such as sampling, time, and availability of students. A qualitative research design was decided upon as this design met the required research determinants. Firstly, a qualitative design that is contextual, exploratory and descriptive compensates for the literature deficiency. (No literature was available concerning the concept "intellectually gifted leaders" (Eric 1985, 1986). Secondly, the perceptions of the intellectually gifted students concerning leadership are able to be explored and described by using the phenomenological interviewing method. (This technique is discussed in more detail in chapter four.) Qualitative data provides "rich insight into human behaviour" (Lincoln & Guba 1985:99). In other words, a phenomenological approach provides an emic, or inside view.

1.5.1 Sampling (cf chapter four)

All sampling done in this inquiry was purposeful. The respondents were chosen as representatives of the target population (Lincoln & Guba 1985:201) and the sample criteria were as follows:

The respondent must:
(a) Have been a student at the Rand Afrikaans University during 1995.

(b) Be intellectually gifted (the researcher relied heavily upon the IQ criteria); in other words, have an Intelligence Quotient over 130 (HSRC 1988)

(c) Hold/have held positions of leadership at school, university and/or society.

The participants are of a diverse nature. This diversity embodies issues as ethnicity, religion, age, socio-economic status, stature, height, gender and personality, to name but a few.

1.5.2 Procedure

The phenomenological interview was adopted in this inquiry as it presents an emic (inside) viewpoint of what is being researched. A pilot study using a survey design was also conducted. The survey design provides the researcher with the opportunity to see if he/she will encounter any difficulties with the phenomenological approach.

1.5.3 The literature study (cf chapter two)

To ensure that the purpose of this investigation was accurately defined a literature study was conducted using the available literature pertaining to the
issues involved: giftedness and leadership. The literature study plays an essential role in any form of investigation as it brings the inquirer up to date with what has been written about the subject under scrutiny. The literature study also sets the framework within which the researcher sets to work, and it points him/her in the right direction. The types of literature perused were of a comprehensive nature (books and articles). Concepts appearing in this investigation are properly delineated later in this study and reasons are presented as to why one concept was preferred to another.

This study of the relevant literature formed the theoretical aspect of the investigation.

The researcher also consulted various experts in the fields of giftedness, leadership, categorisation of themes and discipline to supplement the literature study conducted (cf Bibliography).

1.5.4 The empirical analysis

Chapter four deals with the method of data collection and research design, while chapter five deals with the analysis and discussion of the relevant themes, categories and sub-categories as identified by an independent research consultant and the researcher herself.

1.6 THE STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH
In chapter one the orientation, motivation and contextualisation of the research is set out.

An exposition of the concepts of intelligence, intelligence quotient, giftedness and leadership is presented in chapter two, and the various schools of thought pertaining to these concepts are examined/discussed.

Chapter three builds on the definitions extracted from chapter two's discussion in order to answer the question "Who is the intellectually gifted leader?"

The method of data collection and the research design are discussed in chapter four.

An analysis and description of the interviews conducted pertaining to the question "How do the intellectually gifted perceive leadership?" are presented in chapter five.

Chapter six encompasses the conclusions, limitations and recommendations for future research.
2. CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

To attempt to and understand who the intellectually gifted are and what their perception of leadership is, conceptual clarification is necessary. The reason for this is that often there is confusion about concepts such as giftedness, leadership, leader, and intelligence because of broad and imprecise usage.

Although giftedness has been studied since Sir Francis Galton's pioneering work in 1869, there is still no unanimous agreement as to what criteria pertain to giftedness, and differing and often opposing views are advanced by scholars of the subject (USOE 1972, 1978; Renzulli 1978; Khatena 1982; Tannenbaum 1983). It is therefore essential that conceptual clarification as regards the concept of giftedness be achieved, and that the terminology associated with the term be clarified.

Giftedness is often incorrectly equated with a high IQ score. As Eysenck (1971:590) argues,
... there are many more human qualities quite uncorrelated with IQ, such as courage, compassion, friendliness, "soul" and helpfulness, just as there are many abilities, particularly in the artistic line, which are marginally correlated with IQ. Nobody has ever suggested that a measurement of an IQ appraises the general worth of a person. But all this does not mean that what the IQ tests measure is unimportant.

Nonetheless, the misconception that giftedness is to be equated solely with a high IQ persists among educators, scholars and the general public. As Albert Einstein concludes (Bloomsbury Thesaurus 1993:459), "we should take great care not to make the intellect our god, it has of course powerful muscles, but no personality". There is obviously more to giftedness than a high IQ. Giftedness encompasses all cognitive and non-cognitive facets of humankind (Renzulli 1978, Gardner 1983). In this chapter giftedness will be approached as a multi-dimensional concept.

The concept of leadership must also be conceptually clarified as the word forms an integral part of this investigation. Although this concept has been studied since 1920 (Stogdill 1974, Marriner-Tomey 1993), no consensus has been reached as to what criteria pertain to leadership. As Foster (1981:18) states, leadership remains "to be a social phenomenon which [still] has to be
successfully defined". The concept of leadership will be viewed as an independent category of giftedness. A clear distinction will be drawn between intellectualism and leadership as they are viewed as two distinct categories of giftedness.

2.2 INTELLIGENCE

Before the concepts of giftedness and leadership can be clarified and discussed, it is essential that the term "intelligence" be inspected and elaborated upon, because it is upon this abstract noun that the controversy regarding giftedness centres.

Intelligence is a concept that lacks a universal definition. As Van Niekerk (1978) explains, there are as many definitions for the word as there are psychologists who have studied it. Ehrlich (1982) contends that the concept of intelligence is very complex and that it is not possible to encompass the concept with a single definition.

2.2.1 Dictionary clarifications of intelligence

According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1961:1174) intelligence can be defined as the following:

The faculty of understanding: a capacity to know
or apprehend: the available ability as measured by intelligence tests or by other social criteria; to use one's existing knowledge to meet new situations and to solve new problems, to learn, to foresee problems, to use symbols or relationships, to think abstractly... ability to use with awareness the mechanism of reasoning whether conceived as a unified intellectual factor or as the aggregate of many intellectual factors or abilities...

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:117) define intelligence as:

The function or practice or expression of the intellect; the use or exercise of the intellect, that is, the intellect's practical application.

Intelligence can be partially measured by Intelligence Quotients (IQ).

Kritzinger and Labuschagne (1982:354) outline intelligence in the following manner:

-verstand, vermoë van 'n mens om te verstaan;
-intellektuele vermoë, skranderheid.
(understanding, ability to understand;
intellectual ability, cleverness, smartness, intelligence, shrewdness, brightness).

The definition of McLeod's (1984:521) intelligence is as follows: "The capacity for understanding; ability to perceive and comprehend". Sykes (1988:521), on the other hand, defines intelligence as: "intellect, understanding".

Gouws (1991:159) specifies the concept in the following way:

Die vermoeë om (a) abstrakte konsepte effektief te hanteer en toe te pas, (b) verbande in te sien en nuwe leerstof te bemeester en (c) effektief by nuwe omstandighede of situasies aan te pas.

(The ability (a) to deal with and apply abstract concepts effectively, (b) to see relations and master new materials and (c) to adapt to new circumstances or situations effectively).

From the above one can conclude that intelligence means:

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<td>intellect</td>
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21
Thus, intelligence pertains to an individual's cognitive ability to understand, think, reason and comprehend. Knowledge, on the other hand, is the perception and understanding of matter through experience and learning. Thus, intelligence is expressed as a function of the intellect.

2.2.3 Definitions of intelligence

Apart from this denotative classification of intelligence, a diversity of definitions of intelligence by a large number of researchers have been put forward (Wechsler 1958; Robinson and Robinson 1965; Schaffer 1965; Fouche 1968; Swiegers 1974; Pendarvis et al. 1990). These definitions tend to reflect the divergent interests, orientations and paradigms of their authors and pose a second problem in our attempt to define intelligence.

The behaviourists, Freeman (1964) and Galton (1869), see intelligence as the ability to adjust mentally to problematic and new situations. This viewpoint emphasises the hypothesis that children who display a high level of intelligence are able to cope with and adapt more easily to the various changing circumstances than those who do not possess the same level of intelligence. Similarly, Pendarvis et al. (1990:54) view intelligence from a broad perspective: that is, they understand it to be a correlation (relationship) that exists between adaptation to academic expectations and adaptations to other social demands. Wechsler (1958) on the other hand, defines intelligence as the global ability of an individual to act purposefully. Wechsler advocates that the whole person
must be taken into consideration when trying to define intelligence, and not only a single aspect.

For Binet (in Wallace 1983:89), intelligence is

... the ability to reason and judge on the basis of evidence; to understand meaning and implications; maintain a series of ideas logically and consistently; adapt and manipulate ideas; evaluate and learn in the light of personal experience.

According to Whimbey and Whimbey (in Stein 1985:229), intelligence is a skill which can be taught and learned.

Intelligence is clearly much more than role and book learning and memorising. As Thomson (1929) contends,

So long as we think only in terms of academic achievement we defeat our own ends. Likewise we are defeated before we begin if we define intelligence only in terms of book learning. Book learning can merely be phenomenal memorising - just a cramming of facts that never really challenge intelligent
thought.

2.2.4 Multiple Intelligences

The diversity of definitions and the notion that there are multiple "intelligences" therefore constitute the third determinant that hampers conceptual clarity.

As early as 1920, Thorndike (in Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:117) differentiated between three types of intelligence:

* Abstract intelligence, which is perceived as the ability to be able to use and understand symbols (numbers, formulas, scientific principles).

* Social intelligence, which reflects a person's ability to mix socially. Relationship building is of importance in this type of intelligence.

* Mechanical intelligence, which is seen as the ability to use and operate objects and equipment like a bicycle, motor car, wheelbarrow etc.

Reis (1989) observes that there has been an ongoing debate among researchers as to whether intelligence should be seen as a single characteristic or not. This has significant implications for an attempt to obtain a universal definition.
The three types of intelligence as identified by Thorndike (1920) and AAMR (1992) are similar in the sense that they are all needed to cope with a daily routine and existence.

The American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR) (in Weiten 1992:315) views intelligence as a multifaceted concept. The Association also identified three types of intelligence:

* Conceptual intelligence: This emphasises problem-solving concerning academic material. IQ tests which focus primarily on assessing primary abilities as identified by Thurston (1953) fall into this category.

* Practical intelligence: This is the ability to solve problems relating to daily activities - for example, the use of a bus schedule, or the ability to retain a job after school despite not doing well academically. Hallahan and Kauffman (1994:119) call this type of intelligence "streetwise" intelligence.

* Social intelligence: This is the ability to understand what is socially expected of one and how to handle and cope with social situations one is constantly faced with.

Eysenck (1994) defines intelligence from within a single paradigm; namely, hereditary. Eysenck (1994:27) differentiates between two types of intelligence:
* Biological intelligence. This kind of intelligence is genetically determined. Psychomotor intelligence is not only influenced by biological intelligence, but is also influenced by other factors such as culture, education, family and socioeconomic determinants.

* Social or practical intelligence: This form of intelligence refers to what we actually do with our IQ. This type of intelligence maybe influenced by determinants such as education, personality, drinking habits, motivation, nutrition and so forth.

Gardner and Hatch argue that some forms of intelligence can be measured while other forms cannot be measured by testing alone, but require assessment as well. Gardner and Hatch (1989) classified their multiple intelligence as follows: logical-mathematical, linguistic, musical, spacial, bodily-kinaesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. They argue that these seven intelligences are independent, as some people "show distinctive profiles of strength and weakness in the different classifications of intelligence" (Gardner and Hatch in Hallahan and Kauffman 1994:450). Jordan (1992:481) is of the opinion that these kinds of intelligence interact on an academic and practical level.

According to Weiten (1992:313), the IQ test basically assesses these types of intelligence. Although IQ tests are designed to measure general mental abilities, they in actual fact focus primarily on academic/verbal intelligence. Weiten (1992) therefore asserts that IQ tests are not true indicators of intelligence.
Spearman's (1927) "g" factor theory concerning intelligence was arrived at through statistical analysis. From this analysis he derived his two-factor theory of intelligence. He concluded that all cognitive abilities share a common core which he called "g" for an individual's general mental ability (Weiten 1992:327).

Spearman also acknowledged that people do have "special abilities (numerical, reasoning, memory), but he concluded that these abilities are determined by the "g".

Cattel (1963) advocates the idea that Spearman's "g" can be further subdivided into fluid and crystallized intelligence: "The 'g' factor pertains to general intelligence. 'g' is a general capacity for inferring and applying relationships drawn from experience" (Hernstein & Murray 1994:4).

Fluid intelligence, or fluid g, is concerned with a person's ability to reason, his or her memory capacity and speed at processing information. In other words, it is the all-purpose intellectual capacity. Crystallized intelligence, on the other hand, involves a person's ability to apply the acquired knowledge and skills in problem-solving. Crystallized g is general intelligence "transformed into skills of one's own culture" (Hernstein & Murray 1994:15).

The identification of Cattel's (1963) forms of intelligence still relies heavily upon the use of standardized intelligence tests. Weiten (1992:327) contends that intelligence tests are designed to test as much of the "g" as possible.
In his SI Model (Structure of Intelligence, in Stuart 1985:42/3) Guilford distinguishes three dimensions according to which intelligence factors can be arranged:

* Content-figural, symbolic, semantic and behaviour: This category represents the nature of intellectual activities with which one is confronted in a test situation.

* Intellectual processes: This domain consists of cognition, memory, divergent and convergent thinking, and evaluation.

* Product: The results of an intellectual activity are classified under one of the following domains - units, classes, relations, systems, transformations and implications.

As Reis (1989) observes, there has been an ongoing debate among researchers whether intelligence should be seen as a single characteristic or not. This has significant implications for an attempt to obtain a universal definition.

2.2.5 Conclusion

Freeman (1964), Galton (1869), Pendarvis et al. (1990), and Binet (1911) define intelligence according to a single criterion: namely, the outcome of the
intelligence quotient score as obtained from standardised intelligence test scores.

IQ tests are not true indicators of intelligence as they cannot appraise the general worth of a person (Eysenck 1971:59). There are other non-cognitive qualities uncorrelated with the IQ such as motivation, task-commitment, perseverance (Renzulli 1984:8), courage, compassion, friendliness, and helpfulness (Eysenck 1971).

Wechsler (1958) on the other hand supports Renzulli (1984) and Eysenck's (1971) understanding of intelligence by stating the defining of intelligence must be done in a holistic manner by taking the individual's global abilities into consideration.

2.3 INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT (IQ)

Intelligence testing has always played a major role in the educational situation. The IQ grading stemmed from the need to know just how intelligent a person is, and was determined according to the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, JSAIS and the SSAIS Tests. What the IQ test actually measures is an individual's aptitude for learning in the educational situation. The primary abilities that this test measures are verbal ability, numerical versus spatial ability, memory, perceptual speed, reasoning, word fluency and comprehension. These abilities were identified by Thurstone (1938). A clear relationship exists
between a high IQ and academic success at school level.

As can be seen from the above, IQ testing only measures cognitive abilities. IQ tests are unable to measure criteria such as performance, motivation, task commitment, leadership and creativity (Renzulli 1978; Gardner 1989).

Renzulli (1984:3) thus emphasises that there is no ideal way in which to measure a person's intelligence, and therefore we must abandon the notion that if one knows the individual's IQ score we know their intelligence level. Terman (1916) issues the following warning: "We must guard against defining intelligence solely in terms of the ability to pass the tests of a given intelligence scale."

In a similar vein Stein (1986:xxv) claims that a person's IQ is not all that we should know about them. Other dimensions of knowledge are also very necessary and important in order to be able to understand their personality and their motivational level.

2.3.1 Conclusion

As can be observed from the foregoing discussion, there are three major causes for the inability to define intelligence accurately: (a) dictionary definitions which use the intellect and IQ scores as criteria; (b) theorists defining intelligence who also operate from one aspect only; (c) multiple forms of
intelligence. In defining multiple intelligence theorists operate from different points of departure that include hereditary (Eysneck), the intelligence quotient and other social criteria. Pendarvis et al, Cattel, Spearman and other theorists such as Wechsler, argue that definitions of intelligence in the individual must be approached in a holistic manner.

The IQ score as determined by the standardized intelligence tests cannot measure intelligence accurately because it takes into account only the intellectual aspect of intelligence and not the non-intellective abilities, which cannot be measured by IQ tests (Renzulli 1984). The point of view of this study is aptly summed up in the words of Terman (in Webb et al. 1982:44):

We must guard against defining intelligence solely in terms of ability to pass the tests of a given intelligence scale. It should go without saying that no existing scale is capable of adequately measuring the ability to deal with all kinds of material on all intelligence levels.

A superior IQ is not a guarantee for success. Many professionals do acknowledge the role that IQ tests play, but they also acknowledge the fact that the outcome of an IQ test is not the be-all and end-all as regards measuring a person's abilities (Craig 1979; Gouws & Botha 1989). IQ testing is helpful in various fields: for example, making placing decisions, evaluating programme
effectiveness, special education opportunities and so forth (Hallahan & Kauffman 1994:133).

However, the IQ test must not be seen as a perfect predictor of how a human will function in the real life-world situation, as it cannot test all aspects of intelligence.

2.4 GIFTEDNESS

The third concept that requires clarification is the term "giftedness".

2.4.1 Divergent views of giftedness

The term "intelligence" suffers from the same kind of semantic confusion as the term "giftedness". To date, there is no universally acceptable definition. This state of affairs is due to various causes: for example, terminology confusion, divergent questions asked by different researchers investigating this concept, and differing opinions of authorities concerning giftedness.

Firstly, terminology that is more often than not equated with the concept of giftedness consists of words like high IQ, intelligence, intellect, exceptional, superior, brilliant, genius, talented, creative and so on. These synonyms cause a great amount of confusion as they are used connotatively, and not denotatively. If one looks at the denotative meanings of these words, there
differences soon become clear.

* Exceptional: "Forming an exception, unusual, not average; especially superior" (Quirk 1985-86:284); "Buitengewoon, meer as gewoon, basonder, seldsaam" (Exceptional, more than ordinary, special, unique) (Kritzinger & Labuschagne 1982:137).

* Superior: "Greater in quality, quantity, etc., of high or extraordinary worth, merit, etc., higher in rank or status and displaying a conscious sense of being above others; supercilious" (McLeod 1985:1170). "Superieur, hoër, meerder in rang; voortreflik, uitmuntend" (Superior, higher, greater in rank, impressive, outstanding) (Kritzinger & Labuschagne 1982:1073).

* Brilliant: "Distinguished by unusual mental keenness, alertness, originality, or resourcefulness" (Webster 1966:278). "Besonder knap" (Particularly smart) (Odendaal et al. 1985:117).

* Genius: "Natural ability or tendency; special mental endowments; exalted intellectual power; instinctive and extraordinary imaginative, creative, or inventive capacity" (Sykes 1988:412). "Besonder groot geestelike begaafdheid, skeppingskrag: Genie is grotendeels aangebore. Iemand met buitengewone begaafdheid en skeppingskrag; by intelligensiemeting, iemand met 'n I.K. bo 140" (Particularly great spiritual talent, creative ability: Genius is largely inborn. Someone with exceptional talent and creative ability; in intelligence
testing, someone with an IQ over 140)' (Odendaal et al. 1985:268).

*These conservative approaches highlight the fact that the dictionary still defines giftedness as being synonymous with a high IQ. This is a schoolroom form of defining giftedness (Renzuli 1984:3). Odendaal's (1985) and Gouws's (1982) definitions support Eysenck's theory about intelligence being hereditary.

* Talented: "Special aptitude, faculty, gift, high mental ability", (Sykes 1988:1090); "n Hoë graad van oorgeërde aanleg in 'n spesifieke rigting, soos musiek" (a high level of inherited input in a specific direction, like music) (Gouws et al. 1982:302).

* Creative: "Having the power or quality of creating: given to creation: having the quality of something created rather than imitated or assembled: expressive of maker: imaginative - art, writing" (Webster 1966:532); "Skeppingsvermoë, dit wil sê die vermoë om probleme op nuwe maniere op te los, om nuwe vorme van kuns te produseer, of om enige produk te lewer" (Creative ability, that is the ability to solve problems in a new way, to produce new forms of art, or to define any product) (Gouws et al. 1982:163).

As can be seen from the above examples, gifted people, according to dictionary definitions, are characterised by one criteria namely the intellect and evince. The following attributes: superciliousness, superiority, mental endowments and inherited ability.
A second problem in developing a definition of giftedness relates to the questions asked by researchers concerning giftedness.


Hallahan and Kaufmann (1994:446/8) raise the following questions about giftedness:

* In what way do gifted children excel? Do they excel in general intelligence, insight, creativity, special talents, achievement in academic subjects, etc?

* How is giftedness measured? Are standardised tests the only way to measure giftedness? What about performances that cannot be measured by tests, for example, leadership ability, motivation, task commitment or creativity?

* To what degree must a child excel to be considered gifted? The criteria used to determine giftedness will determine the percentage of the population that will be included.
* Who should make up the group? The same ethnic group, children with the same chronological age?

Eysenck and Kamin (1981) raise the following issues:

* Is giftedness hereditary, or does the environment play a role as well?

* Should each culture determine their own concept of giftedness or should there be a universal definition that should suffice for all?

The question posed by Hallahan and Kaufman (1994) differ from those asked by Eysenck and Kanin (1981), in the sense that Hallahan and Kaufman are trying to find a universally acceptable definition, while Eysenck and Kanin's argument revolves around the issues of hereditary/hereditariness and environment. Eysenck claims giftedness is genetically determined while Kanin states that giftedness is both genetically and environmentally determined.

Renzulli (1984:5), on the other hand, is concerned with the following:

* Are giftedness and high IQ the same thing? If so, how high must the IQ be before one can be considered gifted?

* Is giftedness an absolute or relative concept? Can varying kinds and degrees of gifted behaviour be displayed at certain times in certain people?
* What causes a small number of people like Thomas Edison, Langston Hughes, or Franklin D. Roosevelt to rise above the mediocrity of people that have the same advantages educationally?

Renzulli (1984) is concerned with the issue that has plagued the study of giftedness since Terman's (1921) study of 1500 intellectually gifted students. What criteria must be applied to measure giftedness?

It can be seen from the foregoing that discrepancies exist with regard to how gifted children are identified.

As is clear from these questions, researchers differ in their opinions as to what constitutes giftedness and what criteria should be included or excluded. This is the third problem regarding clarity of the term giftedness.

Renzulli (1978) proposes that giftedness consists of three ingredients (see Fig 2.1) that interact. Each of these clusters is of equal importance. No single cluster must be over-emphasised at the expense of the other two. As Renzulli (1978:182) states, "Rather, it is the interaction among the three clusters that research has shown to be the necessary ingredient for creative/productive accomplishment".
Renzulli’s concept of giftedness, proposes that all cognitive and non-cognitive categories should be included. This concept views the abilities of mankind in a holistic manner, and is wide open to all forms of giftedness, is not limited to certain categories, for example the intelligence quotient (140+). The latter approach is conservative and limits giftedness to the top one percent of the population only (Terman as quoted in Henry 1958:19 and Phi Delta Kappan 60 (1), 1978:184).

Renzulli’s (1978) definition of giftedness includes all non-intellectual and intellectual abilities, while the definition of the USOE is limited to cognitive abilities only.
Two definitions of giftedness were tabled by Marland, of the United States of America's Office of Education (U.S.A.O.E.), in 1972 and 1978. At present, this definition of giftedness is most widely accepted. The USAOE defines giftedness in the following way:

Gifted and talented children are those, identified by professionally qualified persons, who, by virtue of outstanding abilities are capable of high performance. These are children who require differentiated educational programs and/or services beyond those normally provided by the regular school program in order to realize their contribution to self and society. Children capable of high performance include those with demonstrated achievement and/or potential ability in any of the following areas, singly or in combination (Haasbroek 1988:16).

The 1972 definition proffers the following criteria according to which a person may be defined as gifted:

* general intellectual ability
* specific academic aptitude
* creative or productive thinking
* leadership ability
* visual and performing arts aptitude
* psychomotor ability

This highlights the fact that giftedness cannot be identified by a single criterion, for example, a high IQ score. Furthermore, this definition makes provision for different domains of giftedness. Leadership and general intellectual ability are therefore recognised as two different categories of giftedness. This means that giftedness is approached in a multi-dimensional fashion.

The 1972 and 1978 proposed definitions of giftedness, for two reasons have been criticised for two reasons. Firstly, neither definition takes into account non-cognitive (motivation, performance) and emotional factors (Renzulli 1978). The second form of critique is levelled against the 1978 proposal of giftedness only. In this amended proposal/formulation the domain of “psychomotor ability” was deleted. The deletion means that Olympic swimmers, track athletes, world-class tennis players, to name but a few are excluded (Stein 1983:xix). To many, such as Gouws (1987), this is unacceptable. Gouws (in Olivier 1987:5) sees giftedness as “*n besondere verstandsprestasie, vindingrykheid, skeppingskrag, aanskoubare gevoelspressies, openbare optrede en motoriese handelinge...*” (exceptional intellectual achievement innovation, creative ability, obvious emotional expression, public performance and motor activities ....).
In a more holistic vein, Gallagher (1985:6) simply operates from the point of view that giftedness is associated with those "who by virtue of outstanding abilities are capable of high performance". Gallagher also argues that people who are identified as gifted should receive differentiated education.

Taking this to a further conclusion, Witty (1958:62) recommends an expanded form of giftedness so that all people who display a "potentially valuable line of human activity" be included.

Witty's definition of giftedness would not be limited to the 1% or 2% of the population who register high on the intelligence quotient score. He views giftedness in a holistic manner: he understands giftedness as existing within mankind's life-world, or Lebenswelt (Husserl 1859 in Van Rensburg and Landman 1984:204). He, like Renzulli, includes non-cognitive abilities, but goes even further to include any contribution made by mankind. This definition encompasses mankind in totality with no parameters offered. His definition was way ahead of its time and is still not totally accepted today.

2.4.2 Conclusion

The concept of giftedness remains a controversial issue. Psychologists, researchers and theorists will intermittently revise the definition, but it seems that this debate will continue for some decades to come. As Renzulli (1984:19) states, "As long as there are differences of opinion among reasonable scholars
there will never be a single definition of giftedness*. The cause of this is that as man develops and changes, so does the society that he interacts in. Therefore the concept will be changed continuously to meet the ever-changing needs and demands of mankind and his social environment. Coming to come to a unitary definition seems a virtual impossibility at this stage.

2.5 LEADERSHIP

The term "leadership" also suffers from denotative definitional confusion according to writers and researchers like Bowden (1926), Bernard (1926), Bingham (1927), Tead (1929), Bogardus (1934), Stogdill (1950), Niemann (1988). From the perusal of literature there seems to be no definition that would suffice as an international or universal definition.

2.5.1 Divergent views of leadership

The term "leadership" is a relatively new term to the English language (Rosenbach and Taylor 1984). Its origin can be traced back to approximately two centuries ago. Literature is available concerning this concept, but "relatively little is known about the leadership process itself" (Rosenbach & Taylor 1984:x) despite the fact that the leadership process is a universal human phenomenon. Bennis and Nanus (1985:4) have indicated in their research that there are more than 350 definitions of leadership. As Bass (1981:7) claims, "There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who
have attempted to define the concept".

Again, there are various denotative (dictionary) definitions of this term. According to Plug, Meyer et al. (1991:203), the term leadership pertains to the following:

* * *

* die uitvoering van gesag met betrekking tot die rig, inisiering en beheer van ander se houding, menings en gedrag.

* * *

* die persoonlikheidseienskappe en opleiding wat die leiding van, en beheer oor, ander suksesvol verloop.

(The carrying out of authority with regard to the direction, initiation and control of other's attitudes, opinions and behaviour.

The personality traits and training which cause the leading and control of others to be successful).

Kritzinger and Labuschagne (1982:523), on the other hand, perceive the term in the following manner:

* * *

* die leier wees,

* die hoedanigheid van leier wees,

* bevoegdheid, bekwaamheid van leier.
*being the leader,
*the act of being the leader,
*the ability and capacity of the leader.

Webster (1961:1283) defines leadership as:

* the office or position of a leader,
* the quality of a leader, capacity to lead,
* the act or the instance of leading.

From the dictionary definitions one can conclude that leadership pertains to:

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<td>capability</td>
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Therefore one can conclude that a leader is a person who is placed in a position of status - i.e is placed in front of a group in society and is also in authority in leadership situations. Leaders are placed in these positions of authority by virtue of their ability, capability and competency to lead the group to reach their objectives.

A second problem with the definition of leadership is that there are various schools of thought relating to the concept.
Leaders themselves differ in their notion of how to exercise leadership (Neumann & Bensimon 1990:678). These notions cause leaders to approach their roles in various manners. A further complication is that theorists, for their part, operate from different paradigms influences their concept of leadership.

(1) The Great Man Theory

The work of Sir Francis Galton (1869) undoubtedly influenced the thinking and the research of theorists like Woods (1913), Wiggam (1931), Dowd (1936), and Jennings (1960). These hereditarian theorists attempted to explain leadership on the basis of inherited characteristics. Dowd (in Stogdill 1981:27) explains their reasoning as follows:

... there is no such thing as leadership by the masses. The individuals in every society possess different degrees of intelligence, energy and moral force, and in whatever direction the masses may be influenced to go, they are always led by the superior few.

(2) The Trait Theory
This theory is closely associated with the above-mentioned theory. This theory asserts that the superior qualities (intuition, vision, energy, persuasive ability and others, see Appendix A) a leader is endowed with, differentiate him/her from a follower. Proponents of this school of thought include Bernard (1926), Bingham (1927), Tead (1929), Kilbourne (1935).

(3) Environmental Theories

These early theorists, Mumford (1909), Bogardus (1918), Pearson (1928) and Hook (1943), attempted to explain leadership in terms of time, place and circumstances. A leader of one era will thus not necessary be a suitable leader in another; outstanding examples in this regard are Hitler or Stalin. The reason for the emergence of these leaders as stated by Bass (1981:27) is that the followers of such people thought that "what the great man did was automatically right to do because he fulfilled what was needed of his times".

(4) Personal-situational Theorists

This theory emphasises that "any theory of leadership must take into account the interaction between the situation and individual" (Adair 1983:16). According to LaPiere (1938), Jenkins (1947), Murphy (1941) and Gibb (1947) a person may be a leader in one situation, but assume the role of a follower in another.
Lamprecht and Botha (1990:v) maintain that the situational theory demands that a leader must have specific abilities, knowledge and experience to be able to function satisfactorily as a leader in any given situation.

Situational leadership can be diagrammatically represented as follows:

The leader is central to the concept. The angles of the triangle pertain to a) a group that you will work with, b) the individuals who constitute the group and...
done". Adherents of this theory advocate the use of extrinsic rewards and the clear setting of goals.

(8) Perceptual and Cognitive Theories

Within the perceptual and cognitive theories the attribution, systems analysis and rational-deductive approaches are incorporated. Pfeffer (1977), Eden and Leviathan (1975) and Calder (1977) propose the idea that each person has formulated his or her own theory as to what constitutes leadership (Attribution Theory). If one really wants to understand a leader’s behaviour, one must not only try and understand the cognitive mechanics, but as the American novelist Harper Lee puts it, "climb into his skin and walk around in it" (Lee 1960:36).

Writers such as Bass and Valenzi (1974) used the systems theory to construct a model of leader-follower relationships (Systems Analysis). Leaders and their group members should be "conceived as open social systems" (Bass 1981:36).

The rational-deductive approach is concerned with questions leaders should ask themselves in "deciding whether to be directive or participate in decision making with their subordinates and whether to do so one at a time with individual subordinates or with the whole group at once" (Bass 1981:3).

(9) Personality Theorists
Personality theorists Bowden (1926) and Bernard (1926), Tead (1929) viewed personality as being the dominant factor in leadership and the ability to exercise authority. According to Bingham (1927), a leader is someone who displays the largest number of desirable traits in his/her personality.

For these theorists, the only determinant for leadership is personality. In other words, the leader must be popular among his/her peers, must be well liked, friendly, have social skills and be sociable.

(10) Compliance Induction Theorists

Theorists like Munson (1921), Allport (1924) and Moore (1927) saw leadership as the art of inducing compliance. According to these theorists, leadership is the ability to induce others to do what one wants them to do (Telford Sawrey 1967:9).

(11) Influentialist Theorists

Influentialist theorists such as Nash (1929), Tead (1935) and Stogdill (1950) propose that leadership pertains to the leader's ability to exercise influence over an individual or group to get them to do what you as leader desire.

(12) Persuasion Theorists

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On the other hand, persuasion theorists (Schenk 1928, Cleeton 1934, Mason 1934) saw persuasion as the factor that determined leadership abilities. Persuasion means being able to persuade the follower to do what you as leader desire.

(13) Power Theorists

French and Raven (1956) saw leadership as existing in the form of power relationships that exist between the various group members.

(14) Interactive Theorists

Other theorists view leadership from an interactive perspective. The members within the group offer mutual stimulation through the "successful interplay of individual differences, controls, human energy in the pursuit of a common cause" (Bass 1981:12).

(15) The Differentiated Role Theorists

The differentiated role concept of leadership states that each member of every society occupies a position of status within that specific society and its institutions and organisations. The individual is expected to fulfil the defined role. Writers like Smith (1935), Gouldner (1950) and Hemphill (1954) attempted to define leadership according to the different roles one occupies.
(16) Structuralist Theorists

The Structuralists (Smith 1935; Homans 1950; LaPiere and Farnsworth 1936 in Bass 1981:154) saw leadership not as "the passive occupancy of a position or acquisition of a role but as a process of originating and maintaining role structure".

2.5.2 Conclusion

As can be seen from the above arguments, leadership is viewed from diverse perspectives. There is no clear definition as to what precisely it pertains to. As Bennis and Nanus (1985:5) claim, "Definitions reflect fads, fashions, political tides and academic trends". No single concept has stood the test of time and been accepted as the ultimate concept. To attempt to comprehend this complicated concept properly, one would not be able to operate solely from a single approach.

2.6 LEADER

The words "leadership" and "leader" are intricately interwoven. The one concept cannot exist independently of the other.

The root word "leader" has been in use in the English language for more than 600 years. An abundance of literature is available on this word. However,
despite the fact that much is known about this concept, each new decade of society shows us that a new form of leadership is required.

A new kind of leader is required to lead us into the twenty-first century, as the old autocratic leader is gone forever and we face new challenges and expectations. As Alder (1994) states, "we need a new kind of manager - a leader with enough creativity to match the pace of change... a new kind of manager is needed to meet the challenges and opportunities of a new millennium."

2.6.1 Introduction

The word "leader" is more than six centuries old, yet scholars and researchers alike are unable to reach consensus as to what this word should pertain to. The following argument highlights only three causes of the dilemma faced by these researchers.

The first cause is a plethora of conflicting dictionary definitions:

Odendaal, Schoones et al. (1965:645) view a leader as "n persoon wat lei, voorganger, aanvoerder". (a person who leads, goes ahead, a guide). McLeod (1985:480) emphasises that a leader is a person who leads and has the power of leading and the qualities of a leader.
A leader is someone who leads in a specific situation and has the necessary characteristics that complement the situation.

A second problem with finding a definition is the arguments between authorities concerning the concept. Bennis & Nanus (1985:3) perceive a leader as someone who commits his/her followers to action, has the ability to convert subordinates into future leaders and has the ability to change him or herself as the situation demands. Morrow (1987:10), similarly perceives a leader as: "...one who commits people to action, who converts followers into leaders and who convert leaders into agents of change". Foster (1981:17) agrees that a leader is someone who is responsible for implementing change. In the same vein, Gibb (1969:11) sees a leader not as someone who has a consistent set of personality traits, but rather as someone who is a group member who is able to exert influence on the other members of the group.

On the other hand, Hollander (1961:1978) and Lamprecht and Botha (1990) see a leader as someone who may lead in one situation and may become a follower in the next.

A leader arises, according to Knickerbocker (in Gibb 1969:33) "as a result of agreement among members of a group that some individual serves better than any other".

2.6.2 Conclusion
Researchers have not reached a consensus "on what leadership is and how an individual ends up as an eminent leader" (Foster 1981:21). This is due to the inability to define leadership accurately. Researchers are uncertain as to what factors constitute leadership and therefore how we ought to train perspective leaders to fulfil their new role as leaders (Foster 1981:18).

2.6 SUMMARY

As can be seen from the foregoing arguments concerning the concepts of intelligence, giftedness and leadership, giftedness is a multi-dimensional concept. It incorporates all facets of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities, measurable (intelligence quotient) and non-measurable performance and motivation criteria.
CHAPTER THREE

3. WHO IS THE INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED LEADER?

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this inquiry is to understand and provide a description of who the intellectually gifted leader is.

Before an attempt can be made to address this issue a closer inspection of who constitutes a gifted person and leader and what qualities such a person should possess must be undertaken. This approach has been adopted as at present no literature is available pertaining to the concept of "intellectually gifted leader" (Eric 1996). The inquiry into giftedness and leadership will therefore provide parameters to direct and control the examination of who the intellectually gifted leader is. This will then provide the groundwork for the drawing of a vignette of the intellectually gifted leader. The inquiry is of necessity exploratory, owing to the lack of available literature and information.

3.2 DEFINITION OF GIFTEDNESS

The modern conceptual clarification of giftedness as discussed in chapter two (see 3.2) should include a multiple of determinants: intelligence, leadership, creativity, psychomotor ability, as well as ability in the visual and performing arts. Gardner (1983) extends this range to include determinants such as motivation and social ability, while Renzulli (1978) contends that the categories of motivation and task-commitment should be included in the conception of giftedness. The modern approach to giftedness is thus to view the phenomenon as multi-dimensional.
The human being is a complex organism and should therefore be considered in its totality. According to Terman (in Stanley, George and Salano 1977:13), the gifted must not be seen as a homogeneous group all the members of which that display the same attributes. The attributes of the gifted person are displayed in a multitude of different ways. For example, they differ in respect of ability, the actualisation of the ability and the domain of giftedness displayed.

3.2.1 Giftedness - A culturally bound concept

In the past, a variety of concepts of giftedness existed as discussed in chapter two. At present, the meaning of giftedness still varies.

between different societies, according to the conceptions of the people who use the term. This means that giftedness cannot be viewed as excellence per se, but is always a relative matter - function of circumstances, time and culture: (Freeman 1983:20)

Eriksson (1984:7) contends that social evaluation and ethnicity play a significant role in defining the determinants of giftedness. According to this theory, the following example can be formulated:

A gifted Indian of the Americas, or a gifted San of the Kalahari Desert will not be considered gifted in a westernised society because the determinants of giftedness (i.e. highly sensitive hearing, delicate sense of balance, sensitive perception of depths and streams, the ability to track animals, the competence to find water in a sea of sand, etc.) in that particular society would not be applicable in a society that is so technologically and scientifically advanced as the world we find ourselves in. Rather, this gifted person will be considered as retarded and slow according to our ethnically determined viewpoint of giftedness (Eriksson 1984; Pendarvis; Howley & Howley 1990; and Eysenck
This example highlights the fact that the society in which you find yourself has established its own boundaries and rules for giftedness. These factors are often not applicable to other societies as they have direct educational implications, and this often results in the fact that a person may be classified as gifted in his/her own society, but not necessarily in an alternative society. Every culture reflects certain requirements, expectations, norms, values, traditions and customs which will influence the determinants of giftedness. Therefore, these factors should compel educationalists to consider the role that social evaluation and ethnicity play in these controversial concepts of giftedness and leadership.

### 3.2.2 Giftedness - A multi-dimensional concept

Giftedness is a very difficult concept to define for various reasons. The foremost reason is that giftedness and a high intelligence quotient are considered as synonymous (Subotnik & Arnold 1995:2). This one-sided approach is largely due to Terman's (1925) study involving 1500 intellectually gifted children all of whose IQ was 140+.

As Getzel (1981:5) reports, "Since Terman used the IQ metric as the sole measure of giftedness, the word gifted became synonymous with high IQ, and the term gifted child became a shorthand way of saying child with high IQ."

This conservative proposal of giftedness would pertain only to those who fall into the top 1% of general intellectual ability as measured by the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, or the JSAIS & SSAIS (see 3.4). This point of departure limits the concept to academic performance and ability only. On the other hand, writers like Getzel and Jackson (1963:7) contend that the equating of giftedness to a high IQ blinds us to other forms of giftedness and excellence, thereby limiting the field of giftedness.
Guilford (1950) and Getzels (1981) further contend that there are qualities - such as leadership, motor coordination and creativity - that cannot be measured accurately by the IQ score alone that are also representative of giftedness.

It is this one-sided approach (intellectualism) that has been responsible for the lack of progress in understanding the other categories of giftedness. For a fuller understanding of the concept of giftedness one must look beyond the boundaries of the IQ score. This is also necessary if one wants to try and understand domains such as leadership and creativity. These domains are not only measured by the intelligence quotient, but by the performance as well (Witty in Renzulli 1987).

Secondly, there is a variety of conceptions as to what giftedness pertains to (see chapter two). Renzulli (1977), Feldhusen and Kolloff (1979), Haasbroek & Jooste (1981), USOE (1972), Gouws (1987), Gallagher (1985), Witty (1958), to name but a few, all proffer concepts of giftedness. Some of these concepts overlap, while others use a single criterion (intelligence quotient) to determine what giftedness is (Haasbroek & Jooste 1981; Terman 1925; Terman & Oden 1947; Oden 1968). In other words, the understanding of the concept depends upon the criteria applied.

Questions put forward by theorists such as Hallahan & Kauffman (1994), Eysenck and Kamin (1981) and Renzulli (1984) of chapter 2, section 2.3.1 add to the complexity of defining this multi-dimensional concept.

Hallahan & Kauffman (1994) are concerned with issues such as: in which fields do gifted children excel? How should giftedness be measured? Eysenck & Kamin (1981) ponder the importance of hereditariness versus environment. Renzulli (1984) poses the question as to whether giftedness and high IQ are synonymous.
Renzulli (1978), Witty (1978), Gouws (1983 and Olivier (1987) all claim that
giftedness cannot be identified according to a single criterion, namely
intelligence. As Olivier (1987:6) states, the conservative approach's
shortcoming is that it excludes all other forms of giftedness such as leadership,
creativity, still in the performing arts and so forth. All non-interceptive
intellective and intellectual abilities must also be included in the concept
(Renzulli 1978:180-4).

What should the concept of giftedness then include? The modern conceptual
clarification of giftedness should include a multiple number of determinants -
intelligence, leadership, creativity, psychomotor ability, visual and performing
arts. Gardner (1983) extends this to include determinants such as motivation
and social ability, as does Renzulli (1985). In this multi-dimensional approach
(Hany & Heller 1991, Sternberg 1990) all cognitive and non-cognitive
categories should be included.

Use of the multi-dimensional approach implies that the concept of giftedness
cannot be "tied directly to a single theory of giftedness" (Subotnik & Arnold
1995:2). Rather, it implies that a focus on all the different aspects of giftedness
is essential.

It can be argued the, that giftedness is not only linked to IQ scoring. IQ scoring
should be seen as an indicator of giftedness and not as giftedness per se. As
history has shown us, it is the "producers of knowledge", the "reconstructionists
of thought" in all areas who are recognised as truly gifted and not those who
merely scored well in IQ tests (Renzulli 1984:4).

Thus, one can conclude that arriving at a universally acceptable definition of
"what giftedness is" is virtually impossible (Sthaughnessy, Jausovec & Lehtonen
1992). Too many factors play an important role in defining the concept.
Therefore, at present the process of understanding "what giftedness is" remains "open-ended and could not be called either rigorous or precise ..." (Freeman 1983:21).

### 3.2.3 Determining giftedness

A multi-dimensional approach prompts the following question: "How should giftedness be determined?" Renzulli (1985:5) contends that giftedness can be developed through proper and correct education and guidance. Davis & Rimms (1989) further advocate the use of the following elements in identifying the gifted: teacher, peer, parent and self-nominations.

In trying to determine what giftedness is, the researcher will rely upon the definitions of the USOE (1972). Studying this concept of giftedness one is forced away from the conservative point of departure, namely that of the intelligence score. The USOE's definition draws attention to a wide variety of abilities - general intellectual ability; specific academic aptitude; creative or productive thinking; leadership ability; visual and performing arts and psychomotor ability. It should be noted that this definition does not include non-cognitive abilities (Renzulli 1984:6) such as motivation, perseverance, endurance and hard work. These non-cognitive abilities are measurable by performance only.

**Intellectual ability** is determined in South Africa by using intelligence tests such as the Junior South African Individual Scale (JSAIS), Senior South African Individual Scale (SSAIS), Griffiths Mental Developmental Scales and the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test. The JSAIS measures the abilities of children between the ages of three and eight years of age. The SSAIS measures the general intelligence of children between the ages of six and seventeen years, while the Griffiths Mental Developmental Scales test focuses on young children. The Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test can be applied to individuals or groups. This test is of a non-verbal nature and requires the individual's ability to

Sometimes, an individual can manifest his/her talent in a single field, for example, in mathematics, science or physics. The identification of specific academic aptitude can be achieved by using the following criteria: intelligence tests, aptitude test battery, a scholastic proficiency battery and cumulative scholastic achievement in the relevant field. Aptitudes represent the potential intellectual abilities that can be measured (Fouche and Alberts 1971:5).

Researchers such as Gold (1965), Tannenbaum (1983), Tongue & Sperling (1976) contend that the application of aptitude tests helps to broaden the concept of intellectual giftedness.

Concerning the domain of creativity, the only test in South Africa that can be applied to measure creativity is the Torrence Creativity Test (Joubert 1996). This test enables one to obtain a picture of the individual which, in turn, helps one to determine his/her creative potential (Haasbroek 1988:72).

The domain of leadership cannot rely solely on the results of tests, as in this domain performance plays a large role in determining one's ability to lead (Renzulli 1985). Nominations by peers and teachers help to identify leadership qualities and abilities in a person.

In the field of visual and performing arts, psychomotor ability plays a determining role. Reports by peers and teachers contribute to the determination of giftedness in this field.

As can be seen from the above-mentioned tests and other forms of assessment applied to determine giftedness, intelligence tests dominate the categories. However, giftedness should not be associated with a high IQ score only, as performance plays a major role in the domains of leadership, creativity,
visual and performing arts and the psychomotor domain (Renzulli 1975). As Pendarvis et al. (1980:18) state, "IQ tests fail to measure all the components of the intellect".

One can therefore conclude that the various domains of giftedness cannot be identified by testing alone, but that performability and abilities should play a large role in the determination of giftedness as well. Giftedness should include the human being's abilities in totality and not only in parts. As the Gestalt principle propounds, the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

3.2.4 Description of the gifted

Cesara Lombrosa (1895) offered the first attempt at a description of the gifted. He perceived the gifted person in a negative manner: they stuttered, their physique was stunted, they were generally emaciated, and sickly in colour, and the tended to suffer from rickets, baldness, amnesia or/and forgetfulness, sterility, and brain degeneration.

Terman (1947) counteracted Labrosa's theory after studying 1 500 intellectually gifted children (i.e whose IQ score was 140+). He stated that the characteristics as outlined by Lambrosa are "simply not true as a predominant trend" (Terman in Davis & Rimm 1989:19).

Ehrlich (1982) also avers that Lambrosa's negative view of the gifted is a myth. Ehrlich does acknowledge that there are the gifted who are weak and frail. Three examples are Keats, the English poet of the romantic period, who lived from 1795-1821 and suffered from tuberculosis; The French Impressionist painter Toulouse-Lautrec who lived from 1864-1901, who broke both his legs in separate accidents which caused them to stop growing as the rest of his body matured normally - this deformity caused a dwarfish appearance and made him extremely sensitive; and Giacomo Leopardi, the Italian lyric poet (1798-1837) who was sickly and physically deformed. However, they seem to
be in the minority. The list of healthy gifted and talented people by far outweighs the frail and the weak. Examples here include Franklin, Jefferson, Picasso, Da Vinci, and Curie.

To arrive at a universally acceptable definition of giftedness is very complex (cf F 3.2.2 and 3.3.3). However, a few traits of giftedness as identified by researchers such as Bennis and Nanus (1985), Davis and Rimm (1989), Ehrlich (1982), and Terman and Oden (1951) will be explored further in order to try and gain a description of the gifted.

3.2.4.1 Intelligence

Intellectual capacity or intelligence should not serve as the sole criteria to determine giftedness, but each of these "is an extremely important component of giftedness" (Roos 1970 in Haasbroek 1988:52). What is understood by the concept 'intelligence'? Just as researchers find it difficult to come to a universally acceptable definition of giftedness, the term intelligence also suffers from universal definitional confusion (Swiegers 1974, Van Niekerk 1978). Diverse definitions of intelligence have been put forward by researchers such as Wechsler (1958), Robinson and Robinson (1965), Schaffer (1965), Fouche (1968) and Pendarvis (1990).

Painter (in Haasbroek 1988:14) contends, "An IQ of 130 is probably the one which is most commonly taken as a dividing line between intellectually gifted and non-gifted youngsters". Intellectual giftedness is usually determined by the IQ which is derived from standardised intelligence test scores. In the South African situation, one is considered gifted if the IQ score is 130+. One is considered gifted in the United Kingdom if the IQ score exceeds 140 (Rudnitski 1995).

Because of the diversified definitions of this concept intelligence must not be seen as a characteristic that is only measured by intelligence test scores.
Non-cognitive abilities must also be included in the definition (Gardner 1987, Renzulli 1978). Intelligence to Gardner (1987) is more than the outcome of an intelligence test because abilities such as writing poetry, sport achievements and reasoning ability cannot be measured accurately by an intelligence test. The intellectual capacity of an individual encompasses more than the outcome of the IQ score as traditionally measured by intelligence tests (Haasbroek (ed) 1988).

3.2.4.2 Social Image and sociability

Social image is the mental image of how the gifted person perceives himself or herself socially, while sociability refers to the state of being sociable (Webster 1961:2161).

According to theorists studying the characteristics of the gifted - Eriksson 1984; Terman 1958; Ehrlich 1982; Berndt, Kaiser and Van Aalst 1982 - to name but a few, the intellectually gifted person rates much higher on the social scale than the average person and is socially more mature. Ross and Parker (1980) also maintain that the gifted have a better social image. Grossberg and Cornell (1988), Schwartz (1994) and Terman (1925) have also found that the gifted are socially better adjusted than their peers, have better social skills and a greater social maturity than their peers. This ability enables them to socialise with their peers and these a few years older quite comfortably.

The formation of social relationships by the gifted will depend largely on their ability to accept and cope with this situation. The inability to communicate with superiors and peer group is sometimes found in these pupils may be due to their awareness that others are unlike themselves. (Haasbroek (ed) 1988:144)
Researchers Gowan and Demos (1964) and Gowan and Bruch (1971) claim that if the social needs of the gifted are not met, they might display behavioural problems. Similarly, Berndt, Kaiser and Van Aalst (1982) and Gensley (1977) maintain that such behavioural problems might manifest themselves in the form of social problems, anxiety and depression. Research conducted by Milgram and Milgram (1976) and Rimm (1986) has found that when the gifted suffer from anxiety, depression and low self-esteem, their academic achievements diminish. This debilitating affect causes many gifted people to become underachievers.

However, research administered by Davis and Rimm (1989) has found that, according to statistical evidence, the gifted are not prone to suffering from social problems, anxiety and/or depression. Rather, the gifted showed a below average tendency to commit suicide and to be prone to mental illnesses.

3.2.4.3. Self-concept

The self-concept is closely associated with how we perceive ourselves, "our view of who we are and how we fit into the world" (Purkey & Novak 1984:25). As far as is known, no one is born with an existing self-concept (Purkey & Novak 1984:27). The self-concept emerges through association with others, through experiences, thought, and perception (Purkey & Schmidt 1987:40).

The gifted usually have a positive self-concept. Yong and McIntyre (1991 as quoted in Schwartz 1994:23) assert "that the students identified as gifted tended to be more positive about themselves as persons and about their ability to communicate interpersonally at home and school than their regular peers".

However, as research continues concerning the characteristics of the gifted, discrepancies are being noted. Kelly and Colangelo (1984) found a discrepancy arising among the gifted themselves. This difference occurred between the gifted male and female. The adolescent gifted male had a better
self-concept than the adolescent gifted girl. On the other hand, Hoge and McSheffrey (1991) found no significant differences pertaining to the self-concepts among the gifted.

A positive correlation exists between the self-concept of the gifted and their scholastic achievement (Telford & Saurey, Irwin, Parkey, Binder, Jones & Strowig, Biggs & Tinley and Greineks as quoted by Engelbrecht 1973:94). It seems that learning and achievement depend upon their perception of themselves. This is an indication "that pupils and students manifesting a positive self-concept are relatively more successful in scholastic and academic terms" (Haasbroek 1988:119). The findings of Haasbroek et al. are further supported by research conducted by Stenner and Katzenmeyer (1976).

3.2.4.4 Creativity

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:54) define creativity as "... a multifaceted phenomenon that defies definition and measurement but which is a recognizable ability to create something unique and original".

Traditionally it was thought that if you are identified as gifted, then you are creative. This is not necessarily true of all gifted people. Research conducted by Fuchs-Beauchamp, Karnes and Johnson (1993) indicates that there is a significant correlation between creativity and intelligence when the individual's IQ score is less than 120, but no significant correlation is found between creativity and intelligence when the IQ is higher than 120. As Getzel and Jackson (1963:3) propound, "It is commonly observed that children who are high in intelligence as measured by IQ are not concomitantly high in such other intellectual functions as creativity..."

The perception has been that there is a high correlation between intelligence and creativity, and these terms were used synonymously (Olivier 1984). But as research continued, researchers have realised that the IQ test alone cannot
determine the total sum of intelligence. Creativity and intelligence are two separate domains (USOE:1972). Therefore, a person with a high IQ can be creative, but it is not necessarily the case that if you have a high IQ you are creative. To be creative does demand a certain amount of intelligence, but not necessarily intellectual giftedness (Joubert:1992).

3.2.4.5 Motivation

Researchers differ over certain aspects relating to the characteristic of motivation, but there is also consensus that motivation is a power or force generated from within that leads to action-intrinsic motivation (Lamprecht 1988:39).

Gifted people have a high level of intrinsic motivation (Haasbroek 1988; Davis & Rimm 1989). They can become very absorbed in a task that truly interests them. The absorption can be so intense that other tasks are set aside. The gifted can easily become bored if the tasks they are faced with do not offer sufficient challenges.

If the gifted are self-motivated, they require very little direction. They also enjoy working independently and tend to strive for continual perfection.

3.2.5 Summary

Robinson, Roedell and Jackson (1979) declare that there is no such thing as a typically gifted child. Rather, someone who displays certain characteristics can be identified as gifted. It is the diverse number of intellectual and non-cognitive abilities that renders researchers, psychologists and educators alike incapable of offering a "typical" profile of the gifted. According to Terman (as quoted by Gowan in Stanley, George and Salano 1977:13), the gifted must not be seen as a homogeneous group that displays the same attributes. Rather, the diversity of attributes in the intellectual and non-intellectual fields place the
gifted in a heterogeneous group (Taylor & Van der Westhuizen 1983).

No single person has to display a required number of characteristics to be considered gifted. Sometimes a single characteristic (i.e. specific academic ability) is sufficient in determining an intellectual superiority or a talent (Ehrlich 1982:23). An individual may thus differ in terms of his/her unique abilities and talents - there are areas in which he/she is competent and there are areas in which he/she excels. Therefore, all the characteristics identified to date would not necessarily apply to all the gifted.

According to Ehrlich (1982:23), there are approximately fifty identified characteristics to describe the gifted child/person (see Appendix A). As Ehrlich (1982:23) contends, theorists, researchers and specialists who deal with the field of giftedness develop a sensitivity to combinations of characters, "but not even they can promote them as sure ways of identifying giftedness", for the mere fact that many of these traits that are applied to the gifted can so easily be applied to the non-gifted. There is just not sufficient information available as to what would constitute a critical group of determinants for the identification of giftedness. The list of characteristics of giftedness must thus not be considered as the ultimate in identifying the gifted; rather, the person must be seen as a complex biological, physiological, social entity when identifying giftedness.

The traditional approach of identification (intelligence tests) is not the only means of identification. Someone can also be identified as gifted by means of psychomotor tests and by experts in the field. Giftedness is a multi-dimensional concept which includes all cognitive and non-cognitive abilities. Thus one can conclude the gifted person is someone who has a positive self-concept, high self-esteem, is self motivated, dynamic, task-committed, emotionally stable, has superior reasoning faculty, is well-adjusted personally and socially, is imaginative and so forth.
The term "leadership" still suffers from conceptual clarification (cf chapter two) (Bowden 1926, Stogdill 1950, Niemann 1988). Leadership may mean one thing to a militarised youth, another to a terrorist, another to a dictator. At present, there are more than 350 definitions of leadership (Bennis & Nanus 1985).

As Davis and Rimm (1989) state, the concept of leadership has not received the same amount of attention in educational programmes for the gifted as concepts like intelligence, IQ, and academic ability, despite its inclusion as one of the five USOE categories of gifts and talents. Bennis and Nanus (1985:20) allege that the concept of leadership is one of the most studied concepts in the social sciences, but the least understood.

Other reasons proffered for definitional confusion centre on the various schools of thought concerning leadership such as the Great Man, Trait, Environmental, and Situational Theories, to mention a few. Most of these theories functions from within divergent paradigms (see chapter two for a discussion on each theory) emphasising different aspects of leadership. As Campbell (Campbell in Rosenbach & Taylor 1981:XIII) claims, "leadership has an elusive, mysterious quality about it. It is easy to recognise, hard to describe, difficult to practice and almost impossible to create".

3.3.1 What is leadership?

Neumann and Bensimon (1990:679, 680) state:

leadership is not viewed purely as an external physical and behavioral phenomenon, but rather as a complex 'enactment' of deeper, personally constructed understandings and beliefs about the nature of reality.
In the concept of leadership one must include personality, compliancy, influence, motivation, persuasion, communication and many more characteristics and skills required for the art of leadership. De Haan (1947:127) argues that a definition of leadership "should include both the characteristics of the individual, his personality, character, needs and motivations and the characteristics of the group, its goals, needs and membership composition."

In other words, in order to understand the concept of leadership properly, it is not enough merely to describe the traits of a leader; the personality, behaviour, style and situation all make important contributions to understanding how to lead (Bass 1981:14).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) conducted research among various leaders in different professions to see whether common leadership characteristics that would appear. The only common characteristic found among the researched was that they were all married! It seems therefore that we can conclude that there is no set pattern to identifying characteristics of leaders.

According to De Haan (in Henry 1958:137), "for every different task group and every variety in the composition of the group the traits necessary for leadership seemed to vary. There is no consistent pattern of personal traits with which to characterise all leaders everywhere."

Stogdill (1974:128) also supports the argument that leadership cannot be identified by a possession of personality traits. He contends that "an individual may be able to rise to the top with one group of peers but not with another". To lead a specific group, the leader's traits must bear some resemblance of those of their followers (Stogdill as quoted in Bass 1984:29).

There are more than ninety characteristics and skills identified for leadership by researchers such as Plowman (1981), Kouzes & Posner 1987) and Davis & Rimm (1989) (cf Appendix B). "However, little uniformity is found among the
items contained in such lists" (Bass 1981).

The domain of leadership will be further investigated by exploring certain characteristics, abilities and competencies. The characteristics and skills to be analysed in the argument that follows were selected at random.

3.3.1.1 Chronological age

Chronological age is one of the characteristics of leadership that has been studied for a considerable length of time. An early inquiry into the chronological age characteristic was conducted by Baldwin (1932), Garrison (1935), Neushetter (1938) and Enely (1939).

Much of the groundwork concerning this characteristic was carried out during the period from 1929 to 1944. Research results of the time proved to be quite contradictory. Research by Baldwin (1932), Finch and Carroll (1932), Garrison (1935), Hunter and Jordan (1939) and Remmelin (1935) found that leaders tended to be younger than their followers, while research conducted by Buttgereit (1932), Goodenough (1930), Gourin (1915), Moore (1935), Neushetter (1938), Nuthing (1923), Parten (1933), Partridge (1934) and Enely (1939) found that leaders tended to be older than their followers.

Other researchers (Caldwell and Wellman 1926) find there is no consensus concerning the role that age plays in leadership. Instead, it varies from situation to situation.

The researcher was unable to find any literature pertaining to this trait during the period 1945 to 1980. Bass (1981:48) quoting Stogdill (1981:48) argues that chronological age "cannot be regarded as a factor which is correlated with leadership in any uniform direction or degree".

3.3.1.2 Social image and sociability
Much of the research concerning the discussed traits and skills was carried out in thirties and early forties. Research conducted concerning the social image, sociability and social skills was carried out by researchers such as Bonney (1934), Drake (1944) and Stray (1934) in the same period.

No contradictory findings were noted in the work of the early researchers. Indeed, the results were unanimous. A very high positive correlation was found to exist between leadership and sociability. Leaders tended to be more friendly than their followers. Traits such as courtesy, tact and diplomacy distinguished the leader from the non-leader. A diverse number of studies conducted provide evidence that leaders tend “to rate higher than average in popularity” (Bass 1981:62).

Another characteristic to be discussed under social image and sociability is that of introversion and extroversion. These findings did prove to be contradictory, however. This contradiction emerges in research conducted in the 1980's and 1990's.

Richardson and Feldhusen (1988) conclude that leaders, in general, are extroverted. The extroverted leader tends to attain leadership in public areas - politicians fall into this category (Farrall & Krongborg 1996). However, research conducted by Silverman (1986) has found the opposite to be true as well. Many introverted people become leaders only in their adult lives. Many of these introverted leaders spend long periods of their working lives in solitude. Examples of introverted leaders are Charles Darwin, the British naturalist who formulated the theory of evolution, Marie Curie, the Polish physicist, and Patrick White, the Australian novelist.

3.3.1.3 Self-confidence and self-esteem

The "self" is that part of us which we are consciously aware of. Within this "self", there are two concepts which are interrelated, the self-concept and the
self-esteem. The self-concept has to do with how one perceives and thinks about oneself (CF 3.2.4.3) and it forms the core of one's personality. Self-esteem has to do with how one assesses oneself. The assessment may be positive or negative. The assessment is "one's self-judgement of one's own abilities, influence and popularity" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:206).

From the literature studied, there seems to be a positive correlation between self-confidence and leadership. Self-confidence is one of the characteristics that is to be found in three types of leadership - autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) have found that leaders have a high degree of self-confidence and self-esteem. They believe in themselves and in their abilities and are very self-assured. Furthermore, positive self-confidence allows the leader to express confidence about his/her ability to work well with others.

Further research conducted by Kouzes and Pozner (1987) has found that leaders also have a high self-esteem. Because of their own self-confidence, leaders nurture this characteristic in their followers.

3.3.1.4 Fluency of speech and communication

Different forms of communication are necessary. These different forms are determined by and dependent upon what you wish to convey, the people you wish to convey it to, their level of knowledge, interests and attitudes (Bransford & Stein 1984). For communication to be effective, the following elements of conversation must be taken into consideration: the speaker or communicator, the message and the listener.

Speaking, which is the art of conversing, is one of the most common forms of communication. In the oral form of communication, verbal and non-verbal
communication take place. Non-verbal communication includes facial expressions, gestures and body language.

Early research (Terman 1904, Leib 1928) conducted at the beginning of the twentieth century found that a high correlation exists between leadership and speech. Bass (1981:50) substantiates the findings of the earlier research: "effective leadership cannot be maintained in an organisation without an adequate system of communication".

However, research conducted by Bennis and Nanus (1985) has found that not all leaders are fully articulate. Adair (1983:94) further substantiates Bennis & Nanus's claims: "... you do not have to become a great orator". Nonetheless, an effective leader must acquire certain skills of speaking. The identified skills are:

(a) Preparing - the ability to think and plan your communication.
(b) Clarifying - the ability to make the spoken word clear and understandable.
(c) Simplifying - the ability to make the complex simple for all.
(d) Vivifying - the ability to make subject matter interesting.
(e) Being yourself - the ability to appear natural before an audience (Adair 1983:95).

3.3.1.5 Knowledge

There are basically two types of knowledge: knowledge in breadth and knowledge in depth (Hamm 1989). Knowledge in breadth entails the requirement of comprehension and familiarisation of logical types of knowledge,
that is, mathematics and logic, physical (empirical) sciences, history and human sciences, aesthetics, morals, philosophy, and religion. Knowledge in depth is specialised knowledge. It is more than superficial knowledge of a subject. Knowledge in depth and knowledge in breadth complement each other.

A leader should have both knowledge in breadth and in depth. However, should a leader not have the required knowledge in depth, he/she is quite willing to become a follower within that situation and allow the person with depth to lead.

Knowledge is an important characteristic of a leader. A leader must have the ability to make constructive and creative decisions, and display originality when confronted with various situations and problems. Imagination plays an integral role in leadership, as the leader must be able to envisage the future goal plan accordingly. He/she must be able to take the initiative, be generative, analytical, evaluative (Plowman 1980) and have insight.

A leader must be able to make snap decisions and judgements and adapt to the various needs of each situation. "It appears that specialized knowledge and ability to get things done are factors which contribute towards leadership status" (Bass 1981:52).

3.3.1.6 Intelligence

Of all the leadership qualities identified since the inception of leadership studies, the characteristic of "high intelligence comes top" (Adair 1990:17).

The majority of studies revolving around the issues of intelligence and leadership indicate that the leader surpasses the average intelligence of group members (Getzel & Jackson 1963). Furthermore Bass (1981) claims that leaders have an average better scholastic achievements than non-leaders. This conclusion should not be surprising considering that the leader's
intellectual ability surpasses that of his/her followers.

Nonetheless, Bass (1981:52) further states that:

there is an abundance of evidence which indicates that a position of leadership is ordinarily not founded upon superior intelligence and accomplishments alone since these two factors may be present to a high degree in many persons who do not occupy positions of leadership.

3.3.1.7 Motivation

A leader must not only be self-motivated, he/she must be a good motivator (Serebriakoff 1990:85). Adair (1990:5) contends: "It is difficult to think of a leader who does not motivate others."

How do leaders motivate others? Firstly, the leader must be aware that what motivates one person will not necessarily motivate another (Adair 1990:94). Secondly, a leader is a good motivator when the credit for achievement of objectives is awarded to group members. Although the leader places an emphasis on group unity - the collective ability of the group - leaders praise members openly where praise is due and the leader shows appreciation for what is accomplished by each individual member (Serebriakoff 1990:85).

Adair (1990) states that there are eight rules to apply when motivating others. Rule number one is that to motivate others, you as leader must be motivated. You must set a good example and be enthusiastic in task-commitment. Rule two: it is easy to motivate people who are highly motivated. Rule three: remember that each person is an individual, therefore enter into dialogue to find out what motivates the person. Rule four: to enhance motivation, leaders
should set realistic and challenging objectives. Rule five: if a follower perceives progress, he/she will be motivated to complete the task. Rule six: it is sometimes very difficult to motivate a person who is not self-motivated, but a great deal of motivation can be created if the environment is motivating. Rule seven: always reward fairly. This fairness by the leader enhances motivation in task fulfilment. Rule eight: recognition in all spheres is a powerful motivator.

3.3.2 Development of leadership

Researchers are uncertain as to what really constitutes leadership and are even more perplexed by the idea of how educators should train children or adults for this demanding role. Researchers like Magoon (1980), Plowman (1981), Parker (1983), and Maker (1982) all believe that leadership skills can be developed by training, for example, critical thinking (Rossouw & Lamprecht 1995), decision-making (Bransford & Stein 1984) and persuasion. Bennis and Nanus (1985:27) maintain that, "Leadership seems to be the marshalling of skills possessed by a majority but used by a minority. But it is something that can be learned by anyone, taught to everyone, denied to no one." Charlton (1993:131) also maintains that certain types of leaders, i.e. business leaders, can be taught various skills of leadership. However, the outcome of success at the end of the period cannot be guaranteed. Leadership training can be enhanced further by concentrating on skills such as cognition (i.e. research, exploration, and investigation skills), problem-solving (creative thinking), interpersonal communication, self-awareness and cooperation. These skills can be developed in someone through exercises.

3.4 THE INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED LEADER

From the above inquiry into who the gifted and/or the leaders are, a vignette of who the intellectually gifted leader is will be attempted.
The characterisation of who the gifted leaders are proved to be fairly easy, as there is a vast amount of literature pertaining to the "who" and identification of the above-mentioned concepts. However, the characterisation of who the intellectually gifted leader is, proved to be difficult. There is very little literature available pertaining to this concept (Eric 1985 - 1996). The present inquiry is therefore exploratory as the researcher will try to provide a description of the intellectually gifted leader from the investigation of certain characteristics and skills of the gifted and the leader.

In an attempt to identify who the intellectually gifted leader is, emphasis will be placed upon the characteristics and skills discussed under the concepts of giftedness and leadership. For the purpose of this investigation, the concept of "intellectually gifted" pertains to an individual whose IQ score is 130+ and who maintains or has maintained a position of leadership.

Intellectually gifted leaders have a positive self-concept, as they tend to be very positive about themselves as people, their abilities and inter-personal relationships at home and at school.

Academically the intellectually gifted should encounter no problem. Their intellectual ability will help them to master the learning content with relative ease.

There is a very high positive correlation between motivation and the intellectually gifted leader. These leaders are people who get things done, who can organise and initiate (Bass 1981). They are the ones to encourage group members by always trying to give positive feedback and encouragement. They know how to motivate the group to work and to achieve the desired objective. They are able to motivate their group members to excel because they are highly motivated. Furthermore, they will use extrinsic rewards to enhance motivation, until that specific person no longer requires it, but is intrinsically motivated to continue. In the group situation, the motivator is generous in the
sense that he/she gives credit to others. The intellectually gifted leader uses the plural pronoun "we" instead of "I" when motivating others: In other words that it is a collective effort within the group - each member motivating the next.

The intellectually gifted leader's chronological age would not be a factor, as a group selects a person that would be able to lead them in a specific situation. Their intellectual ability would enable them to cope very well with all age groups.

Knowledge is a characteristic that is common to the gifted and to the leader. The intellectually gifted are very knowledgeable as they are widely read, and have a vast working vocabulary. In leadership knowledge is essential, as the leader must be able to make constructive and creative decisions. Knowledge allows insight into problems and allows the leader to adapt to various situations.

3.5 SUMMARY

Who then is the intellectually gifted leader? The intellectually gifted leader is someone displaying the following characteristics:

- positive self-concept and social image
- task-committed
- popular
- assertive
- knowledgeable
- fluent speech
- diplomatic
- self-motivated and motivators
- has a high IQ
4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND THE METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one, the orientation statement of the problem and the purpose of the investigation are clearly set out.

Chapter two offered a theoretical explanation of the literature explored concerning the conceptual clarification and the problems pertaining to the clarification. A variety of views and conceptions held by various researchers, scholars and educationalists relating to the concepts of intelligence, giftedness and leadership were also put forward.

Chapter three's argument centered around the question of "Who is the intellectually gifted leader?"

This chapter's discussion will deliberate on the research process. Within the research process, the following issues will be considered and enquired into: research approach, data-collection approach, data analysis and the protocol.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

For this research, a qualitative research design was chosen as an in depth investigation into the problem statement "How do the intellectually gifted perceive leadership?" was required. The qualitative research design proved to be suitable because it is exploratory, descriptive and addresses the question posed most adequately.
4.2.1 Exploratory research

As the above term indicates, the objective which is pursued in exploratory research "is the exploration of a relatively unknown research area" (Mouton & Marais 1990:43), being "How do the intellectually gifted perceive leadership?" Although "intellectually gifted" and "leadership" are not unknown territories, the context of the above question is. The concept of "intellectually gifted leaders" was searched worldwide on the ERIC programme. However, this research proved to be fruitless as there was no data available relating to this precise concept.

The exploratory research method is used to gain insight into and comprehension of how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership, rather than simply collecting accurate and replicable data. Furthermore, this method allows the researcher to study new ideas and possibilities and not be led or influenced by predetermined ideas and hypotheses (Mouton & Marais 1990:43).

4.2.2 Descriptive Research

The idea here is to present as accurate a description as possible of what is being researched. To present the picture as accurately as possible, verbatim quotations will be used from the transcriptions.

The descriptive method is to describe the perceptions (quoted verbatimly) of the intellectually gifted and to add additional information to the categories studied under the exploratory method.

4.2.3 Contextual research

A context represents certain properties that relate to the phenomenon being studied. The phenomenon is studied because of its intrinsic interest (contextual research strategy); it is also studied because it may be representative of a
larger population (general research category). The phenomenon is thus first investigated in terms of its immediate context and in the second case because it is representative of a larger population.

In a contextual research strategy, a single case (case study) or a group may be subjected to the investigation. The primary aim of the investigator "is to produce an extensive description of the phenomenon within the context of the unique setting of the domain phenomenon" (Mouton & Marais 1990:50).

Mention must be made that research is only valid within a certain time-space context (Botes 1991 in Raikane 1996:30). This research endeavours to explain and describe how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership in certain communities. These findings may not necessarily apply to the intellectually gifted of underprivileged and/or underdeveloped communities.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To understand how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership, the inquirer will adopt a qualitative research method, because, as Kretting (1990:216) contends, the strength of the qualitative method lies in the fact that it is conducted in naturalistic settings (cf. 4.3.4.5 Context) with few controlling variables. Furthermore, no two situations in interviewing are exactly the same, and this causes this method to be less susceptible to generalisation and to exclude all forms of artificiality.

The adopted qualitative research method will attempt to describe, interpret and reconstruct the subjective meaningful worlds of the interviewed (Babbie 1989 in Raikane 1996:30).

4.3.1 Research plan

The purpose is to explore, describe and determine how the intellectually gifted
perceive leadership. The interviewing technique will be applied in an attempt to determine this and by analysing the subsequent interview data, the researcher hopes to provide an in-depth view of how leadership is perceived by the intellectually gifted.

4.3.2 Trustworthiness of the study

Creswell (1994:1) defines qualitative studies "as an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants and conducted in a natural setting". Qualitative research is an empirically and socially located phenomenon which is defined by its own history (Kirk & Miller 1986 in Raikane 1996:32).

Lincoln and Guba (1985 in Marshall & Rossman 1995:143) propose four constructs or tenets to ensure the trustworthiness of a study: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Lincoln and Guba 1985 in Marshall & Rossman 1995:143) prefer the above terminology to be applied to qualitative researches rather than the constructs internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity as they are inappropriate constructs for a naturalistic inquiry. This is due to the very nature of the questions asked in qualitative research: for example, How credible are the particular findings of a specific inquiry? What criteria shall be applied to judge it? Are these findings transferable and applicable to other settings and groups of people? Can these studies be replicated if the same group of people are used in the same setting? How can the reader be sure that the findings presented in the qualitative study are reflective of the participants, perceptions, experiences, ideas and not credited by the researcher's bias and prejudices?

4.3.2.1 Credibility (internal validity or authenticity)

Miles and Huberman (1994:278) contend that with this construct "we arrive at
the crunch question", namely that of truth value. Truth value determines whether the inquirer has established credence in the findings of the study.

Credibility was established in this research by applying the following criteria: different individuals were selected to participate in the study (cf Participants). The method of triangulation was adopted. "Triangulation" means the collecting of information by using different sources of data relating to the issue being researched. In other words, triangulation is a combination of methods to study the same phenomenon (Krefting 1991; Field & Morse 1992). The use of triangulation is essential, especially in qualitative research where the researcher forms an integral part of the data-collection method. Because the researcher forms a fundamental part of the data, triangulation operates from "the assumption that any biases inherent in particular data sources, investigator and method would be neutralised when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators and methods" (Jick 1979 in Marshall & Rossman 1995:144).

In this research, according to Miles and Huberman (1994) and Krefting (1991) triangulation is strengthened by the use of multiple sources of data collection, for example, an in-depth literature study (method), individual pilot study (data source and methods) and personal interviews (method and data source).

Transcripts of the pilot study and one other interview have been included (cf Appendices D & E). Permission to include Appendix E was obtained before it was included. The remainder of the transcribed interviews are not available to be examined by anyone, other than the independent research consultant and the researcher.

4.3.2.2. **Applicability (transferability, fittingness or external validity)**

This construct raises the question of whether the conclusions drawn from one study are transferable to another (Miles & Huberman 1994:279). In other words, how far can the findings be generalised to fit other contexts and

It is not necessarily the researcher who wants to transfer the findings to other contexts, but the data presented by the researcher should be sufficiently descriptive and explanatory so that it is possible for someone else to be able to draw a comparison, should the need arise (Marshall & Rossman 1995:144).

In qualitative studies, generalisation is not always possible. Generalisation is problematic in the sense that every research situation is made up of a particular researcher in particular interaction with particular selected subjects (Sandelowski 1986 in Raikane 1996:35). Generalisability can be enhanced by triangulating (cf. 4.3.2.1). By triangulating multiple methods, the data obtained from the various "sources can be used to correlate, elaborate, or illuminate the research in question" (Rossman & Wilson 1985 in Marshall & Rossman 1995:145). This research is applicable as the researcher used multiple informants, and phenomenological interviewing to strengthen the applicability.

4.3.2.3 Conformability (objectivity or neutrality)

The final construct as identified by Lincoln and Guba (1985 in Marshall C Rossman 1995) is conformability. Here researchers ask whether the findings of the research can be confirmed by other research. Conformability or neutrality thus refers to the study being reasonably free of unacknowledged researcher biases (Lincoln & Guba 1985 in Miles & Huberman 1994:278). The neutrality construct determines whether the information contained in the study is that of the respondents or whether it has been tainted by the researcher's biases. Factors that may influence the objectivity of the inquirer are: race, age, sex, culture, religion and many other such determinants. The researcher should maintain neutrality so that there is no overt influencing by the inquirer on the respondents, or that the researcher is influenced by the study.
In qualitative studies, the value of the conclusions increases when the distance between the researcher and the researched is minimised. As Creswell (1994:5) states, "The researcher tries to minimize the distance between himself and those being researched." This is due to continuous interaction occurring between the researchers and respondents during the interviewing.

In naturalistic studies, the emphasis of neutrality moves away from the researcher to the data collected (Guba & Lincoln 1985:299 in Raikane 1996:36). A conformability audit includes all raw data, transcriptions, field notes and results of analysis, theoretical notes and notes on methodology and trustworthiness.

The neutrality of the data was maintained in this research by applying the following: a letter (the protocol) was sent to an independent research consultant who analysed the transcribed interviews (cf. Protocol and Appendix C). Triangulation of multiple methods and data sources was also used.

4.3.2.4 Dependability (consistency, reliability or auditability)

The third construct proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985 in Marshall & Rossman 1995) is that of dependability. Dependability is an important determinant of validity as it is concerned with the issues of "whether the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods" (Miles & Huberman 1994:278). Generalisibility is another important factor (Kennedy 1979 in Marshall & Rossman 1995:143).

Variations can be expected in naturalistic research because the instruments in this research are the researcher and the researched. Qualitative research emphasises the fact that no two human situations are exactly the same, because of the instruments involved, and that a variation of the replication is therefore sought rather than an identical replication (Field & Morse 1985 in Raikane 1996:36).
In this construct, the researcher attempts "to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study as well as changes in the design created by increasingly refined understanding of the setting" (Marshall & Rossman 1995:145).

Dependability was maintained in this study by applying the following controls: the research design, method of data collection, methodology, analysis and interpretations are adequately presented and described. In addition, an independent research consultant was approached to analyse the interviews.

4.3.3 Ethical rigour

There are various ethical considerations to be taken into account when conducting qualitative research. The researcher must always bear in mind that he/she is studying the actions, experiences or perceptions of other people (Krefting 1991).

In this inquiry, the researcher applied the following ethical considerations: the researcher truthfully and clearly informed the participants as to what the study involved. The consent of the interviewees was obtained concerning the taping of the interviews. Each interviewee was treated with courtesy and respect at all times during the interview. The researcher assured all respondents that their right to privacy and to remain anonymous would be guaranteed and maintained. The researcher did not apply any form of coercion or manipulation of the respondents during the interviews. Their right to confidentiality was maintained as only the independent research consultant and researcher were privy to the transcribed interviews and coded references were used when referring to verbatim quotes to substantiate the researcher’s findings. These ethical considerations were maintained throughout the duration of the interviews.
4.3.4 Data collection

4.3.4.1 Introduction

Shulman (1988) argues that it is the method applied to research that distinguishes it from mere observation and speculation. When the term research is applied, it refers to a "family of methods which share the characteristics of a disciplined inquiry" (Shulman 1988:3).

Two approaches dominate the method of data collection, namely the traditional (experimental, empiricist, positivist, quantitative) and the naturalistic (constrictive, interpretative, post-positive, phenomenological, qualitative) paradigms.

Lincoln and Guba (1988) state that an ongoing battle is being fought as to which approach is the better. Yin (1993:57) argues this point as follows:

The dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative research has become a caricature in the social sciences. Qualitative research is characterised as being "soft" social science, interested in "mushy" processes, and dealing with inadequate evidence. Quantitative research is considered hard-nosed, data-driven, outcome-orientated and truly scientific.

Yin's argument is further substantiated by Shulman (1988:5), who claims:

It is important to recognize that differences in method are not merely alternative ways of reaching the same end or answering the same questions. What distinguishes methods from one
another, usually by virtue of their contrasting
disciplinary roots, is not only the procedure
they employ, but the very types of questions
they tend to raise.

As Krefting (1990:214) states, "The worth of any research endeavour, regardless of the approach taken, is evaluated by peers, grant reviews and readers." Each technique has its value. Different research questions and objectives may make the one method more suitable for that specific research than the other. As Shulman (1988) notes, one of the most difficult responsibilities of a researcher is to determine which method of data collection is the most suitable for the research.

4.3.4.2 Phenomenological approach

As Patton 1990 (in Marshall & Rossman 1995:82) contends, "Phenomenology is the study of experiences and the ways in which we put them together to develop a world view." In a phenomenological study, human experiences and perceptions are analysed through the detailed descriptions provided by the respondents involved in the study (Creswell 1994:12). In other words, the Lebenswelt or life-world of the respondent as they perceive and experience it is the object of inquiry (Kvale 1983:184).

The aim of the researcher in phenomenological interviewing is to provide a context in which the respondent can speak freely in his/her own manner about that which has brought the respondent and researcher together (Schurink 1988:120). The researcher should try to establish a warm rapport with the interviewed as this positive attitude will allow the respondents to speak freely. Sensitive issues can also be approached and more accurate information will be given by the respondents - that is, they will not try to say what they think you want to hear. This rapport invites them to communicate about their own feelings, attitudes and thoughts, which in turn encourages them to speak freely.
about the topic at hand.

When a phenomenological approach is applied to research, the researcher focuses on the aspect of describing and depicting the very essence of the respondent's experience, as in this case, his/her perceptions. This allows the respondents the freedom to express their subjective perceptions. The researcher approaches the phenomenon to be studied with no preconceived ideas, as this allows the phenomena being investigated to be perceived by the participants as it is. All data obtained by the researcher during the interviews is accepted as is. All nuances, slang, pauses, hesitations and subjective meanings are included in the transcribed data.

In this approach, the researcher used interviewing as a source for obtaining the necessary data. Analysis of the taped interviews is only executed once all the data has been gathered and analysed.

4.3.4.3 Interviews

In this field of research, the data collection procedure applied was that of phenomenological interviewing, as this type of procedure is frequently used in exploratory and descriptive inquiries.

There is a variety of forms of interviewing and a "multiple of uses" (Fontana & Frey 1994:361). The most common form of interview is the individual face-to-face verbal interview or, and in the words of Wimmer and Dominick (1991:127), the personal interview. Fontana and Frey (1994) further contend that this type of interview does not necessarily only have to be applied in one-to-one situations, but can be used in face-to-face group interviewing as well.

Fourteen interviews were conducted. Participants who participated in this investigation represented both sexes, and ages ranged approximately from
nineteen to twenty-four years of age. The only language groups that were approached were those people who could speak either English and/or Afrikaans. (The reason for this language selection was due to the fact the researcher is unable to communicate in any other language.) The composition of the languages was 30% English and 70% Afrikaans. A variety of cultural backgrounds were included as well as various ethnic groups. In order to relay an accurate description of their perceptions, all quoting is done verbatim and in the interviewed language. Of the fourteen interviews that were conducted all fourteen featured in the analysing as they were suitable for this purpose.

The duration of the interview varied. It ranged from thirty minutes to three-and-a-half hours. All interviews were taped once the permission of the respondents had been obtained. Patton (1980 in Schurink 1988:122) points out the importance of interviews being taped as this allows for the capturing of the actual spoken words of the participants to be used in the investigation, as "there [is] no [other] substitute for the raw data of actual quotations spoken by the interviewees" other than the taped interview. Later, the taped interviews were transcribed verbatim and the analysis done so as to determine the various themes, categories and sub-categories (cf. chapter 5).

The interviews were conducted in 1995 at times that the respondents could accommodate the request. The interviews were held at various times of the day and week.

Interviews may be structured, unstructured or semi-structured. In the structured interview, the researcher asks pre-established questions which allow a limited set of responses. The semi-structured interview allows greater scope in interviewing, as the researcher enters the interviewing situation with no pre-established set of questions other than the opening question, for example, "How do you perceive leadership?" From there, the researcher will pick up cues and raise more questions and issues as the interview progresses. The unstructured interview allows the respondent to answer the questions posed by
the researcher as they wish. This kind of interview allows the respondent's personal feelings to influence his/her answer (Fontana & Frey 1994:365).

When interviewing, the researcher should not be subjective or biased, but should rather endeavour to be supportive, understanding and non-argumentative.

4.3.4.4 Context

The context, or setting, in qualitative research is very important (Kincheloe 1991:141 in Monga 1996) because the physical, historical, socio-economical environment one finds oneself in influences one's outlook on life. Thus, the understanding of contexts is usually critical (Miles & Huberman 1994:102) because a person's behaviour has to be understood in a specific context.

Lutynska (1970 in Mouton & Marais 1990:90) distinguishes between four categories in specific research setting: (1) the private residence of the respondent; (2) the respondent's place of employment; (3) a cafe, restaurant, or similar public area, and (4) a park, street, or garden. The reason that the context plays such an integral part in qualitative research is that "this issue is associated with the perceived neutrality of each setting" (Mouton & Marais 1990:90). In the first two mentioned settings, the participant is familiar with the context, but not the research. Settings (3) and (4) are neutral settings. The first two settings can cause bias on the part of the researcher. The respondent is also prone to influencing the content.

Because of this influence exerted by the context, the qualitative researcher prefers his/her research to take place in naturalistic surroundings. Research should take place in the natural milieu in which the respondents find themselves and in which they feel comfortable. Interviews were conducted in a coffee shop in Melville, the cafeteria on the university campus, in the gardens, the day houses and in the residences at RAU. All participants were encouraged to feel
free to express their opinions, experiences and ideas. Assurance was always given with regard to confidentiality and anonymity (cf 4.3.3).

4.3.4.5 Pilot study

A pilot study is, in fact, a pre-study or examination of the professed research method. In other words, it is a miniature of the global study. The objective of the pilot study is to provide the researcher with a practice session with regard to data collection. The pilot study ascertains whether the researcher will encounter any difficulty with the data collection method, that is, the interview method, and it offers the interviewer the opportunity to prepare and practise the skills needed when conducting interviews (Patton 1985 in Manga 1996:70).

The pilot study for this investigation was conducted early in 1995 at the Rand Afrikaans University on Monday, March 20th, at 2 p.m. and lasted approximately three quarters of an hour. No problems were encountered with the conducting of the pilot study (cf. Appendix D) and the pilot study was therefore included in this analysis.

4.3.4.6 Sampling

Miles and Huberman (1994:27) state that "sampling is crucial for later analysis because no matter how much the researcher desires to include everyone who fulfils the criteria it is impossible". One cannot study everyone. Therefore, the researcher selects a limited number of participants who fulfil the criteria to participate in the research.

In qualitative sampling, researchers usually work with small samples of people appropriate to the context to be studied. Large samples are not necessary as the researcher does not seek statistical significance or confirmation.
Furthermore, sampling in qualitative research is purposive rather than random (Kuzell 1992; Mase 1989 in Miles & Huberman 1994:27). Purposive sampling means the researcher makes a deliberate attempt to sample specific groups or individuals (Anderson & Burns 1989 in Manga 1996:69). The selection for this specific inquiry is intellectually gifted students who are and/or were leaders.

There are several strategies for purposefully selecting cases as identified by Kuzell (1992), Patton (1990) and Goetz and Lecompte (1984 in Marshall & Rossman 1995). The participants who made up the sample in this inquiry were selected according to reputational case selection (Goetz & Lecompte 1984). This means that the sample included in this study was selected on the recommendation of experts (Student Service Bureau at the Rand Afrikaans University).

Sampling in qualitative data does not only involve decisions about who to include, observe or interview; it entails much more. It involves the settings or contexts, events, participants and social processes. (Some of these determinants will be discussed later on in the chapter.) These determinants provide parameters for the sampling.

In this investigation, the participants were selected from the Rand Afrikaans University. The selection criteria were: they had to be intellectually gifted and occupy (or have occupied) positions of leadership, whether this be previously at school, at present in the university culture, or in society.

For the selection of the sample, the researcher approached the Student Service Bureau of the Rand Afrikaans University, who fulfilled the criteria. The selection procedure relied heavily on the outcome of the battery testing that all incoming RAU students are subjected to.

The battery of testing was conducted over a two-day period and the results filed for future use. The students were subject to a General Scholastic Ability
Test (GSAT), which determines the IQ score of an individual. The second test they were subject to was the Senior Aptitude Test (SAT). The Personality Test is not a test as such, but rather a questionnaire that the students fill in concerning how they perceive their personality. Two questionnaires are done, the Jung Personality Questionnaire (JPQ) and the Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire as identified by Cattel (16PF). To assess the students' interest, they filled in the Nineteen Field Interest Inventory. All students were subject to the APIL test in 1995. However, as Van Tonder (1996) claims, not all students will be subject to this specific test, as it is too time-consuming as all marking is done by hand. This test is available now only upon request at the Student Service Bureau. The Learning and Study Styles Inventory (LASSI) was also completed. The Biographical Questionnaire contains approximately sixty questions. These questions relate to how the individual relates to his/her parents, and the environment. Die Persoonlike Huislike Sosiale en Formele Vraelys (PHSF) is concerned with the student's adaptation. The Survey of Study Habits & Attitudes (SSHA) tries to determine how the student studies and his/her attitude towards studying. Van Tonder (1996) says that the LASSI and SSHA tests were run concurrently, but as of 1996, the LASSI has replaced the SSHA test completely. To accommodate English-speaking students and others, a Life Skills Questionnaire is also applicable in the battery of testing.

From the results of these tests, questionnaires and inventories, the participants were selected. For the selection, the researcher had to rely on the outcome of the GSAT as the test determined the IQ score. Students with a score of 130+ were selected. This selection was further refined once the residence wardens (koshuisvaders) were asked to identify those individuals who are/were leaders.

4.3.4.7 Field notes

When conducting interviews on a one-to-one basis, the researcher has the opportunity to observe the respondents and note down factors such as body language, eye contact and mannerisms.
The basic function of field note taking is:

(a) It provides the researcher with first-hand information which was noted down while the interview was in progress.

(b) It proves to be helpful in remembering details and aspects of the interview that cannot be recorded.

(c) Field notes are the researcher's personal notes. Here the researcher writes down his/her own reactions, experiences, and reflections concerning the interviewee.

Although the researcher formed an integral part of the data collection method, many of the participants felt uncomfortable about field notes being taken while the interview was in progress; others were not perturbed. At times, some of the participants requested that the recorder be switched off when certain issues were being discussed that they felt should not be incorporated into the study.

Despite the lack of extensive field note taking, the study was not affected at all, as the interviews were well conducted and contained sufficient data to substantiate the question directing this research.

4.3.5 Data analysis

The analysis of the obtained data only took place once the audio-recorded interviews had been transcribed verbatim. All transcriptions were used verbatim, so that none of the meaning and nuances were lost. The verbatim reproductions include all forms of repetition (words, ideas, phrases), hesitations, stuttering, long pauses and slang.
4.3.5.1 Analysis procedure

The analysis procedure began when the independent research consultant and the interviewer read the transcribed interviews with the idea of generating themes, categories and sub-categories (cf Protocol).

Kerlinger’s (1986) method was adopted to analyse the transcribed interviews. This approach was adopted in order to look for “commonalities in themes” (Tesch 1990:138) which were identified by the independent research consultant and the interviewer. The themes were then grouped together which, in turn, formed categories.

The themes that were identified in this investigation did not fit neatly into "little boxes". Rather, these themes overlap into other categories and sub-categories. Thus, when reading the themes, categories and sub-categories, a holistic or Gestalt approach should be adopted. The categorisation was done merely for the purpose of analysis.

The researcher did not begin the research with any preconceived ideas about themes and the subsequent categories. Instead, through the analysis of the available data, the independent research consultant and the researcher looked for common themes and began to group them together. As Tesch (1990:139) contends, "The researcher sets out to discern a mental structure that s/he assumes exists and describes it as a system of categories, sub-categories, and perhaps sub-sub-categories."

Kerlinger’s method of analysis.

Kerlinger applies four basic steps in his method of analysis:

(a) The content that is to be defined is all the verbal responses of the respondents to the question posed by the researcher.
(b) The content of the transcribed interviews is then analysed into themes, categories and sub-categories.

(c) Themes, categories and sub-categories are assigned accordingly.

(d) Numbers are assigned to themes identified.

4.4 THE PROTOCOL

A protocol was designed (cf. Appendix C) and forwarded to the independent research consultant with a request to analyse the transcribed data verbatim.

The independent research consultant has expert knowledge and expertise concerning the analysis of transcribed interviews.

A meeting was held at a later stage between the independent research consultant and the researcher, with the idea of comparing the analysed transcriptions and discussing the degree of consensus concerning themes, categories and sub-categories.

The reason that an independent research consultant was approached was to enhance the trustworthiness of the study. Furthermore, this approach was to validate the objectivity of the researcher because objectivity forms the basis of all research conducted (Kirk & Miller 1986 in Raikane 1996).

No form of subjectivity is allowed to influence the researcher’s findings. Objectivity allows scientific data to deal with facts rather than the interpretation of facts, as the interpretation of factual evidence is bound to be influenced by subjectivity.
4.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the rationale was provided for the use of the qualitative method. The research process was explained in detail, as well as the data-collection method and the trustworthiness of the study. Chapter five will discuss the analysis and interpretation of the recorded findings.
CHAPTER FIVE

5. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Kitano and Kirby (1986:256) express the following view: "Literature describing methods for identifying leadership potential and for leadership training appears in relative abundance." However, there is virtually no literature pertaining to the question of how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership. To address this deficiency in the literature a series of interviews was conducted. (See Appendix D for the pilot study and Appendix E for the full transcript of an interview.) These interviews, together with the respective bodies of literature on giftedness and leadership, were used as a basis for an analysis of how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership.

In this chapter an analysis of the field data will be presented. The independent research consultant and researcher worked independently of each other in determining the themes, categories and sub-categories. Thereafter a consultation was held in which the two researchers compared their themes. The themes and categories identified in both cases proved to be very similar.

Seven noteworthy themes emerged from the analyses of the interviews. Each theme will be discussed individually and categories and certain sub-categories may be included in this discussion. These will be illustrated by means of examples quoted directly from the transcripts of the interviews.

The seven main themes as identified by the independent research consultant and researcher are:
(a) relationships  
(b) power  
(c) position  
(d) hereditary  
(e) knowledge  
(f) moral rules for personal conduct  
(g) determinants of leadership

Table 5.1  Summary of themes, categories and sub-categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME 1</th>
<th>RELATIONSHIPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CATEGORY 1</td>
<td>SUB-CATEGORY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>Situational leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATEGORY 2</td>
<td>SUB-CATEGORIES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Communication | (1) Listening  
| | (2) Openness and open-mindedness  
| | (3) Insight and understanding |
| CATEGORY 3 | SUB-CATEGORIES |
| Interaction | (1) Involvement  
| | (2) Availability  
| | (3) Accommodation |
### THEME 2

**POWER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authority</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 2</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Democratic versus autocratic | (1) Consultation  
| | (2) Flexibility  
| | (3) Tolerance  
| | (4) Delegation |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 3</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Decision-making | (1) Judgement  
| | (2) Congruence |

### THEME 3

**POSITION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Status     | (1) Visibility  
| | (2) Exposure  
| | (3) Setting an example  
| | (4) Attitude |

### THEME 4

**HEREDITARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Innate     | (1) Acquired  
| | (2) God-given |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 2</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Discipline | (1) Self-discipline  
| | (2) Even-temperedness  
| | (3) Behaviour |
### Theme 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Category 1</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sub-categories</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Knowledge      | (1) Knowledge of human nature  
(2) Educated |

### Theme 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Category 1</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sub-categories</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Values         | (1) Integrity  
(2) Honesty  
(3) Trust and trustworthiness |

### Theme 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Category 1</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sub-categories</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Goal-directedness | (1) Initiator  
(2) Director and leader  
(3) Active  
(4) Problem-solver  
(5) Planning  
(6) Challenge |

### 5.2 Analysis of Data

The analysis of data obtained is based on the transcriptions of the phenomenological interviews held with the intellectually gifted students (sample) at RAU. All interviews were tape-recorded once permission was granted by the interviewee. The raw data of the interviews has been transcribed verbatim. No editing was done to the transcriptions.
All relevant themes, categories and sub-categories are clarified according to dictionary definitions and then discussed. All quotations will be verbatim; there will be no correction to style, pronunciation or grammar. The use of verbatim transcriptions enhances the understanding of what actually transpired between researcher and respondent. The verbatim transcriptions contribute to the emic insight into the perceptions of the intellectually gifted person.

5.3 THEME 1 - RELATIONSHIPS

Table 5.2 - Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>Situational leadership</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 2</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>(1) Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Openness and openmindedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Insight and understanding</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 3</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>(1) Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Availability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Accommodation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3.1 Interpersonal relationships

The theme that dominated the interviews was that of interpersonal relationships. The term "interpersonal" refers to a process whereby one or more people are involved in interaction, for example, within a group situation (Plug et al. 1991). It involves a personal relationship and infers an association between two or more people. In this instance, the relationship that exists is between the leader and the follower, and between follower and follower.

What emerged from the interviews was the respondents' sense that the leader's knowing the group members implies that he/she knows them on two distinct levels: level one implies knowing their abilities, capabilities and how they can contribute towards the efficient functioning of the group; level two is perhaps more important and implies knowing each group member individually - how he/she thinks, acts, responds and functions. In other words, the leader needs to know them on a more personal level. This scenario can only be achieved if the leader does not employ a top-down form of relationship. A healthy balance can be maintained by the leader if he or she is not too close and not too distant (Adair 1983:47). This is made clear in the following quotes:
"A leader means knowing people. It means having a support base. Having those people looking up to you and leading those people. Knowing those people intimately. Knowing how they think, what's going to motivate them."

"Dis vir my belangrik. Jy kry baie keer mense wat op sekere vlakke beweeg en dis net daai vlakke wat hulle ken en die ander vlakke word te laag of te hoog beskou. Maar ek dink elkeen van ons maak moeite daarvan om belang te stel in elke huislid, om almal te ken."

To know someone can only occur through communication. Communication is a two-way system:

"Sy moet kan kommunikeer. Sy moet baie goeie kommunikasie hê. Sy moet daar wees vir mense."

Leadership can only be effective if the leader is actively involved with group members and does not employ a top-down form of leadership. This involvement enhances interpersonal relationships:

"Dis nie ouens wat hulle self in 'n groep isoleer nie."

".. gets along very well with most people."

".. die ouens kom goed met mense oor die weg."
Clearly, the leader cannot function effectively if he/she remains shut away in his/her ivory tower. Leaders should attempt to break down status barriers and associate with all team members on every level. In a good interpersonal relationship, each member knows the other well irrespective of the status each person holds within the group. This state of affairs is attainable through open communication channels between all members. This in turn prevents isolation of any group member thereby allowing what Corey and Corey (1987:184) call "unifying bonds" to develop among the group members.

Within this interpersonal relationship, one gets relationships of authority, knowing, understanding, meaning, mutual interaction and trust. (These relationships will be discussed at a later stage.) As Van Rensburg and Landman (1988:467) contend, "The prefix re denotes mutuality and presupposes involvement of human beings with one another." There must be a continuous interaction and involvement among all group members irrespective of the position held.

In the literature study, it was found that interpersonal relationships are of great importance, because as Egan (1994:117) contends, in interpersonal relationships, the leader makes "an effort to get in touch with another's frame of reference ...". This positive approach prevents social isolation and alienation within a group.
The most important sub-category to be distinguished within category 1 is that of situational leadership. (Each sub-category will be discussed separately.)

It became very apparent during the analysis of the transcribed interviews that leadership is determined by the situation (cf. chapter two). Within each situation there is an interaction that occurs between the situation, individual and the specific task (Lamprecht & Botha 1990:v; LaPiere 1938; Gibb 1947).

"Maar ook mense wat as ... as iemand anners die leiding vat, moet hulle ook kan terug staan."

"Goed ... vir my heel belangrikste eintlik van 'n leier dink ek is iemand wat leiding neem, maar vir my is dit ook belangrik dat die persoon moet ook kan volg in seker situasies".

*Leierskap is baie wyd want dis ek ... glo ... leierskap verskil van vlak ... van gebied ... Jy kan noodwendig 'n ... 'n leier wees in 'n ... in 'n sportspan, in 'n rugbyspan, maar jy kan 'n patetiese leier wees wat betref sê nou maar ... 'n werksopdrag of 'n groepsopdrag.*
"Situational leader. In other words, if a situation ... he leads according to the situation ... So it goes about the situation ... I'd say I'd use a situational leadership style."

If one takes this school of thinking to the extreme, it proclaims "that there is no such thing as a born leader" (Adair 1983:5); rather, the situation acts as the determiner of leadership. The situation determines who the leader is and what style of leadership is necessary (cf. Theme 2 - Category 2).

Theorists such as Lamprecht and Botha (1990), Bass (1981) and Adair (1983) see the situation acting as determiner of leadership with an interaction occurring between leader, follower and task (Leunes & Natia 1989:158).

5.3.2 Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 2</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>(1) Listening</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2) Openness and open-mindedness</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(3) Insight and understanding</td>
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Communication is the second noteworthy category to emerge in Theme 1.

Communication is literally the sharing of information whether by speaking, writing or in any other form. The most important form of communication that takes place within a group is personal communication.
Personal communication occurs when one person makes his/her wishes, thoughts, or ideas known to another person. Without personal communication, the leader would not be aware of, for example, how the group feels. Words, gestures, and meanings differ from culture to culture. Therefore the speaker must also be aware of cultural differences when addressing the hearer (Pease & Garner 1993:138), as very few groups are homogeneous today:

"So dis vir my ... dis vir my die belangrikste om met ouens te praat en ek laat hulle ook toe om baie te praat want een van die ouens is veral, jissie hy kan baie praat. Maar ek los hom."

"... die ouens praat maklik. Dis vir my belangrik."

"... dan's dit baie belangrik dat 'n leier moet kan kommunikeer."

"I can talk to people."

Open communication allows both parties the freedom to speak. Open communication allows each member to freely express his/her views, ideas, and feelings.
The most important sub-category to emerge from the interviews was that of listening. Listening is an essential characteristic of any leader. Listening is perceived as the art of paying close attention to what is being said by another and making a conscious effort to understand what the speaker has said. Listening is thus actively listening and trying to comprehend what is being conveyed. The following comments indicate the importance of this sub-category.

"sy moet kan luister na mense."

"... ek was bereid om in die aande na ure na hulle probleme te luister."

"Not, I have to listen, because I want to listen."

"Ek sal liewers eers luister na wat almal gesê het en dan laat ons 'n keuse daaroor maak."
What has clearly emerged from the above quotations is that listening implies a purposeful conversation between two or more individuals - that is, the speaker and the hearer. Furthermore, the leader expresses his/her desire to want to listen to his/her followers. The leader listens attentively and with sincerity. As Ian McCrae, Eskom Chief Executive (in Charlton 1993:52) states, "listening implies that you as leader stay in touch with the people you lead". This approach comes across strongly in the verbatim transcripts.

The art of listening was rated high in the literature research findings (Egan 1994; Nelson-Jones 1992; Hunter 1980). Hunt (1980 in Berry and Houston 1993:535) defines listening as "the process of receiving communication stimulus through any sensory channel (not just through the ears)". Listening implies understanding the spoken and written forms of communication (Nelson-Jones 1992:13). Effective listening helps to establish a good rapport between members. By listening accurately the leader is able to create an influence base thereby enhancing his/her position as an influencer (Nelson-Jones 1992:15). If the leader listens well, he/she will be able to gather sufficient information without asking too many questions.
5.3.2.2 Openness and open-mindedness

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) openness and open-mindedness</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(3) Insight and understanding</td>
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</table>

It was felt that for a group to function effectively, leaders "must be open with themselves, open to others in groups, open to new experiences and open to lifestyles and values that differ from their own" (Corey & Corey, 1987:17).

Openness and open-mindedness are very relevant to the intellectually gifted leader, as is evident from the following remarks:

"Another very important part I think for me as a leader is that I ... I tend to be very open-minded. I think sometimes maybe a little too open-minded. Okay, so even though I have my fixed points, or my fixed feelings on certain situations."

"... maar vir my is openheid of eerlikheid baie belangrik."

"Moenie agteraf praat nie wat ek sê altyd hoe hanteer jy 'n probleem as jy weet daarvan?."
Open-mindedness is also an essential component to the functioning of the well-being of the group and individual member. By being open-minded, the leader acknowledges the fact that he/she is aware of cross-cultural differences and different value systems, and is open to new ideas and suggestions. Openness displays acceptance, invites discussion, interaction, and involvement. By being open-minded and displaying openness, the leader reveals his/her desire not to dominate, but to encourage participation, responsibility and group cohesion.

Corey and Corey (1987:17) further argue that by displaying openness and open-mindedness, a leader or a group member does not have to reveal every aspect of their personal lives, or display breaches of confidentiality. The leader or follower's right to privacy and confidentiality should be respected and maintained at all times.

Open-mindedness allows leadership to function far more effectively as it takes into account all types of differences, whether cultural, social or political. An open mind is, in fact, the ability to weigh new and old ideas and to be able to judge them fairly and critically on their merits. In other words, the leader is able to push aside his/her fixed feelings and ideas.

Jablin (1985 in Berry & Houston 1993:533) contends that "a relationship in which open communication is possible is one in which each person perceives the other to be a good listener who will not respond negatively."
5.3.2.3 Insight and understanding

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>(1) Listen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Openness and open-mindedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) insight and understanding</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Psychological insight as defined by the *Collins English Dictionary* (1994:800) is:

(a) "the capacity for understanding one's own or another's mental processes"

(b) "the immediate understanding of the significance of an event or action".

In other words, insight and understanding pertain to the ability to comprehend another's point.

For effective leadership to occur, the leader must have the ability or the insight to understand how his/her followers function on a cognitive and emotional level. The importance of insight is expressed as follows:

"... but I like to gain as much insight into a certain project that I'm gonna pack on as I can ..."
"... I gave my heart to everything, and I think, like I said, I gave people new insight into the same problems that they would have only done one way ..."

As can be seen from these extracts from the verbatim transcripts, the interviewees emphasised the importance of this sub-category. It was felt that it is essential to have insight into any project. By gaining insight, one fully comprehends. Through insight and understanding, the leader is able to judge and make decisions intelligently. These two determinants encourage new ways of solving problems. This approach, furthermore, encourages creative or productive thinking.

Not much information was found relating to insight in the literature (cf Bibliography). The literature source that mentioned this skill was Egan (1994:160).

5.3.3 Interaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 3</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>(1) Involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Availability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Accommodation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third category to be identified in Theme 1 is interaction.
Webster’s Third New International Dictionary (1961:1176) defines interaction as the "mutual or reciprocal action or influence between mental events, and also action between physical events". "Interactional" denotes the positive interaction between individuals.

The importance of the category of interaction is denoted by the following:

"... want iemand het gesê dat 'n mens 'n mens is deur ander mense."

"Jy leer baie van jouself. Dis 'n baie groot vormingsproses."

Interaction allows for reciprocal influencing to take place. Thus interaction allows one to learn about one's strengths and weaknesses and at the same time one is being moulded through interaction.

The concept "interaction" is discussed as peer interaction in the literature (Whitmore 1980).

5.3.3.1 Involvement

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 3</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>(1) Involvement</td>
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<td>(2) Available</td>
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<td>(3) Accommodation</td>
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The term "involvement" is defined as "to draw in as a participant" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:1191). Involvement implies being cognitively, emotively, physically and personally involved:

"Met ander woorde, ... hy moet nie heeltemaal op 'n troontjie wees bo nie, maar hy moet darem ... hy moet darem tussen die mense ook wees."

"Om vinnig in te skakel, om vinnig deel te raak van die storie."

"dis wat die ouens sê mense verhoudinge is goed. Hulle kry maklik 'n aansluiting. Dis nie ouens wat hulle self in 'n groep isoleer nie. Dis vir my baie belangrik. Jy kry baie keer mense wat op sekere vlakke beweeg en dis net daai vlakke wat hom ken en die anner vlakke word of te laag of te hoog beskou."

"Sy moet daar wees vir mense. As .... as hulle jou nodig het dan moet hulle weet jy is daar."

The intellectually gifted leader thusdoes not operate from the periphery, but is actively involved in the group.

Involvement also implies total commitment on the part of the leader:
"... myself nie totaal van die situasie te onttrek nie, maar nog steeds te kyk wat ek kan bydra..."

"... and they're with you all the way and you ... you do efforts to ... to know them and to get involved personally with them, that's the way to lead on that situation."

"I was very involved and I did everything ... I gave my heart to everything ..."

The researcher was unable to find information in the literature relating to the term "involvement".

5.3.3.2 Availability

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<td>(3) Accommodation</td>
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</table>

Availability is the "quality or state of being available" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:150). A leader must be available at all times. Leaders perceived this characteristic as important. Leaders felt that they should be available for their members whether it was to iron out problems, deal with questions, discuss the course of plan or whatever.
"... en dan tweedens as hy in die moeilikheid is, om te kan help."

"Jy leer baie van jouself. Jy leer hoe om in situasies op te tree en so, en ek dink een groot rede is omdat ek beskikbaar ..."

"... myself beskikbaar stel want ek wil graag ontwikkel in daai opsig of in daai manier en so."

By being available, the leader gains first-hand experience in dealing with all types of issues. Being available means you as leader will go through a continuous process of learning.

Being available does not only mean being available in respect of matters relating to the group, but also being available as a confidant:

"Sy moet daar wees vir mense. As ... as hulle jou nodig het dan moet hulle weet jy is daar. Om hulle te help met 'n probleem wat ook al. Jy moet 'n vertroueling wees."

5.3.3.3 Accommodation

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<td>(3) Accommodation</td>
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The notion of being accommodating pertains to the ability of one to adapt, change and modify one's situation, thoughts and attitudes (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:23). Being accommodating refers to being helpful and obliging.

The leader views on accommodation are elucidated as follows:

"Ek dink leiers moet sekere mense wees wat baie tegemoetkomend wees."

"I'm always willing to accommodate other people's situations. They feel that it's a very good practice to sort of 'hear' other people's situations, maybe you learn from that."

"... that's a participative ... I mean .. they've decided on these goals and together you're gonna achieve it. By accommodating the thoughts, ideas and so forth of others, the leader will develop a good support base from within, or else, he's got no support from his ... from his fellow members in the res., or in the team or whatever, a captain and ... and ... and he's not successful at all."

A leader must not be rigid in his/her approach. By being accommodating the leader expresses the desire to adapt and adjust to new challenges that he/she is continually faced with.
"... must be able to change with the situations and then take people with him."

Furthermore, by being accommodating the leader expresses the desire to lead in a democratic manner.

"... and say this is how you do it, just keep quiet, listen to my instructions or else, and ... and that's a very autocratic style of leader ... But then you're not really a leader as such."

By being accommodating the leader is able to learn and grow through experience, or else he might be "stagnant the whole time and then people don't follow him".

The researcher found literature on the concept of 'accommodation' in Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:8). These theorists perceive accommodation to be a way in which an individual modifies, changes and adapts his/her actions, ideas, thoughts and approaches in order to cope with the environment in which he/she finds himself/herself.

5.4 THEME 2 - POWER

In this theme three categories have been distinguished, namely authority, democratic versus autocratic styles of leadership and decision-making.
An overview of the categories and sub-categories is presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 - Power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authority</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category 2</td>
<td>SUB-CATEGORIES</td>
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<tr>
<td>Democratic versus autocratic</td>
<td>(1) Consultion</td>
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<td>(2) Flexibility</td>
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<tr>
<td>CATEGORY 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>(1) Judgement</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2) Congruence</td>
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</table>

5.4.1 Authority

Authority was the theme that featured second highest on the theme identification list. Eight out of the fourteen interviewees felt varying degrees of authority were necessary in any group situation.

The participants' understanding of authority ranged from a democratic conception to an autocratic one:
"... maar ook as, as ons 'n keuse maak oor iets en ek voel glad nie verkeerd nie gaan ek nie een oomblik huiver om my veto reg te gebruik as ek dit het nie."

"... 'n leier moet weet wanneer om gesag af te dwing."

"... ek het die vermoë om mense te kan beheer ..."

"You had to whack them on the ass and say this is how you do it ...".

"Partykeer moet jy voet neersit en 'n kwaaie stand inneem en sê ... dis wat reg is en dis hoe ons dit doen."

The desire also came through strongly for democratic authority. The circumstances and situation determined the type of authority to be applied:

"... if you ... if you can get people to work with you because they want to rather than because they have to..."

In the literature Hamm (1989:77) distinguishes between two types of authority - being in authority and being an authority. Being in authority refers to someone who is in a position of authority that carries certain rights and responsibilities. Being an authority implies knowing a great deal about a subject (cf situational leadership).
Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:26) describe the concept of authority as having three distinct categories - autocratic (authoritarian), democratic (authoritative) and permissive (laissez-faire). These types of authority will be discussed in 5.4.2.

5.4.1.1 Responsibility

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<tbody>
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Authority, freedom and responsibility are concepts that cannot be divorced from each other: "Freedom supplements authority, as a person who is free, subjects himself to authority, or is free to reject authority. Freedom thus implies responsibility" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:26). *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (1961:1935) describes responsibility as: "the quality or state of being responsible; a moral, legal or mental accountability."

It is evident from the following extracts that the role of responsibility lies squarely on the leader's shoulders:

"... dit gee net meer verantwoordelijkheid."

"... as jy nie honderd persent seker is iemand gaan iets goed doen nie, dan doen jy dit self."
Responsibility implies being answerable for one's actions and deeds, accountable for oneself and for others, and being placed in charge. Leaders should encourage each individual to accept responsibility within the group: Nelson-Jones (1992:99) calls this personal responsibility.

Assuming responsibility implies acceptance of authority, of being an authority of norms and values and of bearing the consequences of one's own actions.

5.4.2 Democratic versus autocratic

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It is evident from the following extracts that the situation would determine the style of leadership:

"Ek sou sê 'n leier moenie dominerend wees nie ....."
"... I'm not the type of leader who says okay, I'm not the Hitler type of leader that ... I don't think anyone who leads in that style is going to get anywhere."

"Mens moet seffs partykeer die ... die opvolgers, kan 'n mens maar sê, 'overrule' terwille van jou eie beginsels en dit wat jy glo is reg."

"partykeer moet jy jou voet neersit en 'n kwaal stand inneem en sê .. dis wat reg is en dis hoe ons dit doen."

Lamprecht and Botha (1990) and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:26) identify three types of leadership styles:

(a) Authoritative/democratic

This is an ideal form of authority to apply. Open discussion ensues between the group members and the leader; all matters, policies and so forth are determined by the group as a whole. They must trust one another, and the leader participates actively in all group work and activities as well.

Authority in the educational and psychological fields implies that the person in authority has more knowledge and experience concerning certain issues than the followers.
(b) Autocratic

The leader is always in control, has the power to enforce obedience, is alone the decision-maker, decides on all activities and procedures, and is the sole spokesperson; the followers are not allowed to express opinions or take the initiative. The dictatorial approach is a top-down type of authority.

(c) Authoritarian

Under this style of leadership discussions take place between the leader and the subordinates, but the ultimate decision-making power rests with the leader. This form of leadership is aptly summed up in the words of Margaret Thatcher (1987): "I don't mind how much my ministers talk - as long as they do what I say."

It is clear from the above that some leaders are not afraid to adopt an authoritarian style.

Having studied the responses of the participants thoroughly, the conclusion arrived at was that the situation determined the type of authority to be used by the leader. What also came through strongly from the respondents was the fact that no leader can always be either autocratic or democratic. Authority is variable; it depends upon the situation.
As Carron (1980:115) quoted in Leunes and Natia 1989:158) contends, "any individual can be an effective leader provided his/her leadership style coincides with a situation of appropriate favourableness." In other words, the situation should largely determine the type of leadership being adopted by the leader.

5.4.2.1 Consultation

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When a leader adopts a consultative mode, it is intended to solicit advice. In other words, a leader aids the group member by providing professional or expert advice:

"Dis wat ek altyd sê, dit gaan oor ... as iemand na my toe kom en dit .. veral in leierskap kom jy dit baie agter, of in die posisie waarin jy is dan kom mense na jou toe met 'n voorstel of met 'n klag en dan ... wat gewoonlik goed is, is net om te sit en dink. Net te luister wat die ou sê."

In some situations, the roles are reversed (cf. situational leadership). The leader seeks advice. In some situations the leader must consult a fellow member, because "I think you just have to realise that in some situations, some people know more about something than you do".  

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5.4.2.2 Flexibility

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Flexibility is defined as being "willing or ready to yield to the influence of others; not invincibly rigid or obstinate" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:869). Flexibility was seen as important because it allows for the accommodation of another's viewpoint, and relative freedom to do so:

"... ons het eintlik 'n breë veld gehad waarin ons kan beweeg, aangesien daar nie baie rigiede reëls en goed was nie. So ons kan redelik besluit het ... ons het 'n redelike mate van besluite gehad wat ons kan neem ...."

In the literature, flexibility is seen as the ability to change or adapt, "adjust from a set routine, to situations and people" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:93). An individual is flexible when he/she takes into account the individuality of each group member. The leader is flexible if he/she is able to depart from the usual and employ some other means to achieve an objective. Flexibility is a positive attribute in any leader.
5.4.2.3 Tolerance

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To be tolerant implies that a leader shows understanding for another person's ideas, thoughts, approaches and paradigms when they differ from and/or are in direct conflict with his/hers. In other words, to be tolerant implies adopting a broadminded/accommodating attitude towards beliefs and practices differing from one's own.

However, a leader will be tolerant only up to a certain point and then they will react:

"... partykeer moet jy jou voet neersit en 'n kwai stand inneem en sê ... dis wat reg is en dis hoe ons dit doen."

"... ek sal nie huiwer of my veto reg te gebruik nie."
5.4.2.4 Delegation

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The verb "delegate" means to entrust another person (group member) to do a certain task or reach an objective within the required time:

"Hy moet weet wanneer om te luister en wanneer om te dilligeer ..."

The leader must know to whom to delegate certain tasks. Delegation empowers the delegated and offers him/her the opportunity to prove whether he/she has the necessary skills and/or abilities to do what is required of him/her. Furthermore, it is necessary for a leader to delegate as it is impossible for him/her to do everything.

5.4.3 Decision-making

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<th>CATEGORY 3</th>
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<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
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<td>2) congruence</td>
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It was clear that the leaders experienced decision-making as stressful, because no one is able to please everyone by the decisions made.
"en ... dan aan die een kant maak dit jou soms ongewild, oor die besluit wat
jy neem; as dit almal nie tevrede stel nie, as dit wat mense wil hé jy moet
doen en jy dink dis nie die beste vir jou koshuis of vir hulle nie, jy dalk die
besluit maak dit jou ongewild."

"Ek het een probleem dalk is ... ja 'n ou is te bang om op tone te trap, maar
ek het al baie keer ook vir die ouens gesê ... so onseker soos wat ek is oor wat
ek moet doen né ... of onseker oor hoe ek mense moet hanteer ... is my - kom
ons noem dit 'passie vir wat ek doen, groter. So, hulle hoef nie bang te wees
dat ek my werk sal laat ly wanneer my vrees vir mense soos wat ek na te
kom."

"Dit mag miskien nie altyd reg wees nie, dit mag miskien nie verkeerd wees
nie, maar dis hoekom hulle miskien jou ... jou as 'n leier."

"... jy dalk die besluit maak dit jou ongewild. Ek dink dit plaas jou ook onder
stress, as gevolg van die besluite wat jy moet neem."

The first sub-category to be identified in this category is "judgement".

5.4.3.1 Judgement

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</table>
The dictionary definition of judgement (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:1223) is “a formal utterance or pronouncing of an authoritative opinion after judging ... a mental or intellectual process of forming an opinion or evaluation by discerning and comparing.” Having the capacity of judgement implies being able to assess, settle or terminate a dispute:

“Jy kan altyd luister en wat die ou jou sê soos in hom ons noem dit beoordeling, wat is van toepassing en verbeter dit en dit wat sommer net nonsens is, laat jy verbygaan.”

Egan (1994:230) would call “dit wat sommer net nonsens is, laat jy verbygaan” an example of suspension of judgement. A leader should possess the ability to judge an issue objectively. Personal feelings should not influence a person’s judgement, rather the value of what is being uttered should be judged.

Berry and Houston (1993:257) refer to judgement as the measure applied to performance. These judgements relate to the quality of work produced by an individual. This judgemental method implies that an individual’s performance is compared to that of others within the group situation.

5.4.3.2 Congruence

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Congruence is a term coined by Rogers (1902). According to Rogers (in Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1989:381) "congruence is the ideal in which the individual is open to and conscious of all his experiences and can incorporate them into his self concept". In other words, congruence means being in agreement or harmony with the self and the experience:

"Want, dis vir my baie keer asof 'n ou sodra hy iets bereik dan verander hy heeltemal. Dis nie ... ek sê weer, dis nie hoekom jy daar is nie. Hulle het jou vertrou soos jy was, so bly so."

"As jy 'n leier is, jou belewing van jou leierskap, moet jy nog steeds die persoon bly wat jy is."

5.5 THEME 3 - POSITION

Under theme 3 one category has been ascertained, namely status. An overview is presented in Table 5.4.
### Table 5.4 - Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>(1) Visibility</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Exposure</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(3) Setting an example</td>
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<td>(4) Attitude</td>
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### 5.5.1 Status

Status refers to a position occupied by someone, in this instance, the leader. *Collins English Dictionary* (1994:1510) defines status as "a social or professional position, condition, or standing to which varying degrees of responsibility, privilege, and esteem are attached". A leader occupies a social and professional position when leading a group. Status is accompanied by responsibility at all times:

"Ek dink dit gee mens 'n mate van *prestige*. Jy is nou in *beheer* hoop jy."

"Ek sê weer, ek het nie nodig om *prim* te wees om iets vir die koshuis te kan beteken nie. *Hierdie is basies net 'n titel* of 'n ding wat bygekom het."
"Jy moet al jou groepe mense wat na jou opkyk ..."

"... dit plaas jou net op die voorpunt en die mense sien jou raak."

"I was high profile."

"Mense plaas jou optrede en so in 'n spot ... spotlight."

A follower wants to be able to look up to a person in the leadership position. This attitude of the follower awards status to the role of leadership, because status "is the relative standing of an individual in a group [which in turn is associated with the] dimension of peer acceptance or rejection, approval or disapproval" (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1988:220).

5.5.1 Visibility

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Visibility implies "capable of being seen; perceptible by vision" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:2557).
"Ek dink leierskapsposisie is ... jy's baie blootgestel aan mense se opinies en so aan."

5.5.1.2 Exposure

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Exposure is defined as being open to viewing, to exhibit (*Collins English Dictionary* 1994:547). Exposure implies being made known.

By mere virtue of being placed in the position of leader, the person is open to exposure. Exposure entails opening oneself to both criticism and acceptance.

5.5.1.3 Setting an example

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The word "example" is described as: "a person, action, thing, etc, that is worthy of imitation" (*Collins English Dictionary* 1994:540). A leader leads by setting a worthy example (Adair 1988). The intellectually gifted perceived
setting and leading by example as extremely important.

"I like to lead by example."

"The leader does everything that the group ... is prepared to do everything and more that the group has to do and ... in your ... in your behaviour or demeanour you set the example for what must be done."

"He has to be the person that ... that can lead by example."

Being exemplary is very important because people collect more information through "their eyes than their ears" (Adair 1983:154). What the leader does carries more weight than what he/she actually says. People respect you if you try to set the correct example. The followers will desire to follow the exemplary behaviour of a leader.

5.5.1.4 Attitude

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<td>(2) Exposure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3) Setting an example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4) Attitude</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Attitude is associated with the way a person perceives something and/or the way they behave towards it, be this a person, idea, behaviour or suggestion.
This perception is done in an evaluative way - it will either be accepted or rejected (Egan 1994:72):

"En ek beweeg graag tussen die mense in en vind eers uit van die situasie waarin hulle, hulle bevind en daarna dan sal ek eers optree. Ek ... ek is nie vreeslik impulsief wat sulke dinge betref nie en ek het baie begrip. Ek myself heeltemal ten koste van die mense ek moet lei, ovoor om hulle siening oor te bring."

"Jy moet nog steeds die persoon bly van wie jy is."

The attitude adopted by leaders is that the leader is one of the team members. The status of leadership should not become an issue - one should remain true to one's self. The attitude the intellectually gifted adopted is positive in all respects. A subordinate will look up to a leader and this accords status to the position of leadership. The ideal leader leads by example and adopts a positive attitude towards his/her leadership role.

In the literature consulted by the researcher the term "attitude" referred to "ingrained ways of thinking ..." (Egan 1994:72). These attitudes can be positive or destructive. Berry and Houston (1993:223), on the other hand, contend that attitudes have a profound effect on thoughts, emotions and behaviour. Attitudinal mannerisms can be changed, for example, through group action (McGuire 1985 in Berry & Houston 1993:224), self-management training, and
behaviour modification programmes. Charlton (1993:24) contends that a leader is someone who "maintains an active attitude towards goals ..."

5.6 THEME 4 - HEREDITARY

This theme identification revolves around abilities. Two categories were identified with their respective sub-categories. An overview of the category is presented in table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Hereditary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innate</td>
<td>(1) acquired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) God-given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATEGORY 2</td>
<td>SUB-CATEGORIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>(1) Self-discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Even-temperedness</td>
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<td>(3) Behaviour</td>
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</table>

5.6.1 Innate

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innate</td>
<td>(1) Acquired</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2) God-given</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
"Innate" is defined as "existing in a person or animal from birth; congenital, inborn. Being an essential part of the character of a person or thing. Instinctive; not learned; innate capacities" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:797).

This theme rated very high among the respondents. Seven of the fourteen interviewed stated that this quality was inherent and could not be learnt. They felt that one was either born with this quality or not, and that it comes naturally to one:

"Leierskap is vir my iets wat baie natuurliks kom. Daar ... ek was al op 'n leierskapkurses en so, maar ek dink tog nie 'n leier kan gekweek word nie. Dit is iets wat van nature moet kom."

"... die potensiaal wat jy binne in jou het ..."

"Ek glo tot 'n groot mate leiers word gebore ..."

"Now this leadership is born, he's a born leader."

In the literature perused, it was found that theorists such as Charlton (1993), Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Adair (1988) do not disclaim the hereditary factor, but they contend that there are also certain leadership skills such as cognition (i.e research, exploration, investigation skills, problem-solving, creative thinking, interpersonal communication, self-awareness, cooperation
and decision making). Bennis and Nanus (1985:27) maintain that "Leadership seems to be the marshalling of skills possessed by a majority but used by a minority. But it is something that can be learned by anyone, taught to everyone, denied to no one."

5.6.1.1 Acquired

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<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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<td>(1) Acquired</td>
<td>(2) God-given</td>
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</table>

The verb "acquired" is described as "to get or gain (something such as an object, trait, or ability) esp. more or less permanently" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:13). "Acquired" thus pertains to attaining by one's own effort:

"It is difficult for a person to actually learn it."

"... maar ek glo jy kan omtrent 45% daarvan aanleer ook, as jy bereid is om daarvoor aan ... dit aan te leer."

Certain leadership skills can be learnt (cf. chapters two and three) but leadership training can only enhance the existing quality: it cannot create it if it is not present.
It seems feasible to state that there is far more to leadership than the mere teaching of various skills and talents. Education and training do play a prominent role in leadership training, but they are not the most important functions. They must instead be seen as fulfilling a complementary, and therefore secondary, role.

The researcher's point of view differs from that of writers like Bennis and Nanus and Plowman et al. that leadership skills can merely be taught to someone. Teaching, education and training must be seen as facilitators that play a secondary, albeit important, role, but which cannot replace the inherent abilities of a natural leader. Leadership entails far more than the mere learning of such traits and skills. Charlton (1993) contends that the outcome of leadership education cannot be guaranteed.

Leadership cannot be divorced from education and training but the truism also holds that education and training is not the only key that unlocks potential leadership qualities.

As Adair (1988:189) maintains, "Leadership cannot really be taught, it can only be learnt."
5.6.2 Discipline

The term "discipline" is derived from the Latin words "disco" and "disciplina". These words respectively mean to learn, to instruct, and instruction, knowledge
and learning (Griessel, Louw and Swart 1986; Van Rensburg and Landman 1990). Discipline revolves around the notion of submitting to rules (Hamm 1989).

Discipline as perceived by the intellectually gifted is training in line with regulations and authority as laid down, for example, by school or university authorities. The application of this type of discipline is literally to improve one's behaviour. Should one deviate from the rules and regulations, punishment or chastisement will be the outcome. Discipline is a means of teaching self-control and self-direction. This allows the individual to be able to differentiate between right and wrong:

"En ... ek ... partykeer dan voel die taak wat hulle doen is baie keer meer net om te kyk wie doen wat verkeerd in die koshuis en die tugvergadering is die enigste ding wat jy hoor van partykeer van hulle. So iets."

"Ek het ... prefek, as nou net almal in lyn hou die heel tyd..."

5.6.2.1. Self-discipline

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<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 2</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>(1) Self-discipline</td>
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<td>(2) Even-temperedness</td>
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<td>(3) Behaviour</td>
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</table>
Hamm (1989) distinguishes between three types of discipline: externally imposed (cf. discipline), self-imposed or a combination of the two. Self-imposed discipline occurs when an individual "accepts and complies with the rules on his own without external pressure" (Hamm 1989:109):

"Ek het goeie self dissipline."

"En dis waarop ... bale belangrike ding vir my van leierskap ook inkom is discipline. As iemand bo jou gekies word, moet jy die dissipline kan tentoonstel om te volg, alhoewel jy miskien nie absoluut glo nie, wat die meerderheid steun bepaald op wie is die leier."

The intellectual leader applies self-discipline continually as well as the combination of self and externally imposed discipline in his/her followers. When the leader imposes self-discipline he/she is able to distinguish between what is acceptable and permissable in certain situations.

5.6.2.2 Even tempered

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<tbody>
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<td>Discipline</td>
<td>(1) Self-discipline</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2) Even temperedness</td>
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<td>(3) Behaviour</td>
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</table>
Even-temperedness means that one is not easily angered or excited. In other words, to be even tempered implies being calm in situations, stable in temperament.

By being even-tempered the intellectually gifted demonstrate that they are democratic, flexible, tolerant, self-disciplined and accommodating:

"... so in terms of never losing your temper."

"And I think because ... because I have an easy-going nature. People like me ... as well as respect me."

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:229) claim that "temperament is a consistent pattern of response to stimuli that is characteristic of an individual especially in his mood and behaviour." Temperament is discernible in an individual from birth - that is, an inborn personality trait such as being placid, or having temper tantrums, and displaying aggressiveness.

5.6.2.3 Behaviour

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<th>CATEGORY 2</th>
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<td>(3) Behaviour</td>
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</table>
Behaviour implies the manner of behaving or conducting oneself (Collins English Dictionary 1994:141). Through exemplary behaviour a leader is setting an example and leading by example. The leader must be self-disciplined, even-tempered and well-behaved at all times because:

"... mense ... na jou opkyk."

5.7 THEME 5 - INFORMATION

Table 5.6 Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>(1) Knowledge of human nature</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2) Educated</td>
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5.7.1 Knowledge

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<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>(2) Educated</td>
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</table>

Knowledge is "the fact or condition of knowing something with a considerable degree of familiarity gained through experience of, or contact or association with the individual or thing so known" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:1252).
It is essential that a leader has technical and professional knowledge (Adair 1983:16), or what Hamm (1989:36) calls depth and breadth knowledge. However, the intellectually gifted acknowledge that there are times when they do not have the necessary knowledge:

"Yes, I think so, I think you just have to realise that in some situations, some people know more about something than you will."

Very little literature pertaining to the category knowledge was found in the literature research (cf 5.3.1.1).

5.7.1.1 Knowledge of human nature

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<tbody>
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Knowledge of human nature revolves around issues such as: complex behavioural patterns, attitudes and ideas. These determinants are acquired socially, culturally and ethnically.

The intellectually gifted are aware of the importance of knowledge of human nature, because no groups are heterogeneous, and abilities, traits and skills all differ. The intellectually gifted leader takes these variables into account.
"... if someone doesn't fit in, then I'll try and find something else for them to do, or try and fit them in, in another way, rather than just pushing them to one side."

"... maar jy moet elkeen respekteer en kyk wat ... nou eintlik elkeen se punt is en daai ... wat elkeen se sterkpunt is gebruik om ... tot die voordeel van die groep te gebruik."

5.7.1.2 Educated

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<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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</table>

"Educated" is characterised as: "having an education, especially a good one. Displaying culture, taste and knowledge; cultural" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:496). By being educated, one receives the basis of acquired knowledge.

A leader must be well educated and well brought up in order to lead a group:

"Maar ek dink die feit dat ek ... 'n goeie skoling gehad het en 'n baie goeie opvoeding gehad het en baie geleenthede ...."

In the literature research, education was perused from the point of view of tertiary education and training programmes (Berry & Houston 1993:229). Van
Rensburg and Landman (1984:277) state that the outcome of education "cannot be scientifically determined or guaranteed, nor can education go on indefinitely".

5.8 THEME 6 - MORAL RULES FOR PERSONAL CONDUCT

Table 5.7 Moral rules for personal conduct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>(1) Integrity</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) Honesty</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(3) Trust and trustworthiness</td>
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5.8.1 Values

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<td>(3) Trust and trustworthiness</td>
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The term "values" is defined as: "something (as a principle, quality, or entity) intrinsically valuable or desirable" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:2530).

Values rated highly among the participants. The respondents felt unable to sacrifice their standard of values to accommodate other values that would clash
with their value systems:

"It's also a person who stands by his statements or stands by whatever he believes in ..."

"... omdat hulle glo die waardes wat jy het, of die idees wat jy het, is die regtes en gaan ons die verste ... gaan ons die verste bring..."

"So jy moet baie sterk staan in ... aan hoe jou optrede na buitekant toe is en weet almal sien jou raak."

Van Rensburg and Landman (1988:422) refer to this type of values as judgement of values. Mankind constantly makes value judgements concerning matters and actions. The judgement will deem the value as good or bad. Van Rensburg and Landman (1988:422) further contend that once adulthood is reached, value judgements are not easily susceptible to influence.

5.8.1.1 Integrity

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<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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<tr>
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<td>(2) Honesty</td>
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<td>(3) Trust and trustworthiness</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Integrity is described as: "adherence to moral principles; honesty. The quality of being unimpaired; soundness" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:803). Integrity is an uncompromising attitude to values.

Integrity rated high on the leader's scale of values.

"Hulle wil nie ... 'n leier moet weet wat hy doen ... Ek dink hulle soek ... miskien tot 'n mate, maar ek dink hulle soek ook .. 'n .. 'n leier met integriteit."

"Ja. If you can sort out your differences ... properly like without ... without screaming and shouting ... just by sitting down and having a reasonable conversation then you'll get a lot further with a group than not."

"Like on the house committee there's nine of us and I'd expect all nine of these people to be ... to be as good as I am. As good as I was of I ... if I'd done their job before. And ... in a small group like that where the guys are all my friends and I know them well, then I'd expect them ... I'll expect them to be perfect and if they're not, then ... I can ... I sit them down and say look, you're not good enough, catch a wake up, and I'll ... I'll make sure that, that person achieves the standard that I want and if they don't, then I'm gonna drive them until they do get there."

These leaders have the integrity to be able to take people of different skills, abilities and capabilities and bind them together to form a working whole.
Furthermore, within the team atmosphere, integrity creates a climate of trust; "it is the quality that makes people trust you" (Viscount Slim in Adair 1983:11).

5.8.1.2 Honesty

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<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
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<td>(3) Trust and trustworthiness</td>
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Honesty implies being free from deception, characterised by integrity, adhering to values or principles, straightforward and sincere (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:1086).

Honesty is very important in leadership. The intellectually gifted expressed their view of leadership as follows:

"Iemand wat jy kan sien ... is opreg in wat hy doen nê. En dis vir my baie belangrik."

"Ek sé altyd daars twee maniere hoe om 'n ding te hanteer, reg of verkeerd..."

"I know, to be honest is my own case, I don't think that's the case ninety-nine percent of the time and that ... that's why I think that I can be a good leader because I think that I know what to do the whole time. And ... if someone
disagrees with me about something I usually end up ... we usually end up
having an argument. But if it's ... once it's sorted out I realise I'm wrong,
then I'll accept that decision. I'm not someone who sulks and says okay well
... you were ... you were right, I was wrong, I'm not going to listen to you now
anyway."

"... as jy altyd dit net kan onthou en dan op daai manier dit kan uitleef."
Trust implies "reliance on and confidence in the truth, worth, reliability, etc., of a person or thing; faith" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:1651). Trustworthy is "worthy of being trusted, honest, reliable, or dependable" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:1652). Trust and trustworthiness imply having faith and confidence in someone.

Two streams of thought can be discerned concerning trust and trustworthiness. Some of the leaders had no problems trusting their fellow members and they themselves felt that they had to be trustworthy.

"Leadership is also the ability of a person I think to have trust in other people. It is not always going back to ... like of if you trust somebody to do something, if you're a true leader you will know that he is going to do the job. You're not going to keep going to check after him, check out ... you know it's a quality that most people would think is good for leadership."

"Jy moet 'n vertroueling wees. Hulle moet weet as hulle met hulle probleme na jou toe kom gaan jy dit nie uitblêr op die hele kampus vol nie."

"... dis vir my belangrik dat leiers vertroue moet inboesem ..."

However, some of the leaders did have a problem with trust:
Corey and Corey (1987:128) argue that trust should be established at the initial stage of group development, but they also contend that it is "a mistake to assume that, once trust has been established, it is taken care of for the duration of that group". Trust-building is a continuous process in groups.

Egan (1994:147) addresses the lack of trust as follows. Lack of trust implies that some individuals find it extremely difficult to place trust in anyone. They have an irrational fear of being betrayed by the very person in whom they have placed their trust.

5.9 THEME 7 - DETERMINANTS OF LEADERSHIP

There are seven identified factors that play an important role in effective leadership (see table 5.8 below).
Table 5.8 - Determinants of leadership

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1</th>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal-directedness</td>
<td>(1) Initiator</td>
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<td>(2) Director and leader</td>
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<td>(3) Active</td>
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<td>(4) Problem-solver</td>
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<td>(5) Planning</td>
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<td>(6) Challenge</td>
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5.9.1 Goal directedness

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The category to emerge as the most noteworthy in theme 7 is goal-directedness. Goal-directedness implies "the aim or object towards which an endeavour is directed" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:600).

The leaders felt that their primary responsibility as a leader is to ensure that the group achieves its objective:

"Dit gaan meer oor die saak ... oor die doel wat bereik word."
According to Balcazar, Hopkins and Suarez (1985 in Berry & Houston 1993:281), the leader initiates goal-setting. Goal-setting must be realistic and acceptable to all concerned. Egan (1994:280) furthermore advocates the idea of brainstorming to achieve the objective. Goal-setting is appealing if the leader provides an incentive to attain it. The leader should encourage group members to set their own goals. This allows the group members and leaders to formulate their goals so that they are in keeping with their values and so that they teach them responsibility for having made the decision.

The most noteworthy sub-category to emerge was that a leader is an initiator.
5.9.1.1 Initiator

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The term "initiator" is explained as: "one that initiates; as ... a person who originates or sets on foot some process or movement" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:1164). An initiator is someone who starts a process or movement.

The leaders interviewed felt it necessary only to start a process and not always be at the helm. They will guide the project and initiate new ideas. In other words, the leader has the ability to get the group moving:

"Maar ek is meer 'n ou wat wil glo ek is meer 'n insieerder. Ek's meer die ou wat die ding begin en dan net ... net, net stuur. Net die ding op pad hou."

"Dis vir my heel ... heel belangrik van 'n leier want dit help nie 'n leier is daar ver ... on ... untouchable nie ... so toeganklik, vriendelik, inisiatief. Jy moet vinnig kan dink..."
A leader should always show initiative. Berry and Houston (1993:582) see initiation as "production-orientated or task-related behaviour."

5.9.12 Director and leader

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"Director" pertains to: "a person or thing that directs, controls, or regulates" *(Collins English Dictionary 1994:446)*. The leader thus literally and figuratively leads the group members:

"I've got two hundred ... students that I've got to lead in their extramural activities in the res. and make sure that, that res. functions."

The leader is the person in front. By virtue of his/her position, he/she leads the group. .
5.9.1.3 Active

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Active is defined as: "in a state of action, moving, working, or doing something, (2) busy or involved: an active life" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:15). A leader is always actively involved in all spheres of group activities. If your group members are willing to work, for example, for two hours, you must be willing to work four:

"You have to be the most hard-working person. You can't ... I don't know a leader that isn't hard-working."

"Hy moet aktief wees ... hy moet aktief wees vir my mense. Hy moet rërig werk vir my mense."

"... maar hoe sê daar's 'n ... gesegde wat sê, 'move with the movers'."

The leader sets the example. If he/she is examplary the group members will follow.
5.9.1.4  Problem-solver

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The leader is also someone that the followers look up to, with whom they are able to discuss their problems and who will be able to sort them out. This is only possible if trust and confidentiality exists between leader and follower:

"Sy moet daar wees vir mense. As ... as hulle jou nodig het dan moet hulle weet jy is daar. Om hulle te help met 'n probleem wat ook al. Hy moet 'n vertroueling wees. Hulle moet weet as hulle met hulle probleme na jou toe kom gaan jy dit nie uitblêr op die hele kampus vol nie. En hulle moet jou rêrig sien as iemand na wie hulle kan opkyk. Wat hulle beste belange op die hart dra."
5.9.1.5 Planning

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Planning pertains to: "the act or process of making or carrying out plans; the establishment of goals, policies, and procedures for a social or economic unit" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary 1961:1731).

For any objective to be achieved, it is essential that a plan or method be adopted, as this enhances the chances of success:

"Work out a plan for how it is that you're gonna get there and what you want the group to do and to achieve."

"... if you have a plan, if a leader has a plan and ... and ... and has direction, the group won't be directionless. So the leader is gonna go ... is gonna go in his direction and then the group is not going to fall apart."

Planning also helps to avoid unnecessary pitfalls and uncertainties that could cloud the group work. Planning enhances decision-making because each individual knows what the objectives and goals are. Planning helps one to
exert control efficiently over any project that is tackled (Lamprecht & Botha 1990).

5.9.1.6 Challenge

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To challenge means to "question, dispute. To make demands on; stimulate: the job challenges his ingenuity" (Collins English Dictionary 1994:268)

Leadership to the intellectually gifted presented a challenge:

"... dit moet vir jou 'n uitdaging wees. Leierskap, dis vir my baie as 'n groot uitdaging."

"Dit het my aangryp, gefasineer, en dit is so in die lewe, vir my gaan dit oor ... om iets te doen en die verste grens daarvan te bereik, en te kan oorsteek en te kan weet jy was daar en jy kan dit oorkom."
The leadership role challenges the intellectually gifted's ingenuity. Challenges whether by circumstances or choice are accepted willingly and without hesitation (Kouzes & Paner 1987). The intellectually gifted do not view challenges as an obstacle, but rather as a means of learning and growing.

5.10 Conclusion

As can be seen from the above analysis of the relevant themes, a diversity of traits and skills were important to the intellectually gifted. Many of the aforementioned have been identified by researchers such as Bennis and Nanus (1985); Davis and Rimm (1989) and Bass (1981).

The category that dominated the interviews was that of interpersonal relationships. The interviewees contend that an interpersonal relationship is of the utmost importance for the existence and the continuation of the group. This can only exist if interaction occurs between all group members (leader exclusive). The respondents articulated that interaction can be positively experienced. Interaction occurs on all levels within the group (work and social) and between everyone involved in the group. This positive interaction prevents social isolation occurring within the group, improves members' performance, contributes towards group meaningfulness and complements group solidarity and group cohesion. For this interaction to be effective, the leader must interact, be involved and accommodating.
This can only occur if the leader takes cognisance of the fact that each group member is an individual and does not perceive the group as homogeneous.

Within the theme of relationships a top-down form of relationship (autocratic) is not the norm. The respondents emphasised that interpersonal relationships can only be realised if there is open and lateral (horizontal) communication taking place between the leader and followers. This openness enhances group cohesion, interaction, honesty and trust. This is known as a democratic style of leadership.

Furthermore, good interpersonal relationships allow the group members to participate in decision-making. That is the leader and the followers make decisions together. In other words it is a participatory association; this association can only occur if there is two-way communication.

The respondents furthermore entertained the idea that if a good interpersonal relationship exists the situation would determine the appropriate leader and leadership style. The situational approach to leadership results in effective leadership, as the leadership process is affected by the variables - the leader, the group members and the situation.

Power was the theme that featured the second highest on the theme identification list. The majority of the respondents felt that varying degrees of authority were necessary in any group situation. The variables that determined
the type of authority to be exercised are the situation, the maturity of the followers and the objective.

Owing to the situation acting as a determiner of leadership, the intellectually gifted are aware that despite them being in authority, they are not necessarily an authority in all spheres. There are others that have equal knowledge or surpass that of the leader.

The ideal leadership style is democratic. This implies that the leader is flexible, tolerant and a delegator. However, the situation again acts as a determiner in determining which style of leadership is most appropriate and suitable for that specific situation: thus, an autocratic leadership style may sometimes be appropriate.

The democratic form of authority allowed the leaders to delegate responsibility, it allows the subordinate the opportunity to learn to make independent decisions, but, most important, the participants found the democratic form cultivates, maintains and enhances sound interpersonal relationships. By adopting this approach, the leader ensures the objective is obtained. Cronje et al. 1987:115 in Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk 1987:390) aptly summarises the participants’ approach to authority: "... A leader has authority but gets results without having to use force. He is a leader by virtue of certain personal qualities that he possesses, including the ability to consult his followers and motivate them, enlisting their cooperation of their own free will."
The third most noteworthy theme to govern the interviews was position, that is, the position the leader occupies within the group. This position affords the leader certain status within the group. The position distinguishes the leader from the follower. Being in the most noteworthy position of any group, the leaders stated they are not only physically visible but are also capable of being perceived mentally.

Theorists and leaders alike felt that a leader should always lead by example. In this exemplary mode, moral rules for personal conduct cannot be ignored, for example, integrity, honesty and trust. Furthermore, being exemplary, the participants are expressing the hope that their approach would be worthy of imitating.

The fourth theme to be identified was hereditary. The respondents all feel that leadership abilities are inherent. Furthermore, they emphasised that these innate capacities cannot be learnt: leadership is a natural occurrence in one. Nonetheless, the interviewed leaders did contend that education and training play a facilitary role. Leadership skills (problem solving, critical thinking, management, etc.) can be taught but the hereditary factors are decisive in determining leadership abilities.

Information was the fifth meaningful theme to be ascertained. The respondents felt that the leader must have knowledge in depth and in breadth, as this factor plays an important role in determining situational leadership. Furthermore, the
participants state that knowledge of human nature is essential in any group, as groups today are not homogeneous. The leader must have an understanding and knowledge of various behavioural patterns, attitudes, cultures, body language, traits and skills as these variables differ in individuals.

Moral rules for personal conduct dominated theme six. Being in the position of leader, the participants exhibited a high regard for moral rules. They were of one voice in that they are unable to sacrifice their standards to accommodate other values or point of views that do not measure up to theirs. The intellectually gifted leaders displayed an extremely high level of integrity. This sub-category emphasised their adherence to moral principles. This quality stimulates a climate of trust and honesty among group members.

Theme seven was characterised by the determinants of leadership. The interviewers felt that there are certain determinants that characterise good leadership. All leaders are goal directed. Goal-directedness promotes solidarity, cohesion and understanding among members. They are very active within the group. They work very hard and are not afraid to work long hours.

It can be concluded that the intellectually gifted perceive leadership as a most rewarding and positive experience:

"Ek dink die groot ding is ek geniet dit baie om te doen so ek stel myself baie beskikbaar daarvoor ... gee baie bevrediging in daai opsig."
Leadership is not a process that can stagnate. The intellectually gifted leader perceives leadership as a continuous process of learning and adaptability:

"Leierskap dink ek is ook iets wat ... wat ontwikkel."

"Dis 'n baie groot vormingsproses. Al die geleenthede wat jy kry om in leierskap te wees. Jy leer baie van jouself. Jy leer hoe om in situaties op te tree en so ..."

As Schilbach (1983:18) in Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk 1989:343) contends, "Leadership is an interpersonal process through which a leader directs the activities of individuals or groups towards the purposeful pursuance of given objectives within a particular situation by means of communication."
CHAPTER SIX

6. CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This inquiry attempted to describe the intellectually gifted's perception of leadership. This issue was explored through a literature study which was augmented by the qualitative research method of interviewing.

In chapter one the context of the study, the statement of the problem and the purpose of this investigation were set out. An in-depth literature study was conducted in chapter two concerning conceptual clarification, dictionary definitions and various schools of thought pertaining to the concepts of giftedness and leadership.

Chapter three's argument revolved around the issue of "Who is the intellectually gifted leader?" The method of data collection and research design was dealt with in chapter four. In chapter five the themes, categories and sub-categories of the transcribed interviews were discussed and analysed. A literature review was included. In chapter six, conclusions, results and recommendations are presented.
6.2 INQUIRY INTO THE FIELD OF THE INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED'S PERCEPTION

In this inquiry a qualitative research approach (interviewing) was adopted (cf chapter four). This approach enabled the inquirer to obtain first-hand knowledge of how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership. It also enabled the researcher to interact on a personal level with the respondents. Interviews were conducted with a diverse group of students. The diversity embodied issues such as: ethnicity, religion, age, socio-economic status, stature, height, gender and personality traits.

The interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim and sent for analysis. An independent research consultant analysed and identified the themes, categories and sub-categories. A discussion was held between the independent research consultant and the researcher to see if there was agreement about the identification of themes. The researcher did use the field notes that were taken down during the interviews of those respondents who did not object to field notes being taken. Trustworthiness of this study was obtained by the method of data collection and method of analysis.

6.3 RESULTS
6.3.1 Research process

From the literature consulted (cf Bibliography) it emerged that there are works available on the intellectually gifted, giftedness and leadership, but no literature was found at the time that this research was being conducted (Eric 1995-1996) relating to the specific concept of "intellectually gifted leaders". Owing to the lack of information and literature available in South Africa, an ERIC search was conducted by Darelle Snyman of RAU and the researcher independently. No information was available from the Educational Resource's Information Centre (ERIC) in Washington DC pertaining explicitly to the concept of "intellectually gifted leaders".

As a result of the insufficient database, the researcher consulted literature on the concepts of giftedness and leadership. Furthermore, phenomenological interviews were conducted with the sample of respondents selected from the Rand Afrikaans University, with the aid of the Bureau of University Education who kindly supplied the researcher with the names of the respondents who fulfilled the criteria (cf. chapter four).

The objective of the interviewing was to obtain an emic (inside) viewpoint on how the intellectually gifted leader perceives leadership. The data obtained from the transcribed interviews (cf Appendix E for example) was just as rich and diverse as the students who participated in this inquiry.
The analyses of the interviews were conducted by an independent research consultant and the researcher separately. The idea behind the separate analyses was to see if the themes, categories and sub-categories would correlate when compared. A comparison was conducted at a later stage between the findings of the independent research consultant and the researcher. The identification of the themes, categories and sub-categories were virtually identical.

6.3.2 Themes

The two researchers identified the following themes with their subsequent categories and sub-categories (cf. chapter five for tabulated form).

(a) relationships
(b) power
(c) position
(d) hereditary
(e) information
(f) moral rules for personal conduct
(g) leadership determinants

The most noteworthy theme to dominate the transcription was that of relationships, more specifically, interpersonal relationships. In the literature study, interpersonal relationships were found to be of great importance.
Without good interpersonal relationships existing between the leader and subordinates, the type of leadership that would evolve would be of an autocratic nature, (cf. theme 1) a top-down form of relationship, a one-way form of communication. Furthermore, a good interpersonal relationship enhances group cohesion, closeness, trust, caring and acceptance not only of the individual, but also of his/her values, norms and culture.

The important sub-category to emerge from this theme was situational leadership. The intellectually gifted leader is aware that no individual can retain power indefinitely, unless it is an autocratic or despotic form of leadership. Each situation acts as a determiner in determining who will lead in that particular situation. Factors such as knowledge, abilities, capabilities, task, resources, and physical setting, to mention but a few, all play a leading role in determining situational leadership. Theorists such as Leunes and Natia (1989), Lamprecht and Botha (1990) and Bass (1981) all support the notion of situational leadership.

The second most meaningful theme to emerge was that of power with its related categories and sub-categories. When referring to power in the leadership situation, three issues of importance were identified, namely, authority, leadership styles and decision-making.

Eight of the fourteen interviewees felt that varying degrees of authority were necessary in a group situation. Once again, the situation and the type of
followers would determine what type of authority would be applied. For example, the autocratic (authoritarian) form of authority occurs where the leader is in complete control and makes all the decisions. Individuals subjected to such a form of authority tend to show little, if any, independence and social responsibility. Democratic (authoritative) authority is ideal, as all decisions are made through group discussions with the leader encouraging and assisting only. This form of authority enhances responsibility and self-discipline (cf theme 4) within the individual. Permissive (laissez-faire) authority in actual fact gives each person carte blanche to behave as he/she wishes. The leader assumes a passive role and complete freedom reigns within the group.

The only two forms of authority that are acceptable to the intellectually gifted leader are autocratic and democratic. They felt that these two forms of authority are interchangeable in any given situation.

The third theme to dominate the interviews was "position" - that is, position of the leader. The interviewed leaders realised that with the position of leader came the determinants of status, visibility, exposure, exemplification and attitude. To be in the position of leader awards one a certain status, in other words, a leader is elevated above those that follow in a figurative sense. The leader's behaviour must therefore be of such a nature that it is exemplary. This exemplary behaviour encourages such behaviour from followers.
Hereditariness was seen as important. The intellectually gifted leaders felt that one is born with leadership qualities. They acknowledged the role that education and training play in leadership, but felt that these only played a facilitative role. Education and training only enhance what is naturally there. Researchers such as Charlton (1993), Magoon (1980), Plowman (1981), Parker (1983) and Maher (1982) support this notion about education and training. They believe leadership skills can be taught, for example critical thinking, decision-making, persuasion, problem-solving and interpersonal communication. However, the outcome of teaching those leadership skills cannot be guaranteed.

Living as we do in the world of information and technology, information was perceived as very important. The category that dominated the theme was that of knowledge - knowledge of human nature and knowledge acquired through education. A leader should possess knowledge in depth and breadth. An educated person has mastered a wide range of knowledge - that is, knowledge in breath. This range of knowledge includes knowledge of logic, empirical science, human science, aesthetics, ethics, philosophy and perhaps even religion (Hamm 1989). Knowledge in depth implies that one has grasped the principles of a specific issue. Knowledge in depth and breath complement each other.

Moral principles and beliefs are important in any leader. The importance of this theme can be seen from the Watergate scandal that rocked the United States
in 1972. Values, integrity, honesty, trust and trustworthiness are essential characteristics of any leader.

The final theme of importance was that of leadership determinants. Leadership determinants are those skills and qualities that separate a leader from the followers. Skills and qualities such as goal-directedness, the ability to take the initiative, problem-solving, the ability to plan and the capacity to see problems and objectives as a challenge were regarded as important by respondents.

It must be borne in mind that the identified themes do not exist independently of each other: there is interaction between them. All identified themes were substantiated by using verbatim transcriptions of the interviews with the respondents which were in turn augmented by arguments found in literature pertaining to the relevant themes (cf chapter 5).

6.3.3 Profile of an intellectually gifted leader

The profile obtained of the intellectually gifted in this research departed from the dismal picture painted by Lombrosa (1895). Much research has been and is being carried out concerning giftedness (used as an umbrella term by Terman 1947; Terman & Oden 1951; Ehrlich 1982, Hoyle & Wilks 1975; Davis & Rimm 1989, to mention but a few), since Lombrosa's pioneering propositions on giftedness.
From the literature studied, the researchers and theorists have compiled a formidable list of traits and skills which are characteristic of the gifted (cf Appendix A). However, to present an accurate portrayal of a gifted person is virtually impossible, as remarked by Ehrlich (1982:23):

In a review of the many characteristics that are usually given to describe gifted children, I found that forty-seven traits were included in one way or another by specialists in the field, but that no one has been able to put together a true syndrome of traits that will serve alone as a way to identify a gifted child.

There is insufficient information available as to what constitutes a critical group of characteristics to identify the gifted. The outcome of interviews conducted and the researcher's field notes supported Ehrlich's (1982) notion for this study. The respondents were diverse in some respects, but characteristics of a general nature such as self-confidence, a large vocabulary, and goal-directedness (cf Appendix A), all of which indicate giftedness, were observable in all. However, some participants displayed characteristics - for example, being a loner, having spontaneity - that were not discernible in the other gifted participants.
To attempt an accurate description of the gifted is too difficult: no single participant's profile was exactly the same. Just as giftedness remains an elusive concept so does the characterisation of a gifted individual.

As regards the aspect of leadership, the respondents presented a mixed picture of which traits and skills they perceived as important. Many of the characteristics and skills overlapped - for example, interpersonal relationships, authority, democratic leadership style - while other aspects registered low on the theme identification list (cf. Appendix F). This identification proved just how divergent their approaches were to leadership.

The respondents interviewed were people who had both feet planted firmly on the ground. Their status as leaders did not influence them in any manner: they observed this experience into their self-concept easily (cf. congruence 5.4.3.2). They did not employ a top-down form of relationship. They mixed on all levels, and this augmented the importance of interpersonal relationships. To maintain a healthy interpersonal relationship the participants endorsed what Adair (1988) proposed, namely that a leader should not be too distant nor too close to his/her followers. This attitude was endorsed during the interviews.

It was found during the interviews and in the literature research that leaders are people who are in authority and are themselves authorities. Nonetheless, they were quite willing to relinquish their position of leadership should the situation require it. Situational leadership came strongly to the fore during the interviews.
This supported the views of researchers such as Lamprecht and Botha (1990), Adair (1983), LaPiere (1938) and Gibb (1947), who all contend that the situation is a primary determinant of leadership. Skills such as planning, problem-solving, and challenging did not come across strongly. Instead, skills such as goal-directedness, initiative, and interaction came across as being of utmost importance in leadership situations.

Offering a general profile of who the intellectually gifted leader is is difficult to do. No two participants articulated the same approach to leadership. Their skills and their characteristics varied. To be sure, some skills and traits did overlap, but many more did not. One cannot provide an accurate character sketch of the gifted leader because giftedness and leadership are elusive concepts: there are simply too many facets to giftedness and leadership to be able to do this.

What was found concerning the intellectually gifted leaders is they are a diverse group of people, dynamic but enigmatic.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

From the research conducted, it appears that perceptions of leadership are as diverse and varied as the respondents themselves. For example, the highest rating of the identified themes was 11 out of 14 and the lowest 1 out of 14.
This inquiry is exploratory because there is very little data pertaining to the perceptions of intellectually gifted people concerning leadership. Therefore, to provide parameters for the investigation, the concepts of intelligence, intelligence quotient, giftedness and leadership were thoroughly perused. From these, a vignette of who the intellectually gifted leader was drawn. However, this proved to be difficult because of the lack of literature and the fact that trying to describe and understand an enigma is very complex. De Haan (as quoted in Henry 1958:137) further substantiates the argument that leaders cannot be categorised or stereotyped, by arguing that "there is no consistent pattern of personal traits with which to characterise all leaders everywhere".

6.5 LIMITATIONS

Only intellectually gifted people who occupied/still are occupying positions of leadership were interviewed and their opinions were duly noted and recorded. The ideal scenario would have been to have included the same number of people who were not identified as gifted or intellectually gifted, but who held/hold positions of leadership and to have incorporated their views.

Ideally, one should do a random selection of both the populations and do a comparative analysis.

There are no tests available at this stage to help with the identification of leadership qualities as there are with giftedness. This dissertation relied upon
the person being interviewed as having held or still being in positions of leadership and as being intellectually gifted.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

This research idea should be developed in view of the fact that there is a limited amount of material on the central problem of the study "How do the intellectually gifted perceive leadership?"

An attempt should be made to investigate the perceptions of leadership by those who are not identified as intellectually gifted, but who have held and/or are still in positions of leadership. How would the identified themes differ?

An investigation should also be conducted into the perceptions of leadership by the intellectually gifted from underdeveloped and/or underprivileged societies. How would the findings differ from this investigation?

Another recommendation is that leadership and intellectual giftedness should not be seen as synonymous, but rather as two distinct categories (as identified by the USOE 1972) of the multi-dimensional concept of giftedness (HSRC 1988).

Finally, the concept of giftedness should incorporate all cognitive and non-cognitive aspects of mankind (Renzulli 1978). There are categories that cannot
be measured by testing only but by performance as well: leadership, creativity, fine and gross motor coordination, the arts, motivation and task-commitment.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This inquiry attempted to understand and describe how the intellectually gifted perceive leadership. It is difficult to give an exact description as leadership means different things to different people, even to the intellectually gifted. Different characteristics were perceived as important, or as more important than others. Each intellectually gifted person has his/her own understanding as to what leadership constitutes and what it does not.
APPENDIX A

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GIFTED

The following characteristics were identified by researchers such as: Bennis and Nanus (1985), Davis and Rimm (1989), Ehrlich (1982), Hoyle and Wilks (1975), Terman (1947), Terman and Oden (1951).

The gifted:

are very perceptive

are able to acquire more knowledge about games and plays

are not boastful

don’t overstate their acquired knowledge

like to question why

are more trustworthy

score high in emotional stability
have superior comprehension skill

have superior reasoning faculty

have quick memory

think logically and systematically

are superior in science, literature and arts

have a large working vocabulary

store vast amounts of information concerning a wide range of topics

are able to grasp complex and abstract concepts and relationships earlier

love learning something new

think quicker and more logically

are skilled in convergent problem-solving

are persistent
write at a precocious age

write clearly

have untidy writing

are fluent in two or more languages

have high motivation

have intrinsic motivation

work well on their own

need little guidance

learn quickly, efficiently and easily

are alert

day-dream

are better adjusted personally and socially
have low anxiety

have better self-concepts

prefer independent studies

have superior humour

are more sensitive to values and moral issues

acknowledge the right of others

are sensitive to the feelings and expectation of others

have empathy

are sympathetic

have fewer behavioural problems at school

are less egocentric

are more imaginative and observant
are physically superior

are very active

are more trustworthy and committed

are curious and inquisitive

have quick memory and comprehension

are good at sport and physical activities

remember details

think logically and systematically

recognise implied relationships

are original

get bored with detail, repetition and routine tasks

are keen observers
are very perceptive

are socially mature

have older friends

like to question why

are alert and motivated

love learning something new

need little guidance

are imaginative and inventive

enjoy solving problems

use the library regularly

like to organise and structure things

think critically
tend to get bored easily

know a lot of facts

are creative and productive

are generally alone

are humorous

have a large vocabulary

are neat and punctual

get high marks

are outspoken and confident

are unconventional

use eloquent language

have the ability to adjust personally
are emotionally stable

have high self-esteem

are professionally successful

have a wide range of interests

are spontaneous

learn to read earlier and more easily

read more widely and more quickly

read more and better books

have many hobbies

collect many things

have a good attention and concentration span

are self-critical (strive for perfection)
are personally content

have high intelligence

are versatile

are skilled at superior communication

have leadership ability.
CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS

Characteristics of leaders were identified by researchers such as Bennis and Nanus (1985), Davis and Rimm (1989), Bass (1981), Kouzes and Posner (1987), and Plowman (1981).

Leaders:

- have good organisational skills
- have planning skills
- clarify goals and issues
- are able to develop group cohesion
- create an atmosphere of respect, cooperation and teamwork
- refrain from harsh criticism
- are fair
make decisions based on majority views

protect rights of individual members

help members to achieve goals

are good PRO’s

have the ability to envision the future

imagine different scenarios

have insight

have empathy

have humour

are emotionally stable

are self-confident

have social ability
take the initiative

show persistence

show ambition

show leadership qualities from an early age

have high social and moral values

have a positive relationship with adults

show originality

have outstanding judgement

are charismatic

are intuitive

are generative

are analytical
are evaluative

are synergistic

are altruistic

are persuasive

have sensitivity to the needs of others

have the ability to be a facilitator

are goal-orientated

have strong communication skills

have integrity

have organisation ability

are resourceful

are risk-takers
have competence (knowledge)

accept responsibility

are dependable

are considerate

are creative

are articulate (not a prerequisite - Bennis and Nanus 1985)

have the ability to influence another

have the ability to convey ideas to followers

have a guiding vision

have passion

have trust

have curiosity
are daring

are innovative

focus on people

have long-range perspectives

have their eye on the horizon

originate

challenge the status quo

are their own person

have a good self-esteem

take risks

admit mistakes

are responsible
are more assertive

are more extroverted than average

are good listeners

give direction

lead discussion

write well

have good interpersonal skills

delegate authority

are prepared to help others

are alert

have verbal fluency

have perseverance
are self assured

are popular among their peers

are gifted

are normally loners

are tactful

are diplomatic.
APPENDIX C

PROTOCOL FOR INDEPENDENT RESEARCH CONSULTANT

A qualitative approach was adopted for this investigation. As much biasness can occur when using the qualitative approach, an independent research consultant was approached to test and ensure that as far as possible the researcher of this investigation maintained objectivity. Secondly, the consultant ensure that the results that were obtained through the interviews would fulfil the criteria as set out for the testing of validity and reliability. Thirdly, the independent research consultant would peruse the data to ascertain whether the conclusions drawn by the researcher would be similar to those that would be drawn by him/her.

Method of approach

The researcher conducted interviews with 14 respondents (male and female, irrespective of race, colour and creed) that fulfilled the requirements pertaining to this investigation. Verbatim transcriptions were made of each individual interview revolving around the issues of:

How do you experience leadership and how do you perceive leadership?
The independent researcher read and analysed the interviews phenomenologically and according to Kerlinger's method of content analysis.

**Modus operandi of independent experts**

Attached are the unmarked copies of the interviews as conducted by the interviewer.

The following is required of the independent researcher:

* underline words and/or phrases which fit the defined categories and emerging themes and sub-themes.

* write down the words and/or phrases beneath a heading of the appropriate themes (these themes will become categories and categories with relevant sub-categories).

* a development of grouping concerning words and/or phrases will begin to appear for each theme.

* words and/or phrases under each theme will be read in order to develop sub-categories. (Sub-categories are the grouping of words/phrases which do not reflect the same theme but are relevant and describe the same subject.)

A date will be set in the future once the analysing has been completed to compare the findings of the independent consultant researcher and those of the researcher.
A consensus concerning the identified themes, categories and sub-categories will be reached during this interview.
APPENDIX D

PILOT STUDY

Navorser: Wat is jou siening van leierskap?

RESP A: Okay. My siening van leierskap. 'n Leier is 'n persoon wat nie bloot in 'n posisie geplaas word nie. 'n Leier is myns insiens 'n persoon wat as gevolg van sy eie persoonlike vermoëns en persoonlikheids-eierskappe van natuur of natuurlik in 'n groep uitstaan en na vore tree.

Met ander woorde, 'n persoon wat 'n leier is of wat dan oor leierskap eienskappe beskik soos wat hulle dan nou praat, is iemand wat nie noodwendig gekondisioneer is as 'n leier nie, maar iemand wat in enige situasie, het sy dit 'n kunsmatige situasie is, natuurlike sal na vore tree en die persone sal lei.

Navorser: Jy’t nou-nou gepraat van 'n persoonlikheid. Vertel ons meer daarvan.

RESP A: Persoonlikheid. Ek dink persoonlikheid is geweldig belangrik want 'n persoon wat 'n leier is moet nie net selfvertroue hê nie, hy moet ook oor die vermoë beskik om met mense te kan werk en veral met mense te
kan kommunikeer. By leierskap dink ek is kommunikasie geweldig belangrik.

Navorser: Jy praat van eienskappe. Brei bietjie daaroor uit.

RESP A: Um ... eienskappe soos ... soos ek reeds genoem het selfvertrou ... persoon ... as persoon, andersins ... em ... goeie menseverhoudinge, ek bedoel die mense moet darem van 'n leier hou om hom te kan wil volg. Ander eienskappe, dit moet 'n persoon wees wat ... definitiewe besluite kan neem, besluitneming is baie belangrik by leierskap ... en motivering. Daai persoon moet oor die vermoë beskik om ander mense te kan motiveer.

Navorser: Hoe beleef jy leierskap?

RESP A: Goed. Dis bietjie moeilik hierdie een. Hoe beleef ek leierskap? Okay, wel ek het nou al in my ... um ... lewe, tot dusver het ek heelwat leierskapsposisies beklee en ek dink in .. in 'n groot mate is .. het .. is baie van die leierskapsposisies ...

(Onderbreking. Toetsling moes telefoon beantwoord)

Goed, ek was besig om te sê .. em .. o ja, my belewings van leierskap. Em ... baie van die mense ... vat iemand wat gewoonlik populêr is of so
Maar my belewing was nou al tot dusver dat dit is nie noodwendig net as 'n mens baie populêr is nie, daar's tog baie mense wat jy in 'n leierskap posisie sit omdat hulle het vertrou het in jou. Omdat jy deur jou eie ... beginsels ... omdat jy bereid is om ... op te staan vir dit is waarin jy glo, omdat jy bereid is om jou beginsels uit te leef, kan hulle ... weet hulle kan hul vertrou in jou plaas en daarom plaas hulle jou dan in 'n leierskap posisie, wat ek dink dat 'n baie positiewe aspek is.

Andersins ... my belewing van leierskap ten opsigte van ander mense ... 'n goeie leier is nie net iemand wat net moet kan lei nie, maar hy moet ook kan volg. Indien jy dan nou iemand ... sê nou maar jy's in kompetisie met iemand vir 'n leierskap posisie en jy sou nie dan nie daai leierskap posisie kry nie, dan moet jy genoeg van 'n leier in jouself wees om daai persoon ook te kan volg, want dit maak jou in 'n sin meer van 'n leier wat die ander mense dan kan sien. Maar as jy daai persoon volg ... die mense wat die ... hulle vertrou dan in jou sal geplaas het ... em ... kan dan sien as jy daai persoon volg dan kan hulle dit ook doen en in die sin lei dan hulle weer om iemand anders te kan volg.

Navorser: Brei meer uit oor populariteit.
RESP A: Veral ... veral onner skool leer, skoliere en ... em ... studente is populariteit geweldig belangrik. Dit is nie altyd die mense met die ... met die regte eienskappe ... en die regte oortuigings wat in die regte leierskaps posisies kom nie en dis juis hoekom ek die idee genoem het van dat 'n ware leier moet ook bereid wees om te volg. Want 'n persoon wat dalk bloot vanuit sy posisie gekom het, kan dalk baie meer gemotiveer word en dalk baie sterker suks ... ag 'n baie groter suksesvolle loopbaan as leier hê indien hy ondersteun word deur 'n persoon wat 'n ware leier is wat nie so ... so populêr is nie, as jy verstaan wat ek daarmee bedoel.

Navorser: Praat bietjie meer van jou ondervindings.

RESP A: Wat het ek gedoen? Wei... om eerlik waar te sê wat, wat ek baie gesoek het was aanvaarding. Want ek het partykeer gevoel dat 'n mens nooit in 'n leierskaps posisie gekom het deur omstandighede of deur populariteit of so en dan kry mens dalk partykeer 'n gevoel dat mense jou nie wil aanvaar nie of mense volg jou omdat hulle voel hulle moet, nie omdat hulle regtig wil nie, en ek het baie hard probeer in ... dan nou in my leierskapsposisie om ... vir die mense te doen, nie om te doen wat hulle se nie. Ek was nooit bereid om my eie beginsels op te gee nie. Mens moet selfs partykeer die ... die volgers, kan 'n mens maar sé, "overrule" terwille van jou eie beginsels en dit wat jy glo is reg. Maar veral om, om die groep wat jy lei se menings te kry oor sekere dinge.
Ek het geglo daarin om met hulle te praat en uit te vind wat dink hulle, hoe voel hulle. Dis hoekom ... em ... vir my is dit makliker om leier te wees van 'n kleiner groepie, omdat daar baie beter kommunikasie is en baie beter ... insae van die groep af. Dat 'n mens dan baie meer ... Jy kry dan ook juis baie meer kritiek want die mense is baie meer vrymoedigheid om dit dan direk teenoor jou uit te spreek. Waar wanneer met met 'n groter groep werk, soos byvoorbeeld as wanneer mens 'n prefek by 'n skool is of so, is dit moeilik om, om regtig 'n suksesvolle leier te wees, as mens dit so kan stel, want jy weet nie regtig hoe die groep voel nie. Mens kry nie regtig insae of evalueering van die groep as sodanig as individue nie. En ... em ... verder... wat is daar nou nog verder ... LANG POUSE.

Ook op ss ... ek het ... uit my ervaring het ek ook al agter gekom dat mense besef wat is jou potensiaal en mense sien wat Is jy bereid om te doen en wat is jy bereid om te gee, maar hulle is nie altyd bereid ... om ... in jou ... of die eer te gee of dan die posisie te gee nie. Hulle sit jou dalk in 'n posisie wat net 'n bietjie laer is as die een waarvoor jy gemik het, maar dan moet 'n mens ook bereid wees om dit te aanvaar. En vir my, het ek agter gekom, veral daai ding van dat jy mik vir iets wat 'n hoër leierskapsposisie is en jy kry dit nie noodwendig altyd nie. Dit was vir my 'n bron van geweldige persoonlike groei. Ek het baie persoonlik gegroei daaruit en ek het baie geleer om met mense te werk en om mense te lees ... om te probeer uitvind hoekom doen mense wat hulle
doen en hoekom gaan hulle eersers vir iemand wat populër is terwyl hulle weet dat daar dalk iemand anders is wat beter eienskappe of beter kwaliteite het om 'n suksesvolle leier te wees.

Navorser: Jy't nou-nou gepraat van die goeie oordeel. Brei daaroor uit.

RESP A: Ja, nee ek moet net 'n bietjie dink. Die goeie oordeel wanneer mens moet kies ... Dis geweldig moeilik want jy werk met mense wat verskil. Hulle persoonlikheidseienskappe verskil en ... almal het vooroordele. Dit mens kan nie daaroor kyk nie. Jy sal dit in, in alle gevalle teekom. Maar ... em ... dis hoekom ek sê 'n persoon wat 'n sterk leier is ... moet geweldig ... moet homself staal teen daai mense se oordeel ... want veral jonger mense wat ... soos wat ons nou die hele tyd nog sê wat bloot op populariteit oordeel, oefen nie regtig hulle goeie oordeel uit nie. Hulle doen dit bloot uit ... 'n eie ... 'n eie persoonlik oortuiging.

Nie regtig omdat hulle voel dat die leierskapsposisie iets beteken nie. Hulle onderskat dalk die belangrikheid van die posisie of hulle oorskat die vermoë van die persoon ... en hierdie goeie oordeel ... dis nou 'n moeilike aspek. Em ...

Navorser: Vertel ons meer van die vereistes.
RESP A: Uit 'n groep uit? Wel ... vertroue. Mens ... verantwoordelikheid. Die goeie oordeel is basies verantwoordelikheid van die persoon om elkeen vir homself 'n besluit te neem en nie net ... en, en die idee van ... em ... ek ... nie afgesonderheid nie, maar laat hulle nie mekaar beinvloed nie. Want daai oor en weer beinvloeding onder 'n groep kan baie keer tot die verkeerde oordeel by 'n persoon ly.

Dis hoekom jy byvoorbeeld in die aanwys van 'n leierskaps posisie is ... 'n geheimhouding byvoorbeeld ... noodsaklik om elke persoon die geleentheid te gee ... te bied om sy eie oordeel te lewer. Om sy eie besluit te maak sonder dat enigiemand anners daarvan weet, want annersins sal 'n persoon dalk voel maar hy moet hierdie persoon kies want wat gaan die ander mense daarvan sê.

Navorser: Vertel my meer van die uitoefening van invloed.

RESP A: Em ... okay, wag, ek het nou aan iets anners gedink toe't ons nou so gepraat het so oor die invloed. Wat ek net verder kan se ook ... oor leierskap en dan nou ook uit my persoonlike belewing. 'n Leier moet baie versigtig wees dat hy homself nie deur die groep laat beinvloed nie. Dat die gaan ... vir my persoonlik ... ek ... ek is 'n baie analitiese persoon. Dit gaan meer oor die saak ... oor die doel wat bereik word ... as noodwendig ... (LANG POUSE)
Okay ek sal nou nie sê die doel heilig die middele nie, maar dit is baie belangrik dat 'n mens ... voor die tyd vir jouself vasstel hoekom is jy bereid om jouself aan hierdie leierskaps posisie bloot te stel. Hoekom is jy bereid om jouself aan die kritiek van die mense ... en ... aan .. in party gevalle die swak oordeel van die mense bloot te stel. En dit maak dan van jou ook 'n ... 'n ss ... goeie leier en 'n sterk persoon. Want as jy vir jouself voor die tyd kan besluit maar dit maak nie saak wat gebeur nie, ek is nog steeds bereid om dit te doen omdat ek glo in myself, en omdat ek glo in die saak en omdat ek glo in die groep. En omdat ek dink dat ek vanuit my eie persoonlike vermoëns en oortuigings dalk vir die groep as sodanig iets kan beteken en hulle dalk kan verhef of ... érens tot op 'n punt kan bring waar hulle eerste wil wees.

**Navorser:** Brei uit oor jou gekose leierskap rol.

**RESP A:** Hoekom is ek as leier gekies?

Ek het al baie gewonder daaroor want ... want ... partykeer dink ek by myself het ek nogal 'n swak selfbeeld. Ek het nie altyd soveel vertrou in myself nie. Maar ek dink tog in 'n baie groot mate ... em ... kan mense jou dadelik raaksien. En ek dink omdat ek vanuit 'n baie sterk ... ek dink my huislike omstandighede, dit is nie noodwendig 'n vereiste dat 'n mens uit 'n sterk huislike agtergrond uit moet kom nie. Enigiemand anders wat dalk uit swakker omstandighede uit kom kan
dalk ook 'n sterk leier wees, maar ek dink die feit dat ek ges ... 'n goeie skoling gehad het en 'n baie goeie opvoeding gehad het en baie geleenthede in die lewe gehad het het van my 'n sterk persoon gemaak. En dit het gemaak dat ek ook ... die vermoëns gekry het en party het gawes en talente gekry het al lat mense bereid was om hulle vertroue in my te plaas en my in 'n leierskapsposisie te plaas. Ek het dit al baie ook teegskom dat mense nie bereid was om my in 'n leierskaps posisie te plaas nie, juist oor populariteit of omdat 'n mens nie in die regte kringle beweeg of die regte ding doen soos wat ... die groter groep nou sou van jou verwag om te doen nie. Maar in daardie sin dink ek tog ook beskou baie mense my as 'n leier, omdat ek bereid is om dit te aanvaar en nog steeds ... myself nie totaal van die situasie te onttrek nie, maar nog steeds te kyk wat kan ek bydra om die anner persoon wat dan nou eerder gekies is bo my te help om sy ... om die beste te doen wat hy kan.

Navorser: Wat nog kan jy my vertel van leierskap?

RESP A: Sjoe. Van leierskap. (LANG POUSE)

Ek kan net een ding noem. Ek het gevind ... em ... op universiteit veral .. op skool nie so erg nie omdat mens gebind is aan spesifieke jare en so aan. Op universiteit veral het ek gevind dat ... dat mense se ... "ceilings" van leierskap het ... verswak as mens dit nou in so 'n mate ...
in so 'n sin kan noem. Veral op universiteit is dit baie meer gekoppel aan populariteit en so aan en ... dis gekoppel aan die hele tyd gees. Mense se siening van po ... mense se siening van leierskap, nie net in die land nie, maar ook op universiteit, is ... is geweldig gekoppel aan die hele tyd gees en mense se sienings van die omstandighede waarin hulle hulself bevind of die situasie waarin hulle verkeer of die ambisies wat hulle het. Dit gaan nie noodwendig oor een persoon se leierskaps-eienskappe nie. Eh ... in daardie sin is die meerderheid, die groep wat dan nou die leier moet kies dink ek is in daai per ... in daai opsig is hulle baie bevooroordeeld en geweldig sefsugtig, omdat hulle 'n persoon wil hê wat vir hulle gaan doen wat hulle wil he. (POUSE)

Dat hulle nie noodwendig iemand gaan kry wat die persoon langs hulle sê be ... die persoon langs hulle se behoeftes gaan voorsien nie, maar in hulle eie behoeftes. Terwyl 'n mens juis ... em ... meinsensiens 'n leier moet kry wat 'n breë siening het, wat bereid is om in die algemeen die hele groep te probeer bevredig sonder om enigiemand te na te kom of sonder om sy eie beginsels en oortuigings te verloor.

Navorser: Kan jy nogmaals bietjie uitbrei oor die woordjie tyd gees hier op kampus?

RESP A: Hier op kampus spesifiek? Em ... (POUSE)
Goed. Een ding waaroor ek bly is op kampus is dat die tyd gees is nie baie polities georiënteer nie. Dis baie meer ... mens georiënteer in die sin van populariteit.

Dat ... en ek dink dit het baie te doen ook met die tipe kampus wat ons het. Die tipe kursusse wat ons op kampus het is kort kursusse. Dus ... studente bly nie baie lank hier nie. Hulle studeer vinnig 'n graad en dan gaan hulle uit in die wêreld, en daarom is dit ook baie jonger mense en nie noodwendig mense met soveel ervaring van die lewe en soveel ... kennis van die wêreld om hulle wat in a leierskapsposisie geplaas word nie. En ... en dit is wat ek bedoel met die hele tyd gees is dat ... dis ... dis mense wat ... wel dis ... baie van die studente hier is geweldig bevoorregte studente. Ons het nie baie minderbevoorregte studente, veral in die koshuis, daar's nie baie minderbevoorregte studente nie, daarom dis dus ook studente wat baie bederf is kan 'n mens in 'n mate sê, en daarom is hulle bevooroordeeld.

En die hele tyd gees wat ek bedoel ... spesifiek bedoel daarmee is dat hulle dan gaan vir populariteit en die hele idee van my ... die mense wat vir my iets gaan beteken. Nie die mense wat noodwendig goeie beginsels het of die mense wat noodwendig ... die welstand van die kampus of die posisie van die kampus en die res van die wêreld gaan bevorder nie.
So en ... juis omdat dit dan nou ook sulke kursusses is en die mense
gouer weg is is dit baie jonger mense wat in baie hoe leierskapsposisies
kom en hulle het nie noodwendig die ... kan 'n mens maar 'n woord soos
"savvy" gebruik ... hulle het nie noodwendig die ervaring, okay goed,
mens kan nou nie ervaring kry as jy nooit die geleenheid gebied word
nie, maar, hulle het nie genoeg blootstelling aan die hele opset nie. Wat
ek bedoel meinsiens is kampus die finale oorgang tussen jou kind
wees an jou volwasse wees. In jou ... dan in jou universiteit's loopbaan
moet jy baie geweldige belangrike besluite in jou lewe neem oor waar
jy wil heen gaan en wie jy wil wees veral en ek dink dit beïnvloed die
leierskap tot 'n groot mate.
Response Interviewing Respondent 11:

Resp 11: Okay, how do I experience leadership? ... I have to say ... leadership as a phenomena is only really to ... to ... to ... for me to realise that I am a leader. It's only really come about since being at RAU, being put in ... being put in leadership positions and then you realise for yourself, I am a leader ... and ... and ... and before at school you were leading and didn't realise it by ... by ... being a prefect or whatever.

You were leading and you didn't realise it. So ... and I've ... studied. In management you study leadership the whole time. So what would my ... my view be on leadership? Out of the textbook, ... I'd have to its ... my view on leadership is ... is that of a ... it's a democratic process ... it's ... it's more of a ... it's ... on a spectrum of leaders you get ... on the one side you get an autocratic leader right across to democratic in the middle, and on the right you get a ... fair type of leader. So I'd say my view on leadership is ... that it's a democratic process. It's a process of ... to give a textbook definition of leadership ... is ... it's using your resources, which are the people you're leading and...the money...
that you’ve got at your hand. To be able to utilise those resources to achieve your goal. Now if you’re on the SRC and your portfolio is sport...and your resources are your house committee members for sport, then you... how you’re gonna use these people to achieve your goal of organising sport on RAU campus.

... (LONG PAUSE). But another academic perspective would be the different types of leaderships you can get. You can get a... a theory on leadership is a great person theory. ... Now this leadership is born, he’s a born leader. He’s got certain characteristics to make him a great leader. Then you get other ones. A situational leader. In other words, a situation... he lead according to the situation. In a situation where you’re where you’re dealing with people with low skill level, low self-motivation, then you are gonna use a more autocratic leadership style. So it goes with the situation... And there’s another one, another type of leadership, ... which... which I wouldn’t really use... Mainly I’d... I’d say use a situational leadership style. So... very textbook orientated. That would mean when I am dealing with members of my house or members of my team that I’m leading, depends on how motivated they are. If they’re very motivated I’d use a... I use a more personal style. You know just with... they don’t be taught how to do the school (???). They don’t need to be told how to... how to write a report or whatever. So, it would be more motivational... keeping them informed, giving, delegating, giving them a... giving them trust... trust.
to do the ... to ... to-do the task they have to do ... That’s whereas ...
that was the...that ... that would be more motivated, more ... people with motivated better skills at the tasks that they have to do. Then you’re dealing with ...
... little children. Say I was coaching cricket, which I did in Alexandra or ...
... I mean Soweto, I’d ... I’d coach cricket and ... it would be little blacks. They were a bit undisciplined, they had a low skill level and ...
skills it didn’t help appealing to their sense of self-motivation for them to do the task. You had to whack them on the ass and say this is how you do autocratic style of leadership ... But then you’re not really a leader as such. You’re more of a ... you more of a ... teller.

You ... you tell the people how to do school. That’s not a leader. A leader is ... is utilising those people’s ... I don’t know, ability. They weren’t at that stage where they could be utilised, ... they just had to be utilised told what to do. So, in terms of leadership as I feel it’s more than that ... dealing with motivated people, dealing with more skilled people. skills Leading those people to find to find that ... to that objective that you’ve ...
... that you’ve ... that you’ve determined with the them.

That is my ... okay, that is my view on leadership. I’m a democratic type of leadership ... use my resources, I use the people to achieve the goals that I want to. I don’t ... I don’t see leadership as telling people what to do. (LONG PAUSE)
I don't see ... that's not leadership ... it's quite tricky. I kind of contradicted myself.

RESEARCHER: No problem, just continue.

Resp. 11: No, no. It's fine ... I'm just thinking. I ... I've given you two aspects. I said leadership is situational and I said ... and therefore we must adapt. But in the situation...you know you've got uneducated people where you... you got ... people that you have to lead, that don't have the skills, you use an autocratic type of style. But I don't see that really as autocratic leadership. That's more telling people what to do. Leadership comes in ... in a situation where you've educated people and you've got ... you got to utilise them, you've got to know them and ... they've got to know have part that's ... that's democratic. They've got to have part ... it's called participating management.

Okay, okay, another view on leadership is the difference between leadership and management ... it's not the same. Leadership is ... (PAUSE). Leadership and management differ definitely.

Management by definition is controlling, organising, planning and activating. Motivate. Where ... you know ... it's basically administration. Anyone with a ... or logical mind can be a manager. Leadership means knowing people. It means having a support base. Having these people
STATUS looking up to you and leading these people. Knowing these people intimately. Knowing how they think, what's gonna motivate them.

Leadership is ... you can be a great leader and a poor manager. I can... I can be a great leader but don’t know how to write a report or... or implement a planning strategy ... or plan ... a leader just goes about motivating those people. A leader can ... under ... under him he can have someone who is a great manager and that great manager will ... will then do all the ... all the ... you can say the ordered work. That's the ... the filing and the ... the other things a man should do. The leader solely motivates those people and takes them towards that goal they've determined ... (LONG PAUSE)

Now, another view on leadership ... Important thing that you do in leadership is your power base. This is again a very academic perspective. You ... you've got different types of power. If I'm chosen as president of my res., I've got that power. I've got ... I've got ... power because of my position. I've got power to say listen you can't do that. Because as coach over cricketers in Alexandra ... as coach I'm allowed to whack the guy on the bum and say, listen, you're not paying attention, hurry up. That's position power. That's very ... you know ... I'm a policeman. I can tell you you can't do that. Then you get a reward power. Because I'm in a position as coach I'm allowed to say, congratulations, well done! You can ... you don't have to run around
the field now, or I can give him a reward. I can ... I can push him up the
batch now. That's another type of power .... And those are on the one
end of the scale. On the other end of the scale, you've got this... this...
it's a kind of power because people respect you. Because you're an
expert. People respect you as their coach. He knows what he's doing,
therefore I'm gonna listen to him. Not I have to listen, because I want

And that falls again ... that falls in with my situation of leadership. When
you're dealing with people with high skilled ... high skilled people, you're skills
very motivated. The power that you wanna use over those people is power
more of an expert power. The people are looking up to you because they respect you, they realise that you have got the skills ... (PAUSE) skills
That's the kind of ... leadership style I like to implement. Okay, that's
how I see leadership.

I live out leadership by example ... I can do it by an example. There's exama
different examples that I've had. I've had example ... like I've the
example of in Soweto. I'm dealing with a totally different kind of ...
follower. I will ... when I'm dealing with ... with people who haven't got
the skills I ... I tell them, this is how you do the skill. I use a high ... high
task. It's called a task relationship understanding. You do the skill in
this way and you do that like I say you know, or else I'm gonna whack
autocratic you on the bum ... (PAUSE)
The kind of power I use is the power of position. I'm the coach. So I tell them, I'm coach...if you don't...if you don't listen to me I'm gonna tell the teacher and he's gonna come back and he's gonna...he's gonna whack you. He's gonna give you a bit of a...So that's how...that's how specifically view my leadership and in that...in that way.

...Then another case would be which I've said towards the middle, is when I was...say I was house president of my residence. I've got 200...students that I've got to lead their extramural activities in the res and make sure that the res. functions...Students are...are more my peers...So I'd have to use a mixture, a combination of my position as house president.

That's my power base at that...that position. I'm allowed to tell.....I can tell them and they can just think...students...they can say, I don't care, I don't listen to you. So you have to use a more...a kind of...participative approach, like I mentioned...Then they'll listen to you. You have to get them to wanna work with you. You have to get them to

(LONG PAUSE), ja.

You have...you have to get them to achieve...to achieve the goals that they have decided on. That's a...participative...I mean...they've decided on those goals and together you're gonna achieve it...So in the res there could mean...in order to lead...lead a res. of 200 people of

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your own peers, it doesn't help that ... that you're not \textit{popular}. And lots of people say to me, a \textit{popular} leader is not always a good leader and I have to disagree in some respects. Without ... without the ... the \textit{support} of your friends, genuine \textit{support}, not ... not \textit{support} because you \textit{support} ... you are the president, but \textit{support} because they ... they like you. That is how you lead people ... in that ... in that situation ... So you know, people say that ... I've seen it happen before, a guy is chosen because he's got great \textit{skills}, he's a ... he's a good manager and everything like that, but he's got no \textit{support} from his ... from his fellow members in the res. or in the team or whatever, a captain and ... and ... and he's not successful at all. It's an unpleasant situation for the people being led but if you've got a \textit{popular} \textit{support} base and ... and they're with you all the way and you ... you do efforts to ... to know them and to get involved personally with them, that's the way to lead on that situation.

And those are the two situations. And then there's a final situation. Say I'm on the SRC and I'm dealing with RAU's management. You're sitting in a ... you're sitting in a ... you're sitting in a ... in a meeting with... with the management of RAU. You're sitting and you're deciding on ... parking. That's a big problem at RAU. You're deciding on the lack of facilities or how to spend funds, I think you should build more libraries or build more classrooms or build another registration or whatever. You've got no \textit{power} from your \textit{position}. Really, you're a ... You haven't really ... they've got the \textit{power}. They're the ones holding the key, so
you've got to use a different kind of leadership skill ... Once again the chairman by the situation ... it's a ... it's a ... it's a ... it's a kind of leadership that they've got to respect you for your knowledge. (LONG PAUSE)

You can't be a pushover so you have to be forceful, you have to ... you have to not be scared to ... to make a mistake. You've got to say, listen I disagree. You've got to speak up and ... and ... and that's another kind. Although you're not leading people, you ... you're representing people and you ... there is a way. As a student you can lead a meeting with management ... Although I wasn't really faced with that much ... that many situations, but another aspect of leadership. And ... and how I would experience it.

I was ... I would ... I would say to myself, I was thinking about point of view and I'm ... I'm not scared to ... to ... to raise my point of view, and you know you'd sit there in a meeting and ... the management would say something and ... and you ... they would say something that as a representative of the students, you couldn't, you just couldn't allow. They would say we are gonna close sport facilities on Saturdays, and now my ... I'm ... I'm supposed to represent people on sport. I'd say, but that's unfair. I'm a representative from students. I think that this and this and this. I think that ... that ... that facilities should be open on Saturday. What about the people in res? What are they gonna do? I think that the
parking is totally inadequate like it was at RAU. I think that you should rather spend money on parking than putting up this amazing useless gate fence around the whole university. That was the situation you know, and you had to stand up and they say but this and this is the situation and they say ... and they say listen in a typical Afrikaans kind of way. Listen who do you think you are supposed to be? ... I represent 10 000 students. That's my support base ... So you have to ... you have support to stand up and you have to be forceful. But you can't use that kind of leadership style ... as I refer back to the other situation in res. Cause I've got so uphill. You know ... how do I express. That's basically it.

... Like I said in the beginning ... I don't like ... I like leadership style where you ... where you participate and you ... you utilise those people. I ... I ... I was best outsider in the situation where I was leading people of my own age ... (LONG PAUSE) through ... through getting to know them. Through them respecting me and ... together achieving a certain goal. And ... and there's ... I think there's one last thing that I need to ... I need to mention is ... is that's it's hard working, motivation ... motivation on ... on the leader's behalf ... You won't find one leader today ... leader that isn't hard working. He has to be the person who gets up the earliest. He has ... he's the person who goes to bed the latest. He has to be that person that ... that can lead by example. He's ... he's ... he does all this leadership. He's at all the sport matches. He's ... he's at whatever and he still manages to pass his academics ... in other words,
he's the guy whose studying at two o'clock in the morning ... two o'clock in the morning and he's got a test the next day, and he's started studying at twelve because he had a function to go to or he had a meeting whatever. You have to be the most hard working person. You can't ... I don't know a leader that isn't hard working.

Researcher: Why were you chosen as a leader?

Resp. 11: Why was I chosen as a leader? ... (LONG PAUSE) ... You can't ask a question unless you are referring to a position. Why was I chosen as leader of house president or why was I chosen as leader of ... why was I chosen to the SRC? ... Or why am I a leader? What do you wanna know?

Researcher: What characteristics did you display of leadership?

Resp. 11 First of all, it's my ... it's my loyalty to a ... to a place. At school...at school ... that was my life. I lived at school. I played sport until five o'clock. Five o'clock I went home, ate, came back for a play, whatever in the evening. I was high profile. I did ... I was involved in everything. I knew everybody ... And I achieved in ... in those activities. Whether... I achieved, say it was rugby. I achieved in rugby and I played well... and I was chosen as captain. But there were also people who played well ... as well as me, but they weren't they didn't have those leadership
skills. So ... a priority of leadership obviously is to have to be competent in the skills that you ... in that skill. If it's ... if you're a captain of a team you ... it doesn't help you have a great leader but he's a useless player, goes it's gonna be a mess. So you ... in other words, a prerequisite for a leader obviously is to have those skills and I had ... to ... I ... I presume I had those skills as ... as a rugby player I had those skills as rugby player and then I had leadership skills.

Then at residence ... at residence in the first year ... in my first year I knew ... I knew I had the skills, self-belief. I knew I had the skills to be ... to become on the house committee, but I wasn't chosen in my first year and that was quite devastating. Because I had the skills but didn't have the support base from the people. People ... I wasn't well known enough. I was a first year. I was English speaking. I didn't you know ... it was ... I had a bit of resistance there. Then ... I kept at it and in my second year I had a chance to ... they had a BI-election cause some people resigned and I had a chance to get on ... And then ... and that's where it all started at RAU for me. I got on ... I had a ... a task to organise and it was brilliant. It was ... it went really, really well and people realised, hell this is it ... and within two months they had the ... the final election and I was house president. And ... and it was unheard of for ... for an English speaking person in second year ... studying sports management I suppose I wasn't a ... a larny lawyer or an accountant or whatever. I was studying sports management. It was
unheard of for ... I was the youngest, I think I've been the youngest house president and ... and ... I still haven't answered the question I suppose?

Researcher: Just continue you are doing fine.

Resp. 11: And that was that. Then ... you know ... there I was at nineteen years old the ... and the guy on my house committee was studying his ... his doctorate, he was twenty-five.

Researcher: You were selected above him, why?

Resp.11: Ja. No the people selected me to ... to lead this ... this group of our people, you know, and then to lead the res of 200 you know what I mean? And there ... in ... in ... in this ... in this same committee of mine, there was this guy who had been on ... who'd stood against me, he was twenty-four. He was ... so I had to lead him, and then ... and ... and ... I've never really ... it was such a ... a wide range of people. And then on the committee itself were two of my friends. I had to ... to try and tell your friends to ... you did a ... you did a useless job or whatever, you know what I mean. And then on the other ... then I had this guy he ... he was very...how can I say he was...against you know the res and the way it was being run. He was against ... anti-establishment. He wanted ... he wanted to this and that. He thought that this and this structure
was wrong and he wanted to change it so he had ... its called diversity management. That was also involved there. But in the end I ... I got it right ... And ... being a high profile person on campus ... and being a person whose ... whose a people's kind of person, that's what I, I'm a ... I decided that I would stand for the SRC and I wanted to stand for sport. And ... I wouldn't have been chosen if I ... if I ... if I was an art ... anarty kind of person. But I ... I studied sports management ... I played sports on campus. I was very ... very ... well known from sports on campus. So ... in other words, I had the skills to be a sport manager. In other words, I played sport. I was a ... I studied sports management, going into my honours and ... and I was ... I had the support of the people, and they knew I could do the job. So all these aspects were ... that's why I was chosen on the SRC. In the SRC you can be the most brilliant person, you can have the longest CV. If you're not known by the people, you're not gonna make it ... And that's very important.

I think in politics you can be brilliant, but if you’re not standing for the right party ... if you're not ... if you don't have the right support base, you not gonna make it. And ... leaders are naive if they don't realise that. If they don't realise the politics involved in leadership. You can be as idealistic say as you want. You can ... you can ... but if you don't have supporters, you're not gonna get anywhere.
APPENDIX F

IDENTIFICATION OF THESES

The following were important themes, categories and sub-categories:

Interpersonal relationships

Authority

Principles

Goal-directedness

Listening

Responsibility

Adaptability

Effort

Innate
Involvement

Unsure

Setting an example

Ability

Diversity

Trust

Respect

Learn

Motivation

Democratic

Self-knowledge

Willingness
Enriching

Organisation

Decision-making

Status

Popularity

Visibility

Stability

Insight

Interactional

Accommodation

Anxiety

Position
Own identity

Judgements

Busy

Challenge

Openness

Approval

Discipline

Flexibility

Process

Confidential

Educated

Evoked
Black and white
Initiator
Director
Visibility
Tolerance
Consulting
Belonging
Congruence
Team
Haven
Honesty
Projection
Humility

Dependability

Expressive

Versatile

Inspire

Even-temperedness

Sense of humour

Dedication

Planning

Time-focus

Impatience

High expectations
Annoyance

Driving

Acquired

Bestowed

Evolving

Change

Foster growth

Open-mindedness

Commitment

Disinhibition

Merit

Divergence
Directional

Outspoken

Disciplinary

Social skills

Restricted

Understanding

Self-sacrificing

Delegate

Stressful

God-given

Enjoyable

Exposure
Availability

Lead

Behaviour

Problem-solver

Values

Protect

Active

Self-discipline

Discipline

Acknowledgement

Communication

Knowledge of human nature
Expert knowledge

Attitude.
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