

CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the study of leadership has become quite intense and diversified (Northouse, 2001: 1-2). Literally thousands of empirical investigations on leaders have been conducted over the past 75 years, but still there is no clarity as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders or even effective leaders from ineffective leaders (Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 4). Thus many questions on the concept remain unanswered and problems remain unsolved. What is intriguing, though, is that effective leadership has become a *sine-qua-non* in modern-day organisations (Yukl, 1998: 438). Without effective leadership, therefore, the organisation's survival in times of turbulence and change is almost unthinkable. It is thus imperative upon organisations to ensure that effective, and for that matter better, leadership is in place to provide direction and enable organisations to deal effectively and efficiently with change.

Leadership cannot be studied in isolation where different skills, competencies, styles, and behaviours are examined. It is studied within particular contexts or in relation to some other constructs/variables. For example, some studies have involved an investigation of the effect of transformational leadership on organisational culture (Van Tonder, 1998), essential transformational leadership skills to mobilise people (Handford, 1999), the relationship between certain personality traits and transformational leadership (Van Rensburg & Crous, 2000), and locus of control and transformational leadership (Van Staden, Scheepers & Rieger, 2000).

Change is one such variable that can provide the context within which leadership can be studied (File, 2000: 22). Organisations are constantly in a state of change, although in varying magnitudes, since change is itself a "dynamic and ongoing process" (Van Rooyen, 2000: 65). The important issue, however, is that change must be managed. In order to do so effectively and efficiently, the exhibition of certain leadership behaviours becomes a prerequisite.

This chapter presents a scientific orientation to the research.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

The problem dealt with pertains to an investigation into the apparent lack of leadership among leaders in the higher education (HE) sector in South Africa (SA). In particular, the research investigates the perception that there is a lack of transformational leadership among leaders in public institutions of higher learning in SA. This lack of transformational leadership compromises the leaders' ability to manage change successfully.

Burns (1999) cited in Shriberg, Shriberg and Lloyd (2002: 207) conceptualised leadership as occurring in two forms, viz. transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership, on the one hand, involves exchanges/transactions between the leader and the follower. It is better – an exchange of wants between the two parties. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, “occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interest of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group, and when they steer their employees to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group” (Bass, 1995: 629). Transformational leaders are change agents (Tichy & Devanna, 1990 cited in Northouse, 2001: 143). As a result, transformational leadership is appropriate to pursue further in the context of change.

Effective transformational leadership behaviours for managing change will be viewed within the changing HE landscape in SA in which institutions of higher learning are being merged or incorporated. These mergers and incorporations are taking place within the context of an Act of Parliament, viz. the Higher Education Act, Act no. 101 of 1997. One of the potential consequences of these mergers and incorporations is that the newly formed institutions may be challenged by a lack of appropriate leadership. The view that a lack of leadership is one of the root causes of institutions currently finding themselves in a precarious situation is widely supported by scholars and role-players in the HE sector:

“Owing to a lack of leadership and management capacity, these institutions find it difficult to establish a new direction for themselves and to attract new funds” (Cloete, Bunting & Kulati, 2000: 9).

“...some of our vice-chancellors are still using historical disadvantage as an unconvincing cover for the mess they have caused in their tertiary education institutions” (Minister of Education in Business Day of 12 March 1999, cited in Cloete *et al.*, 2000: 10).

“Besides the rate of change in the sector there are also, as seen from the continuous media coverage, a number of universities and technikons in some form of financial or leadership crisis. Over the past years one of the main reasons given for these crises was outstanding student fees. However, the reasons now alluded to are those of limited management capacity and mismanagement” (Brunyee, 2001: 8).

“It has been recognised that one of the major failings of the South African HE sector, also delaying its effective transformation, is a shortage of skilled leadership, problematic governance and a lack of adequate management capacity” (Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme, 2004).

The apparent lack of leadership behaviours is not completely unfounded in the HE sector, because the concept of leadership is itself a novel concept to this sector. The sector has instead been characterised by a tradition of administration rather than of leadership (Cloete *et al.*, 2000: 10). It is thus understandable, from this point of view, why leadership is perceived as being *ad hoc*, bringing about panic in times of change.

The apparent leadership problem should be viewed within the appropriate context: The post-1994 era has been characterised by the promulgation of various pieces of legislation in all public spheres, the HE sector included (Strydom & Hay, 2001: 82). The purpose of legislation is to overhaul the social, political, cultural and economic institutions so as to align them with the new democratic dispensation. The HE sector in

particular has seen various pieces of legislation come into being so as to bring about meaningful transformation of the sector (Gultig, 2000: 40-41; Strydom & Hay, 2001: 82).

The transformation process began with the establishment of the National Commission on Higher Education in 1995, which put together a document entitled *Framework for the Transformation of Higher Education* to form a basis for the government's policy on HE (Gultig, 2000: 41). This was followed by the White Paper in 1997 entitled *A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education* (Brunyee, 2001: 9). Subsequent to the White Paper, the Higher Education Act, Act no. 101, was promulgated in 1997 (Reddy, 2000: 80), followed by the National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) in 2001 (Jansen, 2001: 5) which outlines the framework mechanisms for implementing and realising the policy goals of the White Paper.

There is a golden thread that connects all of these legislative documents, which aim to bring about transformation of the HE sector in SA. It is the NPHE that proposes the mergers and incorporations of public HE institutions, which is "...the most ambitious and comprehensive change programme in the world today" (Frans van Vught, rector of the University of Twente and former director of the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies, quoted by Cloete *et al.*, 2000: 2).

Government has played its part in enacting legislation and providing policies for transforming the HE sector. However, it remains mum on how the institutions should be led and the role that leadership should play in the change process, let alone articulating the kinds of behaviours needed in leading the transformation agenda. "There is hardly any mention, either in legislation or in government pronouncements, of the role the government would like to see institutional leaders playing, in driving or initiating change" (Cloete *et al.*, 2000: 12). Perhaps, as legislation states, the Ministry does not wish to micro-manage HE institutions, and so institutions are given the liberty to manage their own affairs.

The HE sector has been undergoing change in various ways, particularly since 1994,

including the influx of black students into historically white institutions (Gultig, 2000: 44), regional collaboration and formations of consortia among institutions (Hay, Fourie & Hay, 2001: 101; Reddy, 2000: 81-84;), and imperatives on institutional governance enshrined in the Higher Education Act, Act no. 101 of 1997 (File, 2000: 30-31; Nadison, 2000: 71-73).

This research will focus on the most recent developments in the sector, which have been articulated in the NPHE and approved by cabinet and gazetted on 9 March 2001, viz. the mergers and incorporations of different institutions. This is an almost inconceivable change programme on the largest scale the world has seen in recent times. But are the leaders of these institutions ready to deal with such massive change and do they exhibit the necessary leadership behaviours to do so?

The mergers and incorporations entail an unprecedented and complicated change programme in the South African HE sector. Minute change is in itself strenuous and quite arduous to deal with. It is therefore unquestionable that change of such a colossal magnitude relies for its success on leadership that is quite competent in terms of being visionary, charismatic, inspiring, intellectually stimulating, and capable of making provision for individualised consideration (Bass, 1995: 629-630). Without this kind of transformational leadership the entire change exercise, with its accompanying huge costs and time consumption, would be a futile exercise. Yet the perception has been that many institutions failed primarily because of a lack of leadership. If the question of leadership were not addressed in the initial stages of the change process, then the purpose of change would not be realised.

Brunyee (2001: 11) argues that presently the HE sector is experiencing what he terms "discontinuous change" and that this does not accommodate learning. He quotes Limerick and Cunnington (1993: 50) as suggesting that an institution is experiencing discontinuous change when the institution's past does not prepare it for the future. As a result, traditional management and leadership approaches cannot be successfully applied. What these scholars say has some element of truth. Leadership in the sector has hitherto been perceived as being haphazard and the approaches followed quite

antiquated. In other words, leadership has not been commensurate with the rapid developments that have been taking place in the sector over the past decade or so. With the mammoth change process taking place, the apparently failed leadership practices cannot be brought on board to tackle this change process.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH

The research is necessary as a result of the negative perception about leadership in the HE sector, which has all along been taken for granted. Firstly, leaders have been appointed to leadership positions without having been coached or trained in the necessary leadership behaviours so as to enable them to tackle leadership issues with relative ease. With regard to top echelons in the institution, for example, a prerequisite is mostly a doctoral degree in any field of study with accompanying publications. Some are appointed to these positions for political reasons, and HE institutions have become political animals (Africa, 2000: 95). No specific leadership training, expertise or competence is required as a prerequisite for entry to these positions. Academics with political clout suitable for stakeholders, rather than leaders, are appointed to leadership positions. It is simply assumed that a doctoral degree, coupled with political muscle, will make one an efficient leader. This is a fallacy and a delusion of grandeur, to say the least. That is why leadership in these institutions has been perceived to be such a disappointing failure.

Secondly, according to *Cloete et al.* (2000: 10), the sector has developed a culture and tradition of *administration* rather than *management*. During the apartheid era, for instance, historically white institutions were characterised by weak supervision, whereas historically black institutions were characterised by authoritarian control on the part of the state. That is why these institutions were managed through an administrative fiat where institutional managers' roles were only limited to day-to-day administrative operations instead of the strategic leadership of institutions.

The two approaches to leadership threw many institutions into disarray. Given this state of affairs, how would such apparently *ad hoc* leadership lead the process of change? The government's good intentions of transforming the sector would result in chaos

rather than the envisaged effectiveness and efficiency of the system. This research will provide a significant departure from this practice and provide a more serious and focused approach to the question of leadership in the sector.

The value that the research would add would be that of solving the perceived problem of leadership in the sector. It is hoped that leaders coached in transformational leadership behaviours would be able to lead the change process in the most efficient manner possible, and that they would have the capacity to implement the many changes ranging from overcoming the apartheid-induced divide between a historically white and a historically black institution to developing programmes to meet the human resources needs of the region, as envisaged in the *Framework for the Transformation of Higher Education* and the NPHE. It is also hoped that the new institutions will be highly efficient in service delivery and the attainment of goals, with the result that they will attain global competitive advantage. The research would also add value to the general field of leadership and change management in a broader field of human resources management.

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES



1.4.1 General aim

The aim of the research was to establish the following among leaders in the HE sector:

1. the frequency of exhibition of transformational leadership *behaviours*;
2. the frequency of exhibition of transformational leadership; and
3. the level of transformational leadership.

1.4.2 Objectives

The research attempted to establish the following among leaders in the HE sector:

1. the frequency of exhibition of transactional leadership behaviours;
2. the frequency of exhibition of laissez-faire leadership;
3. the level of transactional leadership;
4. the level of laissez-faire leadership;
5. the strengths of transformational leaders;
6. the weaknesses of transformational leaders;
7. the past events that most influenced the transformational leaders' leadership approach;
8. the critical points in the transformational leaders' careers that could have contributed to making them transformational leaders; and
9. the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader.

1.4.3 Questions investigated

The following questions attempted to address the research problem. The answers to these questions will be provided by the literature survey and the empirical study.

The *literature survey* answered the following questions relative to the HE sector:

1. Which organisational change model is the most appropriate and adequate for providing the best theoretical explanation of large-scale organisational change (LSOC)?
2. Which theoretical framework on transformational and transactional leadership is

appropriate and adequate for addressing the problem of leadership?

3. Which descriptive research on transformational leadership is appropriate and adequate for addressing the problem of leadership?

The *empirical study* answered the following questions relative to the HE sector:

1. What is the average frequency of exhibition of transformational leadership behaviours?
2. What is the average frequency of exhibition of transactional leadership behaviours?
3. What is the frequency of exhibition of transformational leadership?
4. What is the frequency of exhibition of transactional leadership?
5. What is the frequency of exhibition of laissez-faire leadership?
6. What is the level of transformational leadership?
7. What is the level of transactional leadership?
8. What is the level of laissez-faire leadership?
9. What are the strengths of transformational leaders?
10. What are the weaknesses of transformational leaders?
11. What past events most influenced the transformational leaders' leadership approach?
12. What were the critical points in the transformational leaders' careers?

13. What are the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader?

1.5 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

This research focuses on the post-industrial leadership or “new leadership” paradigm (Bryman, 1992 cited in Northouse, 2001: 131), which is an embodiment of several models of leadership, viz. the servant leadership model, the transformational leadership model, and the critical model of leadership (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 219). There has therefore been a paradigm shift in leadership from the industrial to the post-industrial paradigm.

The research is based mostly on transformational leadership as belonging to the post-industrial leadership paradigm. Rost and Smith (1992) cited in Swanepoel, Erasmus, van Wyk and Schenk (2000: 388) propose that for a better understanding of the concept of leadership, leadership theory must move away from the industrial leadership paradigm, which emphasises what is peripheral to the nature and content of leadership, to the post-industrial leadership paradigm. The peripheral aspects would include, *inter alia*, such issues as traits, personality characteristics, and nature or nurture. The focus of this research was not on these peripheral aspects but on transformational leadership as a *change process*.

The transformational leadership approach describes how leaders can initiate, develop and carry out significant changes in organisations (Northouse, 2001: 144) and how transformational leaders are *change agents* (Tichy & Devanna, 1990 cited in Northouse, 2001: 143). They set out to empower followers and nurture them to change and also to become strong role models for their followers. It would seem that transformational leadership and organisational change are mutually intertwined. For efficient organisational change to take place, transformational leadership behaviours are required, and for transformational leadership behaviours to be effectively exhibited, there has to be a need for organisational change.

Central to the transformational leadership theory is Bass and Avolio's (1994) Full Range of Leadership Styles (FRL), which measures three leadership styles, viz. transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Northouse, 2001: 156). Fundamental to the Full Range of Leadership model is that every leader exhibits each style to some extent and also that the model represents how frequently a leader exhibits a particular style of leadership (Bass, 1998: 7).

The transformational leadership theories and research that emanate from this paradigm and to which reference will be made throughout this research are as follows: Burns (1978), Bass (1985), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Tichy and Devanna (1986).

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design, which is exploratory in nature, is constituted by the literature survey and the empirical study.

1.6.1 Literature survey

The literature survey was done to achieve a threefold objective:

Firstly, a survey of five behaviour-oriented organisational change models was conducted, with a view to ascertaining their appropriateness and adequacy in explaining the LSOC in the South African HE sector. Three textbook models (Lewin's Three-phase Change Model, the Action Research Model, and Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research), contingency models, and the contextualist model were critically reviewed. The review revealed that the textbook and contingency models are inappropriate and inadequate when it comes to addressing the question of LSOC in the HE sector, as they are ahistorical, acontextual, and aprocessual in character. An argument is presented that the contextualist model is appropriate and adequate when it comes to addressing the problem, because it takes into account the historical, contextual, and processual nature of change. A paradigm shift is recommended where there should be some significant

departure from reliance on textbook models – particularly Lewin’s Three-phase Change Model, and contingency models – to a contextualist model.

Secondly, two theories on transformational and transactional leadership were surveyed, viz. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985). The survey was done with a view to ascertaining their appropriateness and adequacy when it comes to addressing the problem of leadership in the HE sector. Bass’ theory was deemed appropriate and adequate for addressing the research problem, as it firstly focuses on the transformational/transactional continuum and secondly it is the one upon which the quantitative research instrument is based, among others.

Thirdly, two descriptive research projects on transformational leadership were surveyed, viz. Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Tichy and Devanna (1986). The survey was done with a view to also ascertaining their appropriateness and adequacy when it comes to addressing the problem of leadership in the HE sector. The research by Bennis and Nanus was deemed appropriate, firstly for conducting interviews and secondly for applying the hermeneutic interpretation of the interview results.



1.6.2 Empirical study

The research involved methodological triangulation in that both the quantitative and qualitative approaches were followed. According to Dreyer (1994: 283-284), the elements of the research design, viz. hypothesis formulation, measurement, sampling, etc., are specified prior to data collection in experiments and surveys. However, in qualitative research, design elements are usually worked out during the course of the study. A qualitative approach has the potential to supplement and reorient the current understanding of the problem at hand.

Following on Creswell (1994: 177) and Lee (1999: 13), the design used is a *dominant-less-dominant design* in that this research is presented within a single, dominant quantitative paradigm with just one small component of the overall research drawn from the alternative qualitative paradigm. The triangulation is, in essence, sequential as

opposed to being simultaneous. It is sequential in the sense that the use of the interview is informed by and based on the results of the questionnaire.

The quantitative study involved administering the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to leaders in the different HE institutions in SA. The leaders were interviewed on the basis of the high scores that leaders achieved on transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ. The purpose of the interview was to determine the leaders' strengths and weaknesses, past events that influenced their leadership approach, critical points in their careers, as well as the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader.

1.7 RESEARCH METHOD

1.7.1 Population and sample

The population consists of *senior leaders* within the 36 public HE institutions in SA. Such leaders include top strategic leaders, as well as academic and support services leaders. The population therefore includes all levels of leadership, from tactical-operational to strategic levels. The senior leaders, in general, include the following categories of leadership: Vice-chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors, registrars, executive deans, deans, heads/chairs of departments/schools, executive directors, chief directors, senior directors, directors, managers and campus heads.

Brunyee (2001: 12) claims that there are approximately 400 top managers in the 36 institutions of higher learning in SA. The problem with Brunyee's approximation is that this scholar does not provide an explanation of what is meant by "top managers". Nevertheless, with this categorisation of leaders in this research, it is estimated that the population is 2340.

1.7.1.1 Sample for phase 1 – quantitative study

Purposive sampling was used for the quantitative study. That is, the selection of the subjects was purposive as opposed to being random or involving the application of

probability methods (Dreyer, 1994: 273). This, in essence, means that a sample was selected from which one could learn the most. The subjects were those with a certain level of experience or expertise. The subjects were thus chosen according to their leadership expertise or role from the vice-chancellor to the head of department. In this way, “criterion-based sampling” was used (Dreyer, 1994: 273). This involves establishing certain criteria or standards that must be met before a subject can be included in the research.

Sampling was done as follows: Firstly, the primary sampling units were identified. The sample was drawn from a cross-section of the HE institutions involved in the merger and incorporation processes. Since the number of institutions has been reduced from 36 to 23 through mergers and incorporations as stipulated in the NPHE (Department of Education, 2001) seven institutions were selected as the primary sampling units in this research.

The seven institutions or primary sampling units consist of two institutions in the Free State province, viz. the University of the Free State (which has incorporated the Qwaqwa campus of the University of the North and the Bloemfontein campus of Vista University), the Technikon Free State (which has incorporated the Welkom campus of Vista University); two institutions in the North West Province, viz. Potchefstroom University and the University of North West (which have merged and incorporated the Sebokeng campus of Vista University); and two institutions in the Gauteng province, viz. Rand Afrikaans University (which has incorporated the Soweto and East Rand campuses of Vista University) and Technikon Witwatersrand. These two institutions merged in 2005 after the initial incorporation of the two Vista campuses.

The choice of the institutions in three provinces was to ensure that there was no influence of any geopolitical factors in addressing the problem. Furthermore, Vista University’s eight satellite campuses scattered across the country ensured geographical representation of institutions. It was hoped that seven institutions out of 23 would be sufficiently representative to make generalisations to the entire HE sector.

Secondly, the secondary or final sampling units were identified. These secondary sampling units were selected from the seven institutions that were identified as the primary sampling units. The lists containing the particulars of the subjects in the sample were obtained in two ways: Firstly, a letter was written to the human resources (HR) director of each participating institution requesting those particulars. Secondly, the lists were retrieved from the institutions' websites.

A headcount of the leaders in the categories identified, based on the lists obtained from the institutions' HR directors and websites, yielded an approximated total of 460 subjects, or an average of 65 subjects per institution.

1.7.1.2 Sample for phase 2 – qualitative study

Purposive sampling was also used for the qualitative study. The primary sampling units consisted of three institutions in the Free State province, viz. the Technikon Free State, the University of the Free State, and the Bloemfontein campus of Vista University, as well as two institutions in the Gauteng province, viz. Rand Afrikaans University and Technikon Witwatersrand. There was no need to include the rest of the institutions surveyed in the quantitative study, as the qualitative study merely supplements the quantitative study in this research.

The secondary sampling units consisted of those subjects who achieved high scores on transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ. A headcount of leaders who achieved high scores on all transformational leadership behaviours yielded a total of 86, and 25 of these were interviewed.

1.7.2 Measurement instruments

The questionnaire and the semi-structured interview were used as measurement instruments for the quantitative and qualitative studies respectively.

1.7.2.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

This research used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) as the primary measurement instrument for the quantitative study. Since the MLQ has been revised and modified over the years (Den Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997: 24), this research used one of the most recent forms, viz. the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, form 6-S (MLQ-6S) developed by Bass and Avolio in 1992, which is, for that matter, a shortened form of the MLQ (Northouse, 2001: 155).

Organisations use the MLQ to systematically measure their transformational leadership style, and this instrument is the most widely used in this regard (Northouse, 2001: 154). It is the most researched and validated leadership instrument in the world (Tejeda, 2001: 32).

Research on the MLQ clearly demonstrates links between transformational leadership behaviours and desired organisational outcome such as successful change. This instrument has thus been applied in a wide range of organisational settings, as well as with leaders in different cultures (Bass, 1998: 8-9).

Although the MLQ is a 360° feedback questionnaire that provides leaders with an opportunity to receive assessment of their leadership style from multiple sources, in this research the MLQ process has involved the participant leaders completing a questionnaire on their own perceptions of the frequency of various leadership behaviours.

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a widely used technique for testing the psychometric characteristics of the MLQ (Avolio & Bass, 1999: 10). The transformational leadership scales comprise the following second-order factors: Idealised influence (attributed charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Tejeda, 2001: 41-42). The transactional scales comprise contingent reward and management-by-exception (active and passive). There is also a scale on laissez-faire leadership.

A number of descriptive statements are listed and the subjects are asked to judge how

frequently each statement applies to them. The questionnaire thus measures seven factors related to transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Their scores for each factor are determined by summing three specified items on the questionnaire.

1.7.2.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

The interview is undoubtedly the most common source of data in qualitative studies (Bryman, 2001: 312). Interviews range from the highly structured style in which questions are determined before the interview, to the open-ended conversational format (Burns, 2000: 422-426). The highly structured format is used primarily to gather socio-demographic information. This research adopted a person-to-person format and used a semi-structured interview.

The semi-structured interview consists of predetermined questions that ensure consistency and objectivity. The same interviewing procedure was used with different subjects in different institutions.

The interview conducted in this research was developed from descriptive, qualitative research on transformational leadership. Such research has provided considerable insight pertaining to the way in which leaders motivate followers and influence change in organisations (Yukl, 1998: 334). In particular, the interview was based on research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) who identified and interviewed *effective leaders* in an attempt to ascertain the characteristic behaviours, traits and influence processes (Yukl, 1998: 334).

Unlike in the quantitative study of this research where an existing measure was used as it was without any alterations, the measure used in the qualitative study, although based on previous research, is not exactly a replica of the measure in the research by Bennis and Nanus. There is thus some degree of flexibility and uniqueness in the interview as compared to the rigidly formulated items on the questionnaire. Furthermore, whilst the MLQ measured three dimensions of leadership styles, viz. transformational,

transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Northouse, 2001: 155), the interview assessed one dimension, viz. transformational leadership.

1.7.3 Data gathering

The questionnaire and the semi-structured interview were used as data-gathering instruments for the quantitative and qualitative studies respectively.

1.7.3.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

The MLQ-6S was used as an instrument to collect quantitative data and was self-administered. The questionnaires were initially administered electronically, as the subjects were geographically dispersed and scattered over a radius of 800 km, making face-to-face administration almost impossible. The electronic administration created many problems, however, such as, *inter alia*, having a sizeable number of leaders whose e-mail addresses were not listed on the web. This necessitated the administering of the questionnaires via the postal service.

The questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter that provided the necessary details about the study and contained a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. This was done to ensure that the subjects were not inconvenienced when they had to return the completed questionnaire. In order to ensure maximum return of questionnaires, an incentive was promised, namely that the subjects would be given a summary of the findings of the research once the research was completed. Once the deadline for the return of the questionnaires had elapsed by one week, questionnaires were again sent to those who had not responded, with the words “follow up” in bold print at the top of the cover letter.

A total of 399 questionnaires were sent out and 190 of them were returned, which constituted a response rate of 47.6%. This response rate was quite satisfactory and deemed sufficient for this research.

The returned questionnaires were scored to determine the subjects' level of

transformational leadership. In total, 86 subjects achieved high scores on all transformational leadership behaviours.

1.7.3.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

The interview was used as a follow-up and supplement to the questionnaire. A total of 25 subjects, who constituted 29% of those who achieved high scores on all transformational leadership behaviours (86) and 13.2% of the initial sample surveyed (190), were selected for the interview.

A letter was written to 36 of the 86 subjects requesting them to participate in the interview and providing the reason as to why they had been selected for an interview. Two weeks after dispatching the letters, a telephonic follow-up was made to enquire about receipt of the letters, as well as to schedule an appointment for the interview, preferably in the subjects' offices. A total of 11 subjects were either non-respondents or were unavailable for interviews, thus leaving a total of 25 who were available for interviews. Once appointments had been finalised, the interviews were conducted.



1.7.4 Data processing

Descriptive statistics were used for quantitative data processing, whilst meaning condensation and hermeneutic meaning interpretation were used for qualitative data processing.

1.7.4.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

Quantitative data processing involved the use of descriptive statistics in summarising patterns in the responses of people in the sample. Descriptive statistics were used for two purposes: Firstly, they were used to determine the frequency distribution of the data, i.e. how subjects responded to the items on the behaviours of the different leadership styles. Secondly, they were used to determine the measure of the central tendency (mean) and dispersion of the data (standard deviation), i.e. the mean and standard

deviation of the different leadership styles.

1.7.4.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

In processing qualitative data, the researcher's self played a significant role, and as such his identity, values and beliefs shaped by personal experiences and social background (Denscombe, 2000: 208-209) could not be completely divorced from the final product of interpretation. The researcher was therefore part of the qualitative data processing.

Following on Lee (1999: 89-94), two major modes of qualitative data analysis were employed, viz. *meaning condensation* and *hermeneutic meaning interpretation*.

Meaning condensation involved extracting, abridging and abstracting the most important themes from the interview texts. Data were thus reduced whilst simultaneously the most important themes were articulated from the data. The meaning was condensed into five basic stages: Firstly, the researcher read the entire set of interview transcripts; secondly, the researcher identified the *natural meaning units*; thirdly, the natural meaning units were defined and *thematised*; in the fourth instance the researcher interrogated the natural meaning units in terms of the specific purpose of the research; and lastly the concisely worded natural meaning units were integrated into a coherent and non-redundant structure.

Hermeneutic meaning interpretation required imposing meaning on the perspective from a pre-existing paradigm, viz. Bennis and Nanus' (1985) descriptive research on transformational leadership.

1.8 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken in the area of *Leadership in Performance and Change* within the broader field of Human Resources Management. It was limited to surveying and interviewing senior leaders on their leadership styles in 7 institutions of higher learning involved in the merger and incorporation processes. The study, however, did not include

leaders in some institutions also involved in the merger and incorporation processes due to the relatively large number of such institutions that would constitute the primary sampling units. Also, the subjects in the institutions not being merged or incorporated were not part of the research.

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

CHAPTER 1:	Scientific orientation to the research
CHAPTER 2:	Organisational change
CHAPTER 3:	Transformational leadership
CHAPTER 4:	Empirical study
CHAPTER 5:	Results
CHAPTER 6:	Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

1.10 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a scientific orientation to the research. This was done by providing a background to the apparent and well-documented research problem pertaining to the lack of transformational leadership behaviours among leaders in the HE sector. Such a lack of transformational leadership behaviours would most probably compromise their ability to manage change successfully. The change is manifested in the form of mergers and incorporations among public institutions of higher learning in SA.

The chapter also provided a review of the transformational leadership theoretical framework that emanates from the post-industrial leadership paradigm in which the research is contextualised; the aims, objectives, and questions; the research design; as well as the triangulated methodology in which the quantitative and qualitative methods have been outlined.

The next chapter is a literature survey of the different organisational change models in an attempt to ascertain their appropriateness and adequacy in explaining the LSOC in the South African HE sector.



CHAPTER 2

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the concept of organisational change with particular reference to the changing HE landscape in SA. Change is manifested in the form of mergers and incorporations of institutions of higher learning. A study of the different organisational change models, from Lewin's Three-phase Change Model to the contextualist model, is done with a view to indicating which one is adequate and best suited to explaining the change process in the HE sector.

The choice of change models is purposeful in the sense that only those models that are behaviour oriented (Burke, 1982: 168) are reviewed and discussed. Obviously, there are a number of models of organisational change that emphasise aspects such as technology, finance, and so on. Nevertheless, organisational change theorists and organisational development (OD) practitioners must necessarily rely on behaviour-oriented models since the role of these people is to understand what people do in their organisations and not, by contrast, what the machines do. It will be indicated that the contextualist model is more appropriate and adequate for explaining change in the HE sector, as it is historical, contextual and processual in character.

2.2 WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE?

The phenomenon of change has become a central management issue in modern organisations. Change is a relatively recent management topic all over the world and, whilst it has always been an issue, it is one of *the* issues today (McLagan, 2002: 28). Change is also a costly, arduous, and intellectually demanding exercise, as organisations try to implement complex, unprecedented, organisation-wide initiatives such as re-engineering, diversity interventions, globalisation, installing quality and productivity programmes, or entering into complex alliances, mergers and acquisitions.

Despite all this, change is an inseparable part of organisations, and it will certainly “not disappear or dissipate” (Paton & McCalman, 2001: 5). Organisations no longer have a choice: they are pressured to change or else face their possible downfall (Nicholson:

1993: 207). Moreover, the rate of organisational change is clearly accelerating today (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 614). Change is therefore a foremost concern of organisations and is, for that matter, always problematic (Nicholson, 1993: 207).

However, Burns (1996), as cited in Paton and McCalman (2001: 36), gives a contrasting view to that of Nicholson's. He argues that change in itself is not a problem, but that the problem lies in an inability on the part of leaders to lead change. There is a growing inability on the part of leaders to develop and reinforce their role and purpose within today's complex, dynamic and challenging organisations. Change is now a way of life. It would appear that leaders need to exhibit a certain degree of frequency of transformational leadership behaviours for them to be able to lead the change process effectively and efficiently. As Cummings and Worley (2001: 3) point out, change management is concerned with the sequence of activities and *leadership* issues that produce organisation improvements. Whatever view is expressed about change, organisations must change in order to survive, ensure sustenance and attain sustainable competitive advantage.

Organisational change therefore refers to any alteration in activities or tasks (Dawson, 1994: 10). It is a "modification or transformation of the organisation's structure, processes, or goals" (Wright & Noe, 1996: 192). It may involve minor changes in procedures and/or operations or transformational changes brought about by rapid expansion into international markets, mergers, or major restructuring (Kanter, 1991: 154 cited in Dawson, 1994: 10). However, King and Anderson (2002: 4) argue that organisational change "generally indicates a macro-level approach, which is more concerned with the organisation as a whole and its major subsystems than with the experiences of small work groups and individuals" and that the focus is basically on large-scale changes. Whatever the case may be, organisational change implies a departure, whether subtle or drastic, from routine to new ways of doing things. It is equally applicable at business or corporate levels or within an industry.

The kind of organisational change that is the focus of this research is *planned change*. Planned change is "designed and implemented in an orderly and timely fashion in anticipation of future events" (Smit & Cronje, 1997: 261). It is thus not haphazard but is organised and implemented with some degree of caution. It is based on three key dimensions, viz. the magnitude of organisational change, the degree to which the client system is organised, and whether the setting is domestic or international (Cummings &

Worley, 2001: 32-33). This research focuses on the first dimension, i.e. the magnitude of organisational change.

Change, according to this dimension, is arranged along a continuum from incremental changes – also known as reformational changes – that entail fine-tuning the organisation at the one extreme, to quantum changes – also known as transformational or fundamental changes – that entail fundamentally altering how the organisation operates at the other extreme (Coetsee, 2002: 18-19). Ledford *et al.* (1990) as cited in Dawson (1994: 10) refer to the latter as large-scale organisational change (LSOC). This research focuses on transformational change as it involves LSOC, which aims at overhauling the entire HE sector.

Organisational change in this research refers to the transformation of institutions of higher learning by way of merging these institutions to create completely new institutions with new identities, structures, cultures, reward systems, information processes and work designs. Transformation, as opposed to *crecive change*, is a form of enacted change that is planned and is intended to bring about significant changes in, for example, the way in which an institution is led (Norris, 2001: 220). Whilst transformation is purposefully planned to change organisational structures and relationships, *crecive change* is unplanned and occurs through a natural course of events.

The organisational change process consists of three stages, viz. the present state, the transformational or transition phase, and the expected future state (Beckhard & Harris, 1987 cited in Coetsee, 2002: 5). These stages can be captured diagrammatically as follows:

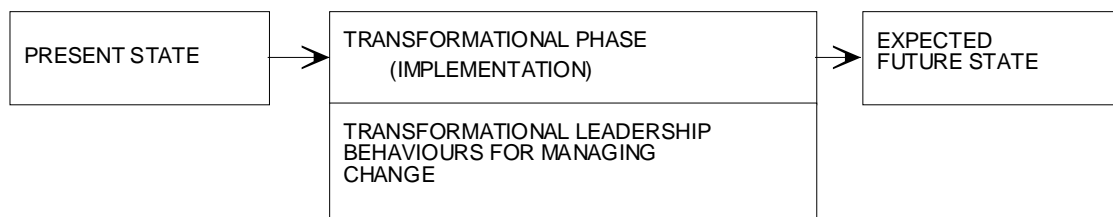


Figure 2.1: Three stages in the change process

2.3 A FRAMEWORK FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The basic framework followed in this research is the *contextualist* framework, which was initiated by research on organisational change done by Pettigrew and others at the University of Warwick in the UK (Walsham, 1993: 188). What this framework entails is that any theoretically sound and practically useful research on organisational change should involve the continuous interplay between ideas about three factors, viz. context, process, and content of change.

According to Walsham (1993: 188) the *context* of change delineates the boundaries within which change occurs. The argument here is that change should be seen, interpreted and linked both to an intra-organisational and a broader context. This means that change should not be understood as being separate from the historical, organisational, or economic circumstances that led to its initiation. For a better understanding and management of change, all of these factors have to be taken into consideration.

The *process* of change reveals that change is not a straightforward, rational process devoid of problems and obstacles. It is rather a jointly analytical, educational and political process.

The *content* or *substance* of the change programme involves the specific aspects of transformation to be examined, such as manpower, geographical positioning, corporate culture (Pettigrew: 1987: 657), technology, products, or systems (Walsham, 1993: 191). In sum, "...it is the relationship between the content of a specific change strategy, the context in which the change takes place and the process by which it occurs which is the basic analytical framework adopted by the contextualist approach" (Dawson, 1994: 23).

2.4 MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Over the years, a number of models have been developed in an attempt to explain the complex process and implementation of organisational change. Although heavily criticised, some of these models have shed some light on the concept of organisational change and have provided a relatively fair account thereof. The understanding of the intricacies that go with organisational change is directly attributable to these models, although change itself neither happens uniformly across organisations, nor can it be

divided into watertight compartments. Nevertheless, they have unequivocally done justice to this concept. Due to the dynamism of change, flexible thinking on the part of theorists is necessary to provide a convincing account of change. Otherwise, the adage that “when you have a hammer, all you can see are nails” will hold true.

Following on Mouton (2001: 93), the review of the models is organised in such a manner that the position that is adopted in the research is discussed at the end. The discussion thus commences with those *behaviour-oriented* models (Burke, 1982: 168) that are believed to be inappropriate or which have been discredited by recent scholarship. This is then followed by a discussion of the position that forms a frame of reference for the research. In other words, the discussion is not necessarily chronological in terms of the year of development of the models; rather, Lewin’s model as a precursor to other models is discussed first.

The discussion of the change models thus proceeds as follows: First is the discussion of the textbook models, which include Lewin’s Three-phase Model of planned change and two OD models, viz. the Action Research Model and Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research. Second is the discussion of contingency models that emerged from North America and Australia. Third is the discussion of the contextualist model that emerged from Britain. In short, following on Dawson (1994: 12-13), a critical evaluation of the change models is done by providing a critique of the textbook (conventional) models to planned change, evaluating the revival in contingency models, and examining the growing academic movement towards contextual models in the study of organisational change, which is the main focus of this research.

Textbook models: The concept of textbook model or orthodoxy is used by Dawson (1994: 10-17) to refer to those change models that are common in introductory textbooks on organisational change and which have been adopted as *the* models for change. This has led to the reluctance of scholars to incorporate contrasting models of change into such textbooks with the consequence of limiting the availability and appeal of alternative models. The conservatism and rigidity when it comes to an accepted framework or approach has led to the marginalisation of the ongoing academic debates that would provide students with competing models of change.

A number of such textbook models have been developed and have focused primarily on how change can be implemented. In this research three such models are discussed.

While Burke (1982: 44) contends that “most practitioners agree that three models are the underlying and guiding frames of reference for any OD effort”, this scholar differs from Cummings and Worley (2001: 22) on one of the three models. They do agree on Lewin’s model and the Action Research model as being important models of planned change. Burke’s third model is one of phases of planned change developed by Lippitt, Watson and Westley (1958). Cummings and Worley discuss the Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research as the third model. In this research, Burke’s third model is not discussed because it is outdated.

The three models discussed are Lewin’s model, the Action Research model, and Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research. It is worth noting, however, that Lewin’s model is an organisational change model that has also been applied as an OD model (King & Anderson, 2002: 169), whereas the latter two are purely OD models. OD is a discipline focussing on organisational change (McLagan, 2002: 5). It is essentially “the identification of the gap between the present functioning of the organisation and where the organisation intends to move to in terms of its strategic plan, the closing of this gap through planned interventions, and the effective management of resistance to change” (Coetsee, 2002: 4).

2.4.1. The first textbook model: Lewin’s change model

Lewin’s 1951 seminal work on change marks the beginning of the development of a scientific method to describe organisational change. Most of the models that emerged subsequently reflect some influence of Lewin’s model. A seven-stage model of OD, for example, was proposed by Edgar House in 1980 and is based upon Lewin’s original model (King & Anderson, 2002: 171). Thus the predominant models on the management of change remain rooted to the orthodoxy imposed by Lewin’s model (Dawson, 1994: 2). Contemporary management texts uncritically adopt this model almost without exception, giving the impression that this model is flawless. The model has proven to be useful in understanding planned change under relatively stable conditions, but this usefulness might become a fallacy given the dynamic nature of change in today’s business world.

Lewin’s model of planned change is one of the earliest change models in which Lewin proposed that the change process can be divided into three stages, viz. unfreezing, moving (changing), and refreezing (King & Anderson, 2002: 170; Yukl, 1998: 440). It still remains an influential theory and a common approach advocated by management

educationalists, and is also widely taught in business departments and management schools worldwide (Dawson, 1994: 16-17).

2.4.1.1 Assumptions

A summary of the assumptions that underlie this model is provided by Kreitner and Kinicki (1998: 619):

- The process of change entails learning something new and discontinuing current attitudes, behaviours or organisational practices.
- There is motivation for change, as no change will take place without such a motivation. This constitutes the most difficult part of the change process.
- Organisational change is contingent upon people. People are central to any change process, whether such change is in structure, group process, reward systems, or job design.
- There will always be resistance to change despite the high desirability of change goals.
- Reinforcing new behaviours, attitudes and organisational practices is required for achieving effective change.

2.4.1.2 The unfreezing stage

The main focus of the *unfreezing* stage is, according to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998: 619), the creation of a motivation for change. That is, there has to be that readiness to expect and accept that change is inevitable. This encourages employees to replace their old behaviours and attitudes with those that leaders desire so that they eventually become dissatisfied with outdated ways of doing things. Leaders thus begin to unfreeze the process by psychologically disconfirming the suitability of the employees' current behaviour and attitudes (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 23). Leaders also endeavour to devise ways and means of reducing the barriers to change, and also generating employee support (Dawson, 1994: 16).

2.4.1.3 The moving stage

The *moving* stage entails looking for new ways of doing things and selecting a promising approach (Yukl, 1998: 440). Employees are provided with new information, new

behavioural models and so on with the purpose of helping them learn new concepts or points of view (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 619). In general, the moving stage entails shifting the behaviour of the organisation, department or individual to a new level such as, for example, intervening in the system to develop new behaviours, values and attitudes by changing organisational structures and processes.

2.4.1.4 The refreezing stage

The *refreezing* stage is where change is being stabilised by way of assisting employees to integrate the behaviour or attitude that has been changed into their normal way of doing things (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 619). Refreezing is usually accomplished by using supporting mechanisms that reinforce the new organisational state such as, for example, organisational culture, norms, politics, and structures (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 23).

2.4.1.5 Application

Lewin's model was applied to the British Airways' (BA) change effort by Goodstein and Burke (1993: 164-172). These scholars found that the change process at BA was actually based on open-systems thinking – a phased model of managing change, as well as multiple levels (individual, structural and systems) and interpersonal levels for implementing change. Although the change process within BA was a massive one, the application of Lewin's model provides an important and different perspective on how an organisation can cope with an increasingly competitive environment.

2.4.1.6 Criticism

Although Lewin's change model has provided a foundation and a platform for systematically providing a scientific account of planned change in organisations, it has been subjected to wide criticism. This model is quite elementary and outdated (Coetsee, 2002: 14), with its inception dating back to 1951. Therefore, relying on a model that is more than half a century old, whilst there have since been rapid theoretical developments in the area of organisational change, would be empirically unsound. The model is useful in understanding planned change under relatively stable conditions, and organisational change is itself a very dynamic phenomenon in today's business environment, thereby rendering the model obsolete (Dawson, 1994: 3).

Furthermore, Dawson contends that the model is more prescriptive and less analytical, as it endeavours to implement stability and reinforce behaviour that conforms to a rigid set of procedures for new work arrangements. This, in essence, does not meet the growing requirements for employee flexibility and structural adaptation to the unfolding and complex nature of ongoing change processes. This model is thus inappropriate to organisations operating in rapidly changing environments (Dawson, 1994: 17).

2.4.2 The second textbook model: Action Research Model

The Action Research Model is an OD model that focuses on planned change as a *cyclical process* (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 23). Initial research on an organisation is undertaken, which provides information to guide the action that follows. The result of this action is assessed to provide further information that guides further action, and so on and so forth. This cyclic process involves a considerable levelling and collaboration among members of the organisation and OD practitioners. It focuses heavily on data gathering and diagnosis before action planning and implementation of results after action has taken place. This model provides interplay between action and research. As Lewin (1946) cited in Burke (1982: 45) pointed out, there is “no action without research, and no research without action”.

2.4.2.1 Aim

This model has a twofold aim: Firstly, it helps specific organisations to implement planned change; and secondly, it develops more general knowledge that can be applied to other settings (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 23). The major steps in the OD programme comprise: problem identification, consultation with a behavioural science expert, data gathering and preliminary analysis, feedback to a key client or group, joint diagnosis of the problem, joint action planning, action, as well as data gathering after action (Burke, 1982: 58; Cummings & Worley, 2001:24-26; Paton & McCalman, 2001: 170).

2.4.2.2 Application

The most famous action research project was undertaken by John R.P. French and his client Lester Coch in 1948 (Burke, 1982: 45; King & Anderson, 2002: 196-197). Their study on workers' resistance to change in a pyjama factory not only illustrated action research at its best, but also provided the theoretical basis for what is now known as

participative management.

2.4.2.3 Criticism

The criticism levelled at this OD model, according to Dawson (1994: 16), is firstly that it adopts a normative framework and is based on the assumption that there is one best way to manage change that will necessarily improve both organisational effectiveness and employee wellbeing. Secondly, Ledfort *et al.* (1990: 4-6) cited in Dawson (1994: 16) contend that professional OD consultants engaged in OD are not that bothered with theory development or with the design of systematic problems of research. They are rather more concerned with a set of normative prescriptions that guide their practice in managing change. This is an inflexible, narrow-minded view that fails to take into account the fact that change is dynamic and needs flexible thinking on the part of consultants. Thirdly, this method fails to account for the increasing incidence of revolutionary change, which may more effectively be achieved by coercive top-down strategies of change (Dumphy & Stace, 1990: 67 cited in Dawson, 1994: 16).

2.4.3 The third textbook model: Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research

According to Cummings and Worley (2001: 26), Action Research has undergone 2 key adaptations:

2.4.3.1 The first adaptation

Firstly, contemporary applications have increased, quite considerably, the degree of member involvement in the change process. This is opposed to, for example, traditional approaches to planned change, which depend on consultants to execute change activities, with the agreement and collaboration of management. The tendency these days is to involve organisation members in change processes, although in OD, consultant-dominated change still persists. This model is referred to as “participatory action research”, “action learning”, “action science”, or “self-design”. It emphasises the need for members of the organisation to learn about planned change and by so doing, gain the knowledge and skills necessary to change the organisation. The role that OD consultants play here is to work with members of the organisation so as to facilitate the learning process. Both the OD consultants and members are “co-learners” and neither

side dominates the change process. Each brings unique contributions such as information and expertise to the situation. OD consultants, for example, know how to design diagnostic instruments and OD interventions, whereas members know the organisation and how it functions.

2.4.3.2 The second adaptation

Secondly, there is an “interpretive” or “social constructionist” approach to planned change known as Appreciative Inquiry (AI). “Appreciative Inquiry is an emerging behavioural science technology, based on an action-research model and clearly normative, that approaches organisational diagnosis from the standpoint of understanding what are positive events or characteristics in the organisation; analyzes and operationalises them, and develops models that will reinforce and multiply them throughout an organisation” (Craig, 1996: 29).

AI challenges the assumption that organisations are like problems to be solved and that member conversations focus on the organisation’s faults (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 27). It suggests, however, that member conversations should be about what the organisation is doing right as a premise for organisational change. That is, “AI proposes to get members talking about – appreciating in dialogue, as it were – such ‘working’ features in response to ‘positive questions’” (Golembiewski, 1998: 4). It helps members to understand and describe the organisation when it is *working at its best* (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 26). Members are *broadly involved* in creating a new vision and conversations centre round an organisation’s potential, which creates positive expectations.

The six major steps in the OD programme comprise: choosing positive subjects, collecting positive stories from broad participation, examining data and developing possibility propositions, developing a vision with broad participation, developing action plans, and evaluating (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 27).

2.4.3.3 Criticism

The AI adaptation to action research is lacking in many respects. On many occasions,

organisational change is not based on *choosing positive subjects*. Change is mostly initiated precisely because of negative subjects that are perceived to exist within an organisation. The point of departure would thus be to highlight all the negative subjects that render change inevitable. Also, change is mostly not based on *the collection of positive stories*. This is a narrow-minded view of change. In fact, the change programme is embarked upon so as to bring about positive stories, while the collection of positive stories does not necessarily bring about change. Finally, change is mostly not based on developing *possibility propositions*, as in most instances no best practice exists that would lead to practices that would be ideal for future organising.

2.4.4 Comparison of the textbook approaches

According to Cummings and Worley (2001: 28) all three textbook approaches discussed above provide a description of the phases whereby planned change occurs in organisations. They do overlap at some points, as they for instance outline organisational change as occurring in some stages, i.e. the preliminary stage (unfreezing, diagnosis, or examining positive aspects of the organisation). Lewin's model differs from the other two models in that the former focuses on the general process of planned change, instead of focusing on specific OD activities, as is the case with the other two models.



Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research differs from both Lewin's model and Action Research in terms of the level of involvement of the members and the focus of change. The latter two models emphasise the role of the consultant and accord limited involvement to members in the change process. The first model treats both consultants and members as co-learners who are heavily engaged in planned change. Furthermore, Lewin's model and Action Research are concerned primarily with fixing problems rather than with what the organisation does well and expanding on those strengths.

2.4.5 Contingency models

Whilst Lewin's change model and the OD models provide a description of the phases whereby planned change occurs in organisations (Cummings & Worley, 2001:22), contingency models look at situational factors as determinants of organisational design, i.e. the relationship between the organisation and its environment. According to the contingency approach to organisational design, the effectiveness of organisations

surfaces when they are structured to fit the demands of the situation; in other words, by creating an effective organisation-environment fit (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 590). Contingency models assess the degree of environmental uncertainty and use various organisation design configurations to achieve an effective organisation-environment fit.

The basic tenet of contingency models is that it is possible to identify the most appropriate organisational form to fit a situation in which a business has to operate, notwithstanding the fact that there is no one best way of organising. In essence, they argue that the best way to organise depends on the circumstances. They reject a search for a universal model of organisational change and instead aim at developing useful generalisations about strategies and structures under different typical conditions (Dawson, 1994: 18).

The contingent factors deemed to be of primary importance include the environment and single variables such as technology, organisational size (Strickland, 1998: 32; Wright & Noe, 1996: 161-162), and strategic choice (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 599).

2.4.5.1 Environment as a contingent factor

Two studies have attempted to isolate the *environment* as a contingent factor within the contingency approach, i.e. the environment is said to be the primary determinant of effective organisational structure (King & Anderson, 2002: 129-130; Paton & McCalman, 2001: 131-132).

Firstly, a 1961 study by British behavioural scientists Tom Burn and G.M. Stalker found that *mechanistic* organisations – rigid, command-and-control bureaucracies – tend to be effective in stable situations (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 592). The idea behind this type of an organisation is to allow it to function in an efficient manner, just like a well-oiled machine (Wright & Noe, 1996: 162). In unstable situations, *organic* organisations – fluid and flexible networks of multitalented people – are more effective. Their findings underscored the need for a contingency approach to organisational design.

Secondly, a 1967 study by Harvard researchers Paul Lawrence and Jay Lorsch explained how two structural forces simultaneously fragment the organisation and bind it together (Burke, 1982: 182; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 592). Successful organisations achieve a proper balance between two opposing structural forces of *differentiation* and

integration (Burke, 1982: 182). The former forces the organisation apart through a variety of mechanisms such as hierarchy, rules, teams and liaison, while the latter draws the organisation together (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 592).

2.4.5.2 Technology as a contingent factor

Whilst the preceding studies are based on an environmental imperative, others contend that a factor such as the organisation's core *technology* holds the key to organisational structure (Wright & Noe, 1996: 166).

One such study based on the technological imperative was conducted by Joan Woodward in 1965 by studying 100 small manufacturing firms in southern England. Her findings revealed that there were distinct structural patterns for effective and ineffective companies based on technologies of low, medium, or high complexity. Those effective organisations with low- or high-complexity technology tended to have an *organic* structure, whereas those based on technology of medium complexity tended to have a *mechanistic* structure. On the basis of this, Woodward concluded that technology was the overriding determinant of organisational structure (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 596).

2.4.5.3 Organisational size as a contingent factor

Organisational size as an important structural variable and contingency factor can be described from 2 perspectives:

First is the perspective that advocates economies of scale and propagates the "bigger is better" model (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 597). This perspective assumes that the per-unit cost of production decreases as the organisation grows, i.e. bigger is said to be more efficient. Thus, a larger organisation may require more formal supervision for it to be efficient (Wright & Noe, 1996: 165).

Second is the perspective that advocates the law of diminishing returns, and propagates the "small is beautiful" model (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 597). This perspective assumes that oversized organisations are plagued by costly behavioural problems and are said to breed apathy and alienation that result in such negative aspects as turnover and absenteeism. Thus a small company can function efficiently with a simple undifferentiated structure and can probably coordinate work informally (Wright & Noe,

1998: 165).

2.4.5.4 Strategic choice as a contingent factor

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998: 599), in 1972 John Child, a British sociologist, rejected the notion of environment as a contingency factor and instead proposed a *strategic choice* model based on behavioural rather than rational economic principles. The fundamental belief of this theory is that structure resulted from a political process involving organisational power holders. Therefore, an organisation's structure is determined by a dominant coalition of top-management strategies. The specific choices or decisions are a reflection of how the dominant coalition perceives environmental constraints and the organisation's objectives. These particular choices are tempered by the decision maker's personal beliefs, attitudes, values, and ethics.

2.4.5.5 Criticism

Contingency models also have not gone without heavy criticism. Dawson (1994: 20 -22) points out that these models fail to provide an account of the differences between participants by focusing on the technical problem of matching situations to organisational form. This is in sharp contrast to the textbook models that emphasise members and OD consultants and do not focus much on the situation and the structure of the organisation (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 28). The contingency approach also does not tackle the political dimension of change. Politics are almost always behind organisational change. Therefore, any change process that is oblivious to politics is baseless. The contingency approach also does not make any attempt to provide a typology of change strategies or conditions for their use during the actual process of organisational change. The main problem of the contingency approach is the tendency to impose unidirectional rational models on change, which happens to be a complex and dynamic process (Dawson, 1994: 22).

2.4.6 Contextualist model

The contextualist model emerged as an attempt to shift the focus of scholars away from the textbook models, particularly Lewin's Three-phase Model, which had become the model upon which scholars relied to explain organisational change. It emerged through the work done by Pettigrew and others at the University of Warwick in the UK (Walsham,

1993: 88). The contextualist model was thus initiated in Britain and it advocates the development of an alternative theoretical framework for tackling the processual nature of change (Clark *et al.*, 1988; Pettigrew, 1987a & 1987b cited in Dawson, 1994: 12).

Pettigrew's work entailed developing a theory through fieldwork in both the public and private sectors in the form of longitudinal case studies that provided a convincing account of organisational change (Walsham, 1993: 188). Due to the absolute reliance on textbook models, which were found to be flawed in many respects, "there is clear evidence of a need to revise our use of conventional textbook models and develop alternative "contextualised" or "processual" frameworks for understanding large-scale organisational change" (Laughlin, 1991: 209- 232 cited in Dawson, 1994: 25). Thus, the contextualist approach emerged precisely because a lot of research on organisational change is ahistorical, aprocessual, and acontextual in character (Pettigrew, 1987: 655; Walsham, 1993: 188). The studies of organisational change that allow the change process to reveal itself in any kind of temporal and contextual manner are remarkably few (Pettigrew, 1987: 655).

Pettigrew highlights the contextual nature of change within organisational theory by emphasising a number of factors, viz. embeddedness; acknowledging interdependent levels of analysis; interconnectedness of change over time; how the change context shapes and is shaped by action; and the multi-causation and non-linear nature of change (Strickland, 1998: 50).

The fundamental tenet of the contextualist approach is that organisational change should involve continuous interplay between ideas about three factors, viz.

- the *context* in which changes are occurring;
- the *substance* or *content* of the change programme; and
- the *process* (rather than snapshot analysis) of change.

(Dawson, 1994: 24)

Pettigrew (1987: 657) contends that the premise for the analysis of organisational change rests on the notion that formulating the content of any new strategic change necessarily entails managing its context and process. Figure 2.1 below indicates these factors (Pettigrew, 1987: 657):

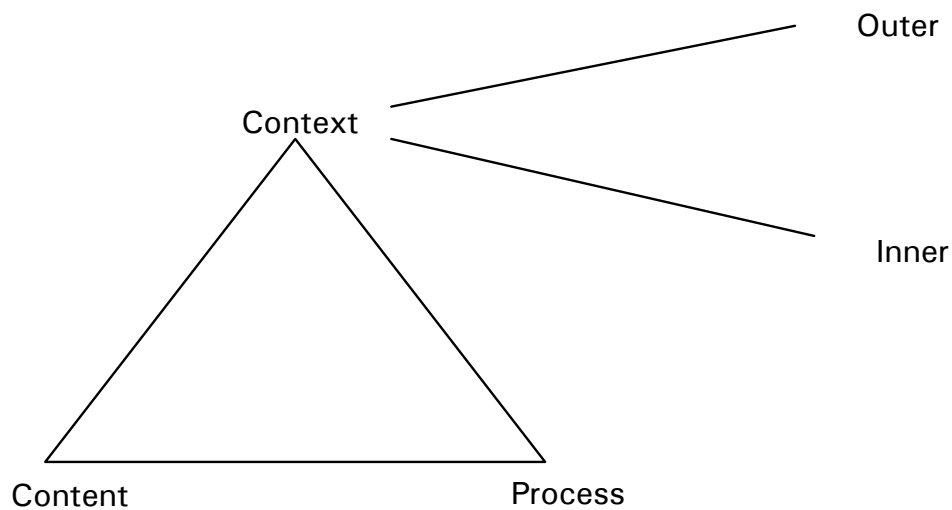


Figure 2.2: The broad contextualist framework

2.4.6.1 The context of change

The *outer context* includes such elements as the social, economic, political and competitive environment in which the organisation exists. The *inner context* refers to such elements as structure, corporate culture and political context that exist within the organisation and through which ideas for organisational change have to proceed. Walsham (1993: 189) expatiates on context by adding further elements such as stakeholder perspective, history of existing procedures and systems, informal networks and procedures, and infrastructure needs, which must of necessity be identified for the analysis of the context of organisational change.

2.4.6.2 The content of change

The content of organisational change refers to the particular areas of transformation that are being examined (Pettigrew, 1987: 657). For example, the organisation may be seeking to change technology, products, systems (Walsham, 1993: 191), manpower, geographical positioning, or corporate culture (Pettigrew, 1987: 657).

2.4.6.3 The process of change

The process of organisational change refers to the actions, reactions, and interactions from various interested parties in an attempt to move the organisation from its present state to its future state (Pettigrew, 1987: 657-658). Walsham (1993: 190) contends that

two perspectives also constitute the elements of process. Firstly there is the power/political perspective, which views organisational change essentially as a consequence or product of a legitimisation process created by the interests and commitments of some individuals and groups, although such interests and commitments are expressed in rational/analytical terms. Secondly there is the cultural perspective, which focuses on shared meanings and norms of behaviour. In broad terms, therefore, the “what” of change is its content; the “why” of change is the analysis of the inner and outer context, and the “how” of change is understood from the analysis of the process (Pettigrew, 1987: 658).

What constitutes the contextualist approach, according to Dawson (1994: 24-25), is driven by the need for vertical and horizontal levels of analysis, and this refutes the simplistic, one-dimensional and discontinuous view of change as advocated by earlier organisational change theorists (Strickland, 1998: 50). The vertical level of analysis, on the one hand, refers to the outer contextual factors such as the environment and the inner contextual factors such as interest-group behaviour (Dawson, 1994: 24-25). The horizontal level of analysis, on the other hand, refers to the temporal interconnectedness between future expectations, present events and historical events. Thus, “an approach that offers both multilevel, or vertical, analysis and processual, or horizontal, analysis is said to be contextualist in character” (Pettigrew, 1987: 656).

2.4.6.4 Application

The contextualist model was used by Walsham (1993: 188-196) to explain the change process that involved the implementation of the MRP system in the Processing Company, which was a wholly-owned subsidiary of a large international manufacturing organisation. The implementation of the MRP system was, to a large extent, unsuccessful and Walsham argues that a formal consideration of the *context* and *process* of change, as well as of the interrelationships and links between them, is absolutely essential in helping to understand some of the problems that occurred in the company.

2.4.7 Textbook models, contingency models, and higher education transformation

Having outlined the various models of change above, the question that needs to be answered is: Which model is best suited and adequate to explaining change within the HE sector? This question, however, has been implicitly answered in the preceding discussion and it is evident that the contextualist approach is, to a large extent, appropriate for addressing the question of change in the sector and is the one upon which this research is based.

Lewin's Three-phase Model (Coetsee, 2002: 14; Dawson, 1994: 3) has been discredited – firstly for its antiquity; secondly for its efficiency in providing an understanding of planned change under relatively stable conditions but its failure to do so under dynamic and turbulent conditions, thereby rendering itself inappropriate to organisations operating in rapidly changing environments; thirdly for its prescriptiveness in providing a rigid set of procedures for new work environments coupled with failure to be analytical; and fourthly for its failure to meet the growing requirements for employee flexibility and structural adaptation to the unfolding and complex nature of ongoing change processes. Lewin's model, despite being a pioneer of organisational change and enjoying wide-ranging popularity among scholars, is deemed inadequate for addressing LSOC in the context of the HE sector.

In the same vein, the Action Research model (Dawson, 1994: 16) and Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 26) are also deemed inappropriate and inadequate. These are OD models that advocate the involvement of professional OD consultants who design and implement intervention techniques to address change, but without bothering with theory development or with the design of systematic problems of research. Their inappropriateness is exacerbated by the fact that they provide an inflexible, narrow-minded view that assumes that there is one best way to manage change. This is a scientifically fallacious conception that has to be rejected if justice is to be done in explaining LSOC.

Contingency approaches (Dawson, 1994: 20) are also inappropriate and inadequate when it comes to providing a convincing account of change in the HE sector. For instance, the technical problem of matching the situational, contingent factors (environment, technology, organisation size, and strategic choice) to organisational form does not account for the dynamism and complexity of change. Also, they do not tackle the political dimension of change. Change in the HE sector is not about a situation-

organisation fit. It is rather a complex process that is historical, contextual and processual in character.

2.4.8 Contextualist model and higher education transformation

The application of the contextualist model (Dawson, 1994: 24) to the transformation of the HE sector is not by any means meant to be exhaustive. The purpose is to indicate that this model is more appropriate and adequate for this research compared to the other change models discussed. The contextualist model is thus chosen in this research, because it creates new knowledge in change management and OD and treats organisational change as historical, contextual and processual in character (**Literature survey question 1**).

2.4.8.1 The history of higher education

It is important to look at the role played by *history*, because history directly informs the need to change. The historical background provides a clear picture as to what it is that led to the inevitability of change, and here history is intertwined with politics. For example, the pre-1994 era is the one that most South Africans would like to consign to oblivion primarily because of apartheid. In a foreword to a document entitled *Transformation and Restructuring: A New Institutional Landscape for Higher Education* of June 2002, the Minister of Education argues that the institutional structure of the HE system originated from the geopolitical imagination of apartheid's master planner, Hendrick Verwoed, as embodied in his ideological vision of *separate but equal development*. This was manifested, *inter alia*, in the promulgation of the Universities Extension Act in 1959, which virtually restricted access to HE along racial and ethnic lines.

The aim of the Act was twofold: Firstly, it aimed to ensure that historically White institutions (HWIs) were used as a vehicle for addressing the educational, ideological, political, cultural, social and economic needs of White South Africans, and secondly it aimed to establish institutions that would produce tokens of Black people to service the apartheid-created homelands. The latter aim did not realise as a result of uncompromising student resistance which, in the end, resulted in the demise of apartheid. The HE system has hitherto been a disappointingly disjointed entity as a result of the Universities Extension Act, among others. Unfortunately, the apartheid

legacy continues to burden the HE system, which is still highly fragmented along racial lines and unable to meet the challenges of reconstruction and development.

The coming into being of the new political dispensation necessitated the immediate overhaul of the HE system, which was heading for the doldrums. In order to redress the mishaps and imbalances of the past, government, through the Ministry of Education, embarked upon a wide-ranging consultative process for changing the HE system. This consultative process resulted in the emergence and promulgation of various policy documents and pieces of legislation, the aim of which was to bring about mammoth, unprecedented and positive changes to the sector.

2.4.8.2 The context of higher education transformation

The *outer context* of change in the HE sector addresses the fragmented *social* aspects of South African society. Different racial groups had their own institutions such as the Afrikaans institutions, Black institutions, Indian institutions, etc., which perpetuated the separate but equal development philosophy. This had an enormous impact on the *economy* of the country, as Black institutions provided programmes that were not geared towards addressing the economic needs and as such failed to address the demands of reconstruction and development.



The *inner context* involves the way HE institutions are *structured* in terms of management and governance structures. The imperatives on institutional management and governance are addressed in the Higher Education Act, Act no. 101 of 1997.

The *corporate culture*, which still reflects ideologies, values and norms of different racial and cultural groups, also has to be taken into consideration and given due cognisance. This also addresses the entire question of politics.

2.4.8.3 The process of higher education transformation

The *process* of organisational change refers to the Ministry's actions to merge and incorporate the different institutions and to create a single coordinated HE system in the country, as well as the reactions and interactions from various interested and affected parties in an attempt to move the sector from its present state to its future state, as stipulated in the NPHE (Department of Education, 2001).

2.5 SUMMARY

Although the discussion of the change models above is not exhaustive, it suffices to say that the contextualist model is more appropriate than the other change models in accounting for change in the higher education sector. This is so because the contextualist model is historical, contextual and processual in character. The discussion will hopefully provide some paradigm shift from reliance on textbook approaches, especially Lewin's Three-phase Model, to a contextualist or processual model in explaining LSOC.

The next chapter is a literature survey of the transformational/transactional leadership theories and descriptive research on transformational leadership.



CHAPTER 3

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss transformational leadership primarily and transactional leadership secondarily, as well as laissez-faire leadership. This discussion takes place within two theoretical frameworks, viz. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985). In addition to these theories, two descriptive research studies on transformational leadership, which have also contributed enormously to the understanding of this perspective of leadership, are looked at, viz. research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) and research by Tichy and Devanna (1986).

It is indicated that Bass' theory of transformational and transactional leadership is appropriate and adequate for addressing the research problem, as it firstly focuses on the transformational/transactional continuum, building on Burns' earlier work, and secondly it is the one upon which the research instrument, the MLQ-6S, is based and which constitutes the quantitative study of the research. The research was also based on the descriptive research by Bennis and Nanus (1985), which constituted the qualitative study in which leaders were interviewed to determine common themes or strategies used in transforming the organisation. Common themes and strategies are those that underlie the leaders' transformational leadership strengths, weaknesses, past events that influenced their leadership approach, critical points in their careers, and their understanding of a good transformational leader.

3.2 WHAT IS TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP?

The concept transformational leadership was first coined by Downton in 1973 in a work titled *Rebel Leadership* (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 2; Northouse, 2001: 132). It is a relatively new approach to leadership, as it emerged as part of the post-industrial leadership paradigm (Northouse, 2001: 132). It subsequently emerged as an important approach to leadership as evidenced by the classic work of the political sociologist James MacGregor Burns in 1978 titled *Leadership* (Hughes, Ginnet & Curphy, 1999: 290; Northouse, 2001: 132). Since the early 1970's the transformational leadership approach has become the most popular approach to leadership and has been the one upon which most leadership scholars have relied and on which they have spent much time in explaining leadership phenomena.

Yukl (1998: 324) defines transformational leadership as “the process of building commitment to the organisation’s objectives and empowering followers to accomplish these objectives”. Northouse (2001: 132) defines it as “the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower”. The two definitions approach this phenomenon from the perspective of process leadership against that of trait leadership (Northouse, 2001: 4-5). The trait perspective contends that certain individuals have inborn qualities that make them leaders such as height, intelligence, extraversion and fluency. The process perspective contends that leadership can be observed in leader behaviours and can thus be learned. In this research, transformational leadership is viewed from the process perspective.

Transformational leadership is therefore essentially about instilling a sense of purpose in the followers, encouraging emotional identification or commitment with the organisation and its goals, empowering employees through growth and development, and giving them the opportunity to achieve these goals. It involves the creation of a motivating climate (Coetsee, 2002: 33) that enhances growth, development, commitment, goal achievement and enjoyment and which encourages behaviour based on a set of shared values and beliefs.



Transformational leadership has been widely researched, presumably more than any other type of leadership. Research on this leadership has been undertaken from different perspectives, such as administering different forms of the MLQ to leaders (Bass, 1998: 8-9) and undertaking a series of qualitative studies of prominent leaders and chief executives in well-known organisations since this type of leadership was introduced in the 1970's (Northouse, 2001: 143; Yukl, 1998: 335). The transformational leadership approach is thus a broad-based perspective on leadership, which describes how leaders can initiate, develop and carry out significant changes in organisations (Northouse, 2001: 144). Transformational leaders empower their followers to attain organisational objectives and nurture them in change (Yukl, 1998: 324). They raise the consciousness in individuals and allow them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of others (Northouse, 2001: 135).

Whereas this research is about senior leaders’ ability to manage change, transformational leadership may involve people influencing peers or superiors as well as

subordinates (Yukl, 1998: 346). Transformational leaders can thus be found at all levels of the organisation's hierarchy and in all cultures (Avolio, 1999: 32).

3.3 A FRAMEWORK FOR TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

This research focused primarily on the post-industrial leadership or "new leadership" paradigm (Bryman, 1992 cited in Northouse, 2001: 131) which is an embodiment of several models of leadership, viz. the servant leadership, transformational leadership, and the critical model of leadership (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 219). These models, according to Shriberg *et al.* (2002: 219), severed ties with the industrial leadership paradigm in a number of ways: firstly by providing a description of leadership as a relationship instead of it being the property of an individual; secondly by providing leadership as a change process, and thirdly by recognising and acknowledging that leadership is not confined to individuals with positional authority but that it can actually be carried out by anyone in any position.

There has thus been a paradigm shift in leadership from the industrial paradigm to the post-industrial paradigm. This research was based primarily on transformational leadership as belonging to the post-industrial leadership paradigm. However, in this research, reference is also made, in a rather rudimentary fashion, to transactional leadership in putting into perspective the transformational/transactional continuum as espoused by theorists such as Burns (1978) and Bass (1985).

Rost and Smith (1992) cited in Swanepoel *et al.* (2000: 388) propose that for a better understanding of the concept of leadership, leadership theory must move away from the industrial leadership paradigm, which emphasises what is peripheral to the nature and content of leadership, to the post-industrial leadership paradigm. The peripheral aspects would include, *inter alia*, such issues as traits, personality characteristics, and nature and nurture. The focus of this research was not on these peripheral aspects but on transformational leadership as a *change process*.

The transformational leadership theories and researches that emanated from this paradigm and to which reference is made throughout this research are as follows: Burns (1978), Bass (1985), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Tichy and Devanna (1986).

The post-industrial leadership paradigm was, therefore, explored primarily in relation to two theoretical or research perspectives.

Firstly, Bass' (1985) theory of transformational and transactional leadership forms the core of the research. This theory identifies a number of transformational leadership behaviours that leaders need to exhibit in order for them to be regarded as transformational leaders, viz. idealised influence, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation. The theory also identifies a number of transactional leadership behaviours that leaders might exhibit, thereby satisfying the philosophy of the transformational/transactional continuum, viz. contingent reward and management-by-exception (active and passive).

Secondly, the descriptive research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) also provides a framework within which this research is based. The research thus explores the themes or strategies identified by Bennis and Nanus and which leaders use in transforming the organisation, viz. developing a vision, developing commitment and trust, and facilitating organisational learning. Hermeneutic interpretation of the interview data, as described in section 4.5.2.2 of the next chapter, is thus based on this research perspective.

3.4 THEORIES OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Yukl (1998: 324-329) contends that the theory of transformational leadership is dyadic in nature.

The one perspective of transformational leadership theory involves the process of building commitment to the organisation's objectives and empowering the followers to accomplish those objectives. This perspective thus entails leaders directly influencing subordinates by inspiring them to be more committed, building their self-confidence, and then empowering them to take more initiative in executing their duties. This research reviews theories (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985) and descriptive research (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986) based on this perspective of transformational leadership theory, because direct leader influence on subordinates is a necessary ingredient for organisational transformation (Yukl, 1998: 329).

The other perspective of transformational leadership theory looks at how transformational leaders influence the organisation's culture so that it is consistent with strategies for accomplishing organisational objectives. This perspective is not explored any further in this research, as it concentrates almost exclusively on organisational

culture, which is of little or no significance to the aim of this research.

Following on Mouton (2001: 92), the review is organised by the school of thought or theory/research in a chronological fashion from the oldest theory/research to the most recent. This approach shows how the debates originated and developed up to the contemporary state of affairs.

The discussion of transformational leadership thus begins with a review of two theories. Burns' (1978) theory is reviewed first since it is a precursor to the transformational leadership theories and research lines that subsequently emerged. Next is a review of Bass' (1985) theory, which is an extension of Burns' theory and is the one upon which this research is based. A review of the two theories is followed by a review of two lines of descriptive research. First is the review of the research by Bennis and Nanus (1985), which is also the research upon which this research is based. This is then followed by a review of the research by Tichy and Devanna (1986).

3.4.1 Burns' theory of transformational and transactional leadership

Burns (1978) can be singled out as the one who provided an early conception of transformational leadership from his descriptive research on political leaders (Bass, 1990: 23; Yukl, 1998: 324) such as Mahatma Gandhi, Franklin Roosevelt and Mao-Tse Tung (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 207-208). In his work, he attempts to link the roles of leadership and followership by arguing that leaders are those individuals who tap the motives of other individuals in order to better reach the goals of both leaders and followers (Northouse, 2001: 132). His desire was to unite the previously unconnected roles of leader and follower (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 208).

Central to Burns' theory is the distinction drawn between power and leadership on the one hand, and transformational and transactional leadership on the other (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290).

3.4.1.1 Power versus leadership

For Burns, *power* and *leadership* are two distinct entities (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290), because leadership, unlike power, is inseparable from the needs of followers (Northouse, 2001: 132).

Power-wielders are individuals with resources who influence individuals' behaviour to their benefit, i.e. to the satisfaction of the power-wielder's personal goals or needs, which in essence differ from those of the followers (Burns, 1978: 17). Power-wielders see followers as a means to an end and treat them as such. In addition, they see followers as things or objects to be manipulated and use them to pursue their own selfish need for power, control and self-aggrandisement (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290).

Leaders, by contrast, mobilise institutional, social, or political resources so as to arouse and satisfy followers' motives, and their leadership is inseparable from followers' needs and goals (Burns, 1978: 19). It would seem that all leaders are power-wielders, but not all power-wielders are leaders. It thus depends on whose needs and goals are being satisfied: power-wielders use followers for personal gain, whereas leaders marshal resources for the benefit of their followers (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290).

Burns also conceptualised leadership as occurring in two forms, viz. transformational and transactional (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 9; Northouse, 2001: 132) and stated that these two forms of leadership are at opposite ends of a continuum (Bass, 1990: 220). This transformational/transactional continuum was an attempt to illustrate that there are fundamentally different patterns of interaction between leaders and their followers (Engelbrecht, 2002: 591).

3.4.1.2 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership leads to organisational or societal change and thus changes the status quo by appealing to followers' values and their sense of high purpose (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291). It is rational and deals with producing real change (Shriberg, *et al.*, 2002: 208). The transformational leader is therefore a change agent and articulates the problems in the current organisational system with a compelling *vision* of what a new organisation could be (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291). This new vision of the organisation is necessarily intimately linked to both the leaders' and followers' values and is an ideal that is commensurate with the two parties' value systems.

What is noteworthy is that transformational leadership is a *moral* exercise, as it essentially raises the level of human conduct and motivation (Northouse, 2001: 132), and the transformational leader seeks to arouse and satisfy higher follower needs (Bass,

1985: 14; Northouse, 2001: 135; Yukl, 1998: 325).

Transformational leaders also *reframe* issues in such a way that they become aligned with the leader's vision and the followers' values, thereby teaching the latter how to be converted into or become leaders in their own right, and encouraging, inciting, convincing or even coercing them, i.e. transformation through coercion (Bass, 1985: 16-19) to play active roles in the change movement. They also appeal to followers' *end values*, which are the ideals whereby an organisation should strive to exist and which include such elements as justice, liberty, freedom, equality, brotherhood (Burns, 1978: 426; Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291), peace and humanitarianism, but not baser emotions such as fear, greed, jealousy or hatred (Yukl, 1998: 324).

Paradoxically, Burns also conceptualised transformational leadership as being both common and uncommon (Burns, 1978: 426).

It is *common* in the sense that it can be exhibited by anybody at any level of society (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291; Yukl, 1998: 324) such as coaches, teachers, principals, religious figures, leaders of volunteer organisations, and business, civic and political leaders (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291). Transformational leaders can thus occupy various positions at various levels of organisations and can also be formal or informal leaders (Yammarino, 1994: 39). Any individual who has articulated a compelling vision of the future, tied the vision to the values of the followers, worked to raise the followers' moral standards, changed an organisation (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291) and, who through passion and a commitment to a mission, energises and moves others (Pierce & Newstrom, 2000: 269), is necessarily a transformational leader.

It is *uncommon* in the sense that many leaders fail to meet the three criteria of transformational leadership, viz. manifesting modal values and advancing the standards of good conduct for humankind; working to achieve end values; and having a positive impact on people whose lives they touch. Leaders who fail to meet all these criteria are either power-wielders or transactional leaders (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 291). Transformational leaders and transactional leaders reflect different beliefs, attitudes and behaviours and, consequently, there may be some core values characteristic of transformational leadership that would distinguish it from other leadership styles (Engelbrecht, 2002: 590).

3.4.1.3 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is essentially a barter – an exchange of wants between the leader and the follower (Burns, 1979 cited in Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 208). The leader and the follower both have something to offer each other in this exchange relationship (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 9). Such an exchange could be economic, political or psychological in nature (Burns, 1978: 19) such as, for example, exchanging work for money, votes for votes, and loyalty for consideration (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290). For Burns, the transactional political leader would motivate followers by actually exchanging with them rewards for services rendered by the latter (Bass, 1985: 11). The leader endeavours to satisfy the followers' needs by building the kind of relationship in which dependence on one another is mutual and the contributions of both parties are recognised and rewarded (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 208).

Transactional leadership motivates followers by appealing to their self-interest (Yukl, 1998: 325). People will remain in a transactional relationship as long as it benefits both parties and the modal values surrounding the exchange process, i.e. those of honesty, fairness and fulfilling commitments, are being met (Burns, 1978: 426; Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290). Whilst transactional leadership could be very effective, it does not lead to organisational or societal change, but tends to perpetuate the status quo (Burns, 1979 cited in Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290).

3.4.2 Bass' theory of transformational and transactional leadership

Bass' (1985) theory of transformational and transactional leadership is an extension of Burns' theory. As a result, the latter laid a solid foundation for the works of other scholars – particularly those in the organisational leadership field, including Bass – on this perspective of leadership theory (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 10). Bass therefore builds on the earlier ideas of Burns (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 10; Engelbrecht, 2002: 591; Yukl, 1998: 325), although his theory is not necessarily consistent with Burns' (Northouse, 2001: 135).

Bass also stresses the transformational/transactional continuum and, in addition, makes a distinction between transformational and charismatic leadership as proposed by House in 1976 (Northouse, 2001: 133). The phenomenon of charismatic leadership is, however, not given any considerable attention in this research, as it is perceived to be of little

significance to organisational change compared to transformational leadership. Nevertheless, reference is made to it in a rather rudimentary fashion, as it is synonymous with idealised influence, which is one of the transformational leadership behaviours discussed below.

3.4.2.1 The transformational/transactional continuum

The major premise of the theory is that the motivation and performance of followers are enhanced more by transformational leadership than by transactional leadership (Yukl, 1998: 325). For Bass, transformational leadership could apply to situations in which the outcomes are not necessarily positive and where the transformational and transactional leadership should be viewed as a single continuum rather than mutually independent continua (Yammarino, 1993 cited in Northouse, 2001: 135). Transformational leadership does not necessarily detract from transactional leadership, but rather builds on it, thereby broadening the leader's influence on effort and performance (Bass, 1998: 4; Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22). The view that Bass holds is that transformational and transactional leadership are distinct entities but not mutually exclusive processes, and that the same leader may use both types of leadership at different times in different situations (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22; Yukl, 1998: 325) or in different amounts and intensities (Bass, 1985: 26). The leader can thus be both transformational and transactional (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 13).

Bass' theory is appropriate and adequate for addressing the problem of leadership and for several reasons is the one upon which this research is based (**Literature survey question 2**). Firstly, although its inception was almost two decades ago, it has been revised over a number of years, thereby providing a sense of "newness". Secondly, whilst the phenomena of transformational and transactional leadership have been widely studied and researched, few if any recent theories on these phenomena can be singled out as being empirically more sound than Bass' theory. Thirdly, the instrument used in this research, the MLQ-S6, is one of the latest refinements of the MLQ, which is regarded as the most validated and widely researched and used leadership instrument in the world. It was developed by Bass himself and his associate Avolio in 1992.

3.4.2.2 Transformational leadership

Bass' conception of transformational leadership does not depart significantly from that of Burns'. In fact, it is almost just an appendage to the latter's theory. It goes further than Burns' original theory, however (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 13). For Bass, transformational leadership is defined in relation to the leader's effect on followers, where the latter feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the former and followers are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Avolio, 1999: 41; Bass, 1985: 20; Yukl, 1998: 325).

Bass postulates that the leader transforms and motivates followers firstly by making followers more aware of the significance of task outcomes, secondly by inducing followers to put the organisation first, i.e. to transcend their own self-interest for the benefit of the organisation, and thirdly by activating followers' high-order needs (Bass, 1985: 20; Northouse, 2001: 135; Yukl, 1998: 325). Leaders can endeavour to and eventually successfully elevate followers from a lower to a higher level of need based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Bass, 1985: 14).

Bass and Avolio (1992: 21) further suggest, along the lines of organisational change, that the focus should be on the development of transformational leaders who would respond to change positively and even actively create change. They go on to argue that organisations will need to depart from absolute reliance on transactional approaches, characteristic of leadership training for the past two decades, to reliance on the training and development of transformational leadership.

3.4.2.3 Transformational leadership behaviours

Bass identified a number of behaviours characteristic of transformational leadership, i.e. behaviours that leaders must exhibit in order for them to "qualify" as transformational leaders. His earlier formulation of the theory included three types of transformational behaviours, viz. charisma or idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration, whilst the fourth behaviour, inspirational motivation, was added during the later refinement of the theory (Yukl, 1998: 325-326). The behaviours represent four basic components or "I's" of transformational leadership (Avolio, 1999: 24; Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22).

Idealised influence (charisma) is a transformational leadership behaviour that arouses strong emotions in followers, as well as identification with, and emulation of, the leader

(Bass & Avolio, 2001: 204; Yukl, 1998: 326) because leaders act as strong role models for followers (Avolio, 1994: 132; Bass, 1998: 5; Northouse, 2001: 137). Leaders exhibiting this behaviour have a vision and a sense of mission – gaining respect, trust and confidence while encouraging the follower to make the required extra effort to achieve optimal levels of development and performance (Avolio, 1995: 132; Bass, 1995: 629; Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22). They are usually concerned about whatever problem there may be and the need for its solution, and then venture into the future so as to create a sense of becoming in the organisation (Bass, 1994: 115). They also have very high moral standards and conduct themselves in an ethical manner and can thus be counted on to do the right thing (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3; Northouse, 2001: 137).

Individualised consideration is a behaviour that includes such issues as providing support, encouragement, coaching (Avolio, 1999: 42; Bass, 1998: 6; Yukl, 1998: 326), delegation, advice, and feedback for use in the personal development of followers (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22). The initial stage, however, aims to diagnose the needs and capabilities of followers, after which followers' needs are attended to individually (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22; Northouse, 2001: 138). An individually considerate leader must endeavour to devote time to getting to know each follower and, whilst this might appear to be time-consuming and complicated, it can be accomplished by actively listening to followers and being sensitive to their needs (Atwater & Bass, 1994: 75). He/she also makes sure that all parties to the problem are heard (Bass, 1994: 115).

One issue is that leaders emphasise a need for followers to be responsible. This responsibility does not only pertain to their job requirement or exclusively maximising performance, but is also geared towards their personal development, which includes activities such as one's job challenges (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22). The one-to-one contact, i.e. individuation, between leaders and followers will probably enhance the followers' self-image, desire for information, fulfilment of the followers' special needs, and their sense of ownership of decisions and consequences emanating from this (Bass, 1985: 97).

Intellectual stimulation is a behaviour that increases problem awareness and influences followers to consider problems from a new point of view (Yukl, 1998: 326). Followers are stimulated to be creative and innovative and also to challenge their own beliefs and values and those of their leaders and organisation as well (Bass & Avolio, 2001: 204; Northouse, 2001: 138). They are also encouraged to take intellectual risks and question

assumptions (Avolio, 1994: 134; Bass, 1998: 5). They become more effective problem-solvers, whether or not the leader is there to facilitate problem-solving, because of their innovativeness and the strategies they use to solve problems (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22). The leader reformulates with followers what may have begun as an ill-structured, fuzzy problem into more familiar and concrete terms (Bass, 1994: 115). It is worth noting that intellectual stimulation provided by the transformational leader is likely not to stand alone, but the leader is more likely to display some combination of intellectual stimulation, charismatic leadership, and/or individualised consideration (Bass, 1985: 114).

Inspirational motivation or simply inspiration was the latest addition to the theory after it was revised and is a behaviour that includes developing and communicating an appealing vision (Avolio, 1994: 133), using symbols and images (Bass, 1985: 77; Bass & Avolio, 2001: 204) to focus the efforts of subordinates, and modelling behaviours that are deemed appropriate (Yukl, 1998: 326). Thus leaders communicate high expectations or give pep talks (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 326) to followers and inspire them by way of motivating them to become more committed to the organisation and even share its vision (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 133; Northouse, 2001: 138). As a result, team spirit is aroused and enthusiasm and optimism are displayed (Bass, 1998: 5). Leaders also increase confidence and raise the aspiration levels of followers – leading them to believe that the problem can indeed be solved once its cause has been ascertained (Bass, 1995: 115).

3.4.2.4 Dealing with mergers and incorporations

Bass (1998: 39) argues that when one organisation merges with or incorporates another, the employees of the acquired organisation may be disturbed by a loss of identity and purpose. This may lead to anxiety, anger, depression and helplessness. Resignations, forced departures and threats to one's own security may also occur. People may be obsessed with survival in the merged organisation. This being the case, transformational leadership is needed to deal with the merging of the cultures of the acquired or incorporated organisation and the organisation taking over, and it must transcend both organisations. To help cope with stress of the merger, support, consideration and commitment are needed.

Schweiger, Ivancevich and Power (1987) cited in Bass (1998: 39) contend that the transformational leadership behaviour of *individualised consideration* is necessary. Individualised consideration will allow leaders to gather information for their followers on

the organisation taking over, identify counterparts in the other organisation, and establish contact lines so that the followers can understand that their counterparts in the organisation taking over are not the “bad guys” but are rather in a situation similar to theirs.

Transformational leadership can therefore assist followers and colleagues to alleviate the tensions of disengagement, disidentification with the former situation (as in the unfreezing stage of Lewin’s Three-phase Change Model discussed in section 2.4.1.2), disenchantment with the new arrangements, and disorientation without anchors of the past (Bass, 1998: 39). Leaders exhibiting individualised consideration can assist followers and colleagues to work through their denial and anger. An attractive vision of the future by the leader exhibiting *inspirational motivation* can secure the followers’ acceptance of the situation (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 6).

3.4.2.5 Transactional leadership

It is evident from the preceding discussion that central to transformational leadership is the intention to develop individual followers. Transactional leadership, however, departs from this intent in that the transactional leader does not individualise the needs of followers or even focus on their personal development (Northouse, 2001: 140). The transactional leader is unconcerned with developing followers to their fullest potential, but focuses on satisfying the requirements of the exchange relationship between themselves and their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 21-22). Such a leader pursues the cost benefit – economic exchange that would enable him/her to meet followers’ current material as well as emotional needs in return for “contracted” services rendered by the followers (Bass, 1985: 14). Transactional leadership is thus about those exchanges or transactions based on leaders discussing their role requirements with followers and then specifying the rewards the latter will receive if they achieve those requirements (Bass & Avolio, 1994 cited in Engelbrecht, 2002: 591). Leaders are also very influential, as it is in the best interests of followers to do what the leader wants (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987 cited in Northouse, 2001: 140).

3.4.2.6 Transactional leadership behaviours

Bass also identified a number of behaviours characteristic of transactional leadership.

Originally the theory included two types of transactional behaviours, viz. contingent reward and passive management by exception, whilst later revisions of the theory included two additional behaviours, viz. active management by exception and laissez-faire leadership (Yukl, 1998: 326).

Contingent reward behaviour, as the name suggests, includes the clarification of the work required to obtain rewards, as well as the use of incentives and contingent rewards to influence motivation (Yukl, 1998: 326). It is virtually an exchange process between the leaders and followers in which specific rewards are exchanged for follower effort and the leader endeavours to secure agreement from followers on what should be done, accompanied by appropriate payoff (Northouse, 2001: 140) or avoidance of punishment (Bass, 1985: 121).

Active management-by-exception refers to the transactional leader's actions of monitoring followers and taking corrective action to ensure that the work is indeed carried out effectively (Bass, 1998: 7; Yukl, 1998: 326). The leader keeps a watchful eye on followers for mistakes or the violation of rules and subsequently takes corrective action (Northouse, 2001: 140).

Passive management-by-exception refers to the leader's intervention only if standards are not met or if something goes wrong (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22) or if problems have arisen (Northouse, 2001: 140). Therefore leaders who intervene only when something goes wrong practise – either primarily or exclusively – management-by-exception, negative feedback, or contingent aversive reinforcement (Bass, 1985: 135). The leader uses contingent punishment and other corrective action in response to followers' obvious deviations from acceptable performance standards (Bass, 1998: 6; Yukl, 1998: 326).

In general, management-by-exception, whether active or passive, refers to transactional leadership involving corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement (Northouse, 2001: 140).

3.4.2.7 Laissez-faire leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is, according to Northouse (2001: 141), a non-leadership factor that diverges further from transactional leadership and, as a result, represents

behaviours that are nontransactional. This scholar further contends that it falls at the far right side of the transformational/transactional continuum and that it represents the absence of leadership. It refers to those leaders that can be characterised as indecisive, uninvolved, withdrawn when followers need them, reluctant to take a stand (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22), not monitoring, not responding to problems, and generally showing passive indifference about the task and followers (Yukl, 1998: 326). Yukl (1998: 140) classifies laissez-faire leadership as another transactional leadership behaviour. For Bass, laissez-faire leadership seems to be both a transactional leadership behaviour (Bass, 1995: 630) and a non-leadership factor (Bass, 1998: 6; Bass & Avolio, 1994: 4) whilst Avolio (1999: 50) refers to it as non-transactional leadership. Whatever the case may be, laissez-faire leadership is taken as non-leadership in this research.

Table 3.1 below provides, in summary form, characteristics of transformational and transactional leaders based on the leadership behaviours, as well as laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1995: 630) discussed above.

TABLE 3.1

CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERS

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADER
<i>Idealised Influence (Charisma):</i> Provides vision and a sense of mission, instils pride, gains respect and trust.
<i>Inspiration:</i> Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways.
<i>Intellectual Stimulation:</i> Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.
<i>Individualised Consideration:</i> Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.
TRANSACTIONAL LEADER
<i>Contingent Reward:</i> Contracts exchange or rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognises accomplishments.
<i>Management-by-Exception (active):</i> Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action.
<i>Management-by-Exception (passive):</i> Intervenes only if standards are not met.
LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP
Abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions.

3.5 DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The theory of Burns (1978) and subsequently that of Bass (1985) on transformational and transactional leadership laid a solid foundation on which subsequent research on transformational leadership is based. Two lines of such research can be singled out as being quite outstanding in that they have made a significant contribution to the current understanding and nature of transformational leadership (Northouse, 2001: 141). These are the research endeavours undertaken by Bennis and Nanus (1985) and by Tichy and Devanna (1986). It is worth noting that these two research undertakings are based more on transformational leadership, whilst transactional leadership is accorded no status whatsoever. The research by Bennis and Nanus is deemed appropriate and adequate for addressing the problem of leadership (**Literature survey question 3**).

The research has been descriptive and qualitative in nature and has provided considerable and remarkable insight into the manner in which leaders motivate followers and influence change in organisations (Yukl, 1998: 334). The research involved identifying a number of CEOs or leaders of large corporations and interviewing them by using a relatively unstructured, open-ended question-and-answer format (Northouse, 2001: 141). Such executives were necessarily involved in transforming their organisations (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 7).

3.5.1 Research by Bennis and Nanus

Bennis and Nanus (1985) undertook a five-year study of dynamic, innovative leaders, which included 60 top-level corporate leaders and some 30 public sector organisation leaders (Yukl, 1998: 337). During unstructured interviews that lasted for three to four hours, supplemented with some observations, they asked these 90 leaders questions related to their strengths and weaknesses, past events that influenced their leadership approach, and critical points in their careers (Northouse, 2001: 142). From the leaders' responses, the researchers could identify and isolate some common themes or strategies used by leaders in transforming the organisation (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 140-141):

3.5.1.1 Developing a vision

One of the most prominent characteristics of a transformational leader is the desire to

develop a clearly articulated and appealing vision for the organisation (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 296; Philip *et al.*, 1990 cited in Pierce & Newstrom, 2000: 271). The work of such a leader is to adopt or develop a new sense of direction (vision) that others will find compelling and exciting (Nanus, 1996: 4). The capacity to create and realise this vision is the single defining quality of leaders (Bennis, 1989: 194). The same can be said of a charismatic leader (Conger & Kanungo, 1998: 54).

Vision is therefore a commodity of leaders (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 18; Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 17). The management of attention through a vision is thus a leadership competency (Bennis, 1989: 20). Bennis and Nanus also conceptualised a transformational leader as someone who channels the collective energies of members of the organisation in pursuit of a common vision (Yukl, 1998: 338) and who has a clear vision of the future state of the organisation (Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 83; Northouse, 2001: 142).

When an organisation has such a clear vision it becomes easier for members of the organisation to do the following: Firstly, to learn how they fit in with the direction of the organisation. This empowers them in that they feel that they are an inseparable part of a worthwhile enterprise (Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 84; Northouse, 2001: 142; Yukl, 1998: 338). Secondly, the vision can help to facilitate decision-making, initiative, as well as discretion by employees at all levels of the organisation's hierarchy. Knowing the organisation's central purpose and objectives usually helps employees to know what is good or bad, important or trivial (Yukl, 1998: 338). As a result, leadership transforms followers, develops a vision and the goals that may be attained, and spells out to followers the ways to attain those goals (Bennis, 1983 cited in Bass, 1990: 16).

The development of a vision is not solely vested in the leaders themselves. Although leaders play a significant role in articulating the vision, organisation members as well as outsiders contribute equally significantly to developing and fine-tuning the vision (Northouse, 2001: 142; Yukl, 1998: 338). The involvement of others in the visioning process would allow them to share their values and dreams, bring different viewpoints and expertise into the search for a new direction, and make it easier to gain *commitment* (as discussed next) to the vision at the end of the process (Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 98).

In their research, Bennis and Nanus found that the vision needed to grow out of the needs of the whole organisation and be owned by organisation members for it to be

successful (Northouse, 2001: 142).

3.5.1.2 Developing commitment and trust

The development of a clearly articulated and appealing vision is not enough to ensure that the organisation functions like a well-oiled machine and achieves its objectives. There has to be an unequivocal commitment to this vision on the part of leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 143). The process of mobilising commitment should therefore begin at the top of the organisation's hierarchy. Other executives should take part in the process of reshaping the culture of the organisation and embodying the vision in it, and such a responsibility should not be delegated to others (Yukl, 1998: 339). It is important that the vision is right, because the right vision attracts commitment and energises people (Nanus, 1992: 16).

Commitment to a vision is closely related and inseparably bound to follower trust in the leader (Yukl, 1998: 339) and leaders create trust by clearly articulating their positions so that they are well known and then standing by them (Northouse, 2001: 142). Leaders should induce the commitment of the constituencies to maintaining the organisation's course (Bass, 1990: 214). However, sometimes there exists a *commitment gap* created by leaders' failure to instil vision, meaning and trust in their followers (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 8; Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 7).

It is worth noting that trust is not just bestowed upon the leader. Unlike luck, it has to be earned and can similarly not be mandated or purchased (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 153). Trust thus depends on the perceived expertise of the leader but is, at the same time, dependent upon the leader's consistency in words and actions. Inconsistent leaders who often express contradictory values actually undermine the trust and confidence of followers (Yukl, 1998: 339). The main determinant of trust is reliability or constancy (Bennis, 1989: 21), and integrity is the basis for trust (Bennis, 1989: 164). Inconsistency only reduces the appeal of the vision (Yukl, 1998: 339).

Bennis and Nanus found that the establishment of trust by leaders in the organisation gives it a sense of integrity analogous to a healthy identity (Northouse, 2001: 142)

3.5.1.3 Facilitating organisational learning

The importance of individual and organisational learning was one prominent theme found by Bennis and Nanus. Transformational leaders make use of creative deployment of self through positive self-regard (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 55; Northouse, 2001: 142) and their positive self-esteem is likely to be transferred to their followers (Bass, 1990: 154).

Leaders do a number of things to sharpen their skills and increase the knowledge they have gained from experience of success and failures such as the following: recognising the importance of continually gathering information about changing and uncertain events; engaging in endeavours to compel themselves to examine their assumptions and testing their ideas by eliciting reactions from colleagues and external experts; creating a network for information and taking the initiative on special studies for information gathering needed for strategic planning; using experimentation in encouraging innovation and testing new products and procedures; viewing mistakes as being a normal part of doing things and using them as a window of opportunity for learning and development purposes (Yukl, 1998: 339); becoming *social architects* for their organisations by creating a shape or form for the shared meanings that members maintain within their organisations; communicating a direction that transforms their organisation's values and norms; mobilising people in accepting a new group identity or philosophy for their organisations; knowing their strengths and weaknesses and emphasising strengths instead of dwelling on their weaknesses; immersing themselves in their tasks and the overarching goals of their organisations, based on an awareness of their own competence; and being able to fuse a sense of self with the work at hand (Northouse, 2001: 142-143).

In order to facilitate learning by members of the organisation, leaders encourage subordinate managers to set longer time horizons, such as making five-year plans, and to sponsor seminars aimed at developing planning skills and awareness of environmental changes and trends (Yukl, 1998: 340).

Bennis and Nanus furthermore found that there is a reciprocal impact on followers with regard to positive self-regard in leaders, thereby creating in them feelings of confidence and high expectations that leaders were committed to learning and relearning (Bass, 1990: 150; Northouse, 2001: 143), including consistent emphasis on education in the

organisation (Northouse, 2001: 143).

3.5.2 Research by Tichy and Devanna

The research by Tichy and Devanna (1986) involved studying 12 CEOs – constituting only 10.8% of the number of CEOs studied by Bennis and Nanus – in various organisations that were mostly large corporations (Northouse, 2001: 143; Yukl, 1998: 335).

Unlike the current research, which is confined to studying leaders only, and the research by Bennis and Nanus, which involved interviewing and observing leaders only, Tichy and Devanna interviewed both leaders and other people in the organisation (Yukl, 1998: 335) so as to get 360° feedback on leaders. These researchers were interested in how organisations change, i.e. how they are transformed, and were particularly concerned with how leaders carry out the change process (Northouse, 2001: 143).

The interviews were analysed with a view to identifying typical processes that take place when leaders transform and revitalise organisations, the behaviours involved in facilitating this process, and the traits and skills that characterise transformational leaders (Yukl, 1998: 335). The researchers thus sought to ascertain how leaders work under challenging conditions resulting from rapid technological, social and cultural changes, increased competition, and interdependence with economies of other nations, i.e. the entire question of globalisation (Northouse, 2001: 143).

The change process can be viewed as a sequence of phases (Yukl, 1998: 335) or a three-act process (Northouse, 2001: 143) involving recognition of the need for change, creation of a new vision, and institutionalisation of change.

3.5.2.1 Act 1: Recognising the need for change

More often than not organisations fail to attain competitive advantage because they are unable to recognise the need for change. This is a result of a comfort zone within which the organisation operates or within which people work. As a result, people tend to resist change even when the need for it is obvious and unquestionable. In order to overcome this resistance, key decision-makers in the organisation must be made to feel dissatisfied with the status quo (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 30). Transformational leaders

are necessarily change agents (Northouse, 2001: 143) and the first requirement is that they must be able to recognise the need for change (Yukl, 1998: 335).

This act therefore centres on the challenges that leaders come across when they endeavour to sensitise the organisation to growing threats from the environment (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 5-6). Leaders have a responsibility to point out to the organisation how change in the environment could affect the organisation's operations positively or negatively (Northouse, 2001: 143) and to sensitise other key people in the organisation to the seriousness of the threat and the need for major changes rather than ordinary incremental adjustments (Yukl, 1998: 335).

Tichy and Devanna suggest four ways in which leaders can increase sensitivity to environmental changes and threats (Yukl, 1998: 335) and enhance their openness to change (Northouse, 2001: 143): Firstly by challenging current assumptions in the manner of encouraging objective critique and dissent, and allowing people to disagree; secondly by encouraging objective assessment of how well the organisation is able to meet its goals, which can be done by including a diverse set of outsiders on the organisation's board of directors, and meeting with customers to discover their needs and concerns; thirdly by encouraging organisation members to visit other organisations, including those in foreign countries, to obtain alternative viewpoints on how they operate and how they solve problems; and lastly by measuring performance based on a wide range of economic and non-economic indicators relative to competitors on the same indicators (Northouse, 2001: 143; Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 53-56; Yukl, 1998: 335-336).

Once members of the organisation have recognised the need for change and have accepted that change is inevitable for the survival of the organisation, the next task of the transformational leader is to manage the transition process. The leader is thus faced with the responsibility of diagnosing the problem to ascertain what changes are important; helping organisation members deal with the emotional turmoil of rejecting old beliefs and values (this is similar to the moving stage in Lewin's theory of organisational change as discussed in the previous chapter, section 2.4.1.3); helping organisation members to accept the need for change without necessarily feeling that they are the ones to blame for failure; and improving followers' self-confidence and optimism about making an enjoyable and successful transition (Yukl, 1998: 336).

3.5.2.2 Act 2: Creating a new vision

As in the case of the research by Bennis and Nanus, the research by Tichy and Devanna advocates the creation of a new vision by the leader as well as other members of the organisation so as to create a feeling of ownership of the vision and the new territory into which the organisation is about to venture. This act centres on the leaders' struggle to focus the attention of the organisation on an exciting and positive vision of the future (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 6).

Central to the creation of a vision is a mission statement, which describes the general purpose of the organisation (Northouse, 2001: 144; Yukl, 1998: 336). This vision acts as a conceptual road map indicating the direction towards which the organisation is heading and what it will look like in future (Northouse, 2001: 144). In order for it to be motivating, a new vision must be a source of self-esteem and common purpose and should be expressed in ideological terms, instead of just economic terms, so as to help organisation members to develop a sense of purpose about their membership in the organisation (Yukl, 1998: 336). Leaders also mobilise commitment to a vision as they tap into a deeper sense of meaning for their followers (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 31).

3.5.2.3 Act 3: Institutionalising changes

This act involves the leaders' quest to institutionalise the transformation so as to enable them to survive their tenure in given positions (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 6). It involves breaking down old structures and establishing new ones, which would require that the leader creates a new coalition of employees who would be compatible with the new vision (Northouse, 2001: 144). There is a sharing of new realities, actions and practices so that change can become institutionalised (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 31). The leader also needs the assistance of top-level executives and a plan for securing the unequivocal support of other important people both inside and outside the organisation in order to effectively implement major changes (Yukl, 1998: 337).

In the process of institutionalising change, some people might need assistance in finding new roles in the organisation, as new structures should be commensurate with the new directions of the organisation (Northouse, 2001: 144). In this regard, the leader might have to make personal changes so as to substitute people in key positions with those who have the skills and commitment necessary for the successful implementation of

change (Yukl, 1998: 337).

A number of techniques can be used to facilitate the change process, and these include special task forces, planning meetings, management-development workshops, team-building interventions, reorganisation of subunits, creation of new positions, change in reward systems and appraisal procedures, and design of facilities (Yukl, 1998: 337).

3.6 SUMMARY

It is evident from the preceding discussion on the theories and research of transformational leadership that this perspective of leadership is undoubtedly very sound in terms of accounting for organisational change. The argument is that for leaders to be able to manage change effectively and efficiently, they have to be transformational in their approach. In other words, leaders have to exhibit certain transformational leadership behaviours, such as those identified by Bass, for them to be change agents and display high levels of competence in terms of dealing with organisational change.

The next chapter contains the empirical study of the research.



CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the empirical study of the research. It builds on the literature survey as discussed in chapters 2 and 3. Since methodological triangulation is adopted, the chapter discusses how the empirical study was conducted for both the quantitative and qualitative studies. That is, the chapter discusses the scientific approach followed in addressing the perceived problem of the lack of transformational leadership among leaders in the HE sector. It discusses the population and sample, measurement instrument, data collection and data processing from the perspective of the quantitative and qualitative studies.

4.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

4.2.1 Population

The population consisted of all senior leaders within the 36 public HE institutions in SA. Such leaders included top strategic leaders, as well as academic and support services leaders. The population therefore included all levels of leadership from tactical-operational to strategic levels. The senior leaders in general included the following categories of leadership: Vice-chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors, registrars, executive deans, deans, heads/chairs of departments/schools, executive directors, chief directors, senior directors, directors, managers, and campus heads.

The categorisation of leaders is not uniform across different institutions, but generally these are the categories identifiable within the institutions surveyed. The inclusion of these categories of leaders was based on the premise that transformational leadership behaviours are not only confined to top leadership echelons, such as vice-chancellors

and deputy vice-chancellors, but can be exhibited by anyone in any leadership position. Transformational leaders do not necessarily have to occupy the highest or most prominent positions to influence others (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 39) and such leaders can be found at all levels of the organisation's hierarchy (Avolio, 1999: 32).

Although the exact number of leaders belonging to the identified categories could not be established, Brunyee (2001:12) claims that there are approximately 400 top managers in the 36 institutions of higher learning in South Africa. The problem with Brunyee's approximation is that this scholar does not provide an explanation of what is meant by "top managers". Nevertheless, with the categorisation of leaders used in this research, it was estimated that the population was 2340. This figure was arrived at by using an average of such leaders in the institutions, namely that each was estimated to have 65 such leaders. This matter is elaborated further in 4.2.2.3 below.

4.2.2 Sample for phase 1 – quantitative study

Purposive sampling was used. It involved the identification of both the primary and secondary sampling units.

4.2.2.1 Purposive sampling

This research involved the use of non-probability sampling (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 166). The selection of the sample was purposive as opposed to being random or characterised by the application of probability methods (Dreyer, 1994: 273). Purposive or judgmental sampling was used among the non-probability sampling techniques such as reliance on available subjects, snowball sampling, quota sampling, and selection of informants (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 166-168; Balnaves & Caputi, 2001: 95; Black, 1999: 124-125).

In line with Babbie (1999: 174) and Babbie and Mouton (2001: 166), purposive or judgmental sampling was used because of the researcher's own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of the research aims. Also, this sampling

technique was appropriate for one other reason, namely that the research involved a small sample of a larger population in which many members of the population were easily identified, but the enumeration of all of them would have been time-consuming, costly and nearly impossible. Hence it was deemed appropriate to use purposive sampling. For example, in studying transformational leadership behaviours among HE leaders, many such leaders are easily visible, but it would not be an easy exercise to define and sample all leaders.

Purposive sampling means the selection of a sample from which one can learn the most. The subjects in the research were those with a certain level of experience or expertise. They were chosen according to their leadership “expertise” or role, from a vice-chancellor to a director, manager, and HOD. In this way, criterion-based sampling was used (Dreyer, 1994: 273). This involves establishing certain criteria or standards that must be met before a subject can be included in the research.

4.2.2.2 Primary sampling units

A cross-section of HE institutions involved in the merger and incorporation processes was used to draw the sample from. Since the institutions were being reduced from 36 to 23 through these mergers and incorporations, as stipulated in the NPHE (Department of Education, 2001), seven institutions were selected in this research as the primary sampling units. This was done because this research involved more complex samples in which different levels of sampling units were employed. This contrasts with a simple single-stage sample where the sampling units are the same as the elements (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 174).

The seven institutions or primary sampling units consisted of two institutions in the Free State province, viz. the University of the Free State and the Technikon Free State; two institutions in the North West province, viz. Potchefstroom University and the University of North West; two institutions in the Gauteng province, viz. Rand Afrikaans University and Technikon Witwatersrand; as well as Vista University, which had campuses across the country.

In line with the directives of the NPHE (Department of Education, 2001), the University of the Free State has incorporated the Qwaqwa campus of the University of the North and the Bloemfontein campus of Vista University; the Technikon Free State has incorporated the Welkom campus of Vista University and the resulting new institution is now known as the Central University of Technology, Free State; Potchefstroom University and the University of North West have merged and incorporated the Sebokeng campus of Vista University, and the product of this merger and incorporation process is known as the University of North West; Rand Afrikaans University has incorporated the Soweto and East Rand campuses of Vista University and the resulting institution merged with Technikon Witwatersrand, with the product of this incorporation and merger process now known as the University of Johannesburg.

The choice of the institutions in three provinces was made to ensure that there was no influence of any geopolitical factors in addressing the problem. Furthermore, Vista University had eight satellite campuses scattered all over the country. The inclusion of Vista University in this research thus ensured geographical representation of the institutions. It was hoped that seven institutions out of 36 would be sufficiently representative to make generalisations to the entire HE sector.

4.2.2.3 Secondary sampling units

A sample of leaders, which was the secondary or final sampling unit (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 174), was selected from the seven institutions that were identified as the locations of data or primary sampling units. Although probability sampling was not used in this research, the sampling frame (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001: 91) or the actual list of sampling units was obtained in two ways.

Firstly, a letter (**Appendix 1**) was written to the human resources director of each participating institution requesting the contact particulars of the leaders belonging to the identified categories.

Secondly, the lists were retrieved from the institutions' websites. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 185) contend that whilst it is difficult to gain access to some of these lists, they do provide excellent sampling frames for specialised research purposes. It should be pointed out that difficulty was experienced when it came to obtaining the lists via the HR directors for various reasons. However, when it came to utilising the institutions' websites, difficulty was not experienced and access to the sampling frames was a relatively easy exercise, since the institutions' websites were easily accessible. The issue of access to these lists is revisited in section 4.4.1.

A headcount of the leaders in the categories identified, based on the lists obtained from the institutions' HR directors and websites, yielded an approximated total of 460 subjects. This is an average of 65 subjects per institution. An approximation can therefore be made that the total population taken from the 36 institutions would be $65 \times 36 = 2340$. A sampling frame of 460 constitutes 19.65% of the total estimated population of 2340. Initially, an attempt was made to include all 460 subjects (sampling frame) which would have been advantageous in addressing a question of non-responses. However, due to problems such as, *inter alia*, non-availability of e-mail addresses of some of the subjects, it became untenable to include the entire sample of 460 in the research.

4.2.3 Sample for phase 2 – qualitative study

Purposive sampling was also used. It involved the identification of both the primary and secondary sampling units.

4.2.3.1 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling was also used in selecting subjects for participation in the interviews, since sampling in the Interpretive Paradigm is not random but purposive and directed at certain inclusive criteria. Purposive sampling is almost always used in studies

that involve qualitative methods (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 288). In qualitative research, the idea is to purposefully select subjects who will best answer the research questions without making any attempt to randomly select them (Creswell, 1994: 148).

4.2.3.2 Primary sampling units

The primary sampling units consisted of three institutions in the Free State province, viz. the Technikon Free State, the University of the Free State, and the Bloemfontein campus of Vista University, and two institutions in the Gauteng province, viz. Rand Afrikaans University and Technikon Witwatersrand. The choice of the five institutions was premised on the argument that the qualitative study was merely a supplement of the quantitative study in this research. As a result, there was no need to include the two institutions in the North West province, which also formed part of the primary sampling units in the quantitative study.

4.2.3.3 Secondary sampling units

The secondary sampling units consisted of those leaders of the five institutions in the Free State and Gauteng provinces who achieved high scores on the questionnaire. In total, 86 leaders achieved high scores on all transformational leadership behaviours. Of this number, 25 were interviewed, which constituted 29.1% of those leaders. This issue is revisited in section 4.4.2.

4.3 MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

Two measurement instruments were used: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used for the quantitative study, whilst the semi-structured interview was used for the qualitative study.

4.3.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

This research used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) as a primary

measurement instrument. Since the MLQ has been revised and modified over the years (Den Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997: 24) the research used one of the most recent forms, viz. the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 6S (MLQ-6S) (**Appendix 2**) developed by Bass and Avolio in 1992, which is, for that matter, a shortened form of the MLQ (Northouse, 2001: 155).

4.3.1.1 Development

Three different *versions* of the MLQ have been developed (Bass, 1998: 114). Firstly, the MLQ Team describes the internal leadership behaviours of a team. This version is useful for diagnosing problems with team dynamics and relationships. Secondly, the Organisational Description Questionnaire (ODQ) profiles an organisation's culture based on the transformational leadership model. It can also provide quite a useful measure of context in strategic and organisational change programmes. Thirdly, the MLQ provides assessment and feedback at an individual level. This is the version used in this research.

The earlier *form* of the MLQ was developed by Bass in 1985 and was based on a series of interviews he and his associates conducted with seventy senior executives in South Africa (Northouse, 2001: 154). The instrument was intended to measure the various aspects of transformational and transactional leadership (Bass, 1985 cited in Yukl, 1998: 327). That is, it was developed to assess the extent to which leaders exhibited transformational and transactional leadership, as well as the extent to which followers derived satisfaction from their leaders and believed their leaders were effective (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 318).

According to Northouse (2001: 154-155), the executives in the South African study were asked, based on their experience, to recall leaders who did the following: raised their awareness to broader goals; moved them to higher motives; or inspired them to put others' interests ahead of their own. Thereafter, these executives were asked to provide a description of how those leaders behaved, i.e. what they did in order to effect change. Following from these descriptions and interviews with both junior and senior executives, Bass constructed a set of questions that constituted the MLQ.

In general, a variety of ways have been used to identify the components of transformational and transactional leadership as well as their meaning, viz. factor analysis, observations, interviews, and descriptions of the ideal leader that people carry around in their heads (Bass, 1998: 11). Since this first form of the MLQ was designed, it has undergone a number of revisions over the past 15 years (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 318) and it still continues to be refined so as to strengthen its reliability and validity (Bass & Avolio, 1993 cited in Northouse, 2001: 155).

Yukl (1998: 327) contends that the scales used to measure the separate components of transformational and transactional leadership are actually based on factor analysis of the initial design and its subsequent forms. The earliest form, however, had some serious weaknesses that adversely affected its utility for testing transformational leadership theory. Most items in the charismatic and intellectual stimulation scales, for example, provided a description of the outcomes of leadership such as followers becoming more enthusiastic about the work and viewing problems in unique ways. This is fallacious, as the scales have to describe specific, observable actions by the leaders to cause such outcomes.

Furthermore, one consistent problem that has been raised by many scholars who used the MLQ was establishing whether the components of transformational leadership should be considered independently of the contingent reward leadership and/or whether the latter should be viewed as a separate factor (Avolio & Bass, 1999: 443).

Other scholars have also argued that the components of transformational leadership cannot be distinguished empirically. The content of the MLQ has changed with the passage of time, and studies that used this instrument have also produced differing factor structures (Yukl, 1998 cited in Tejada, 2001: 33). These weaknesses, however, were remedied by including more items in later revisions of the questionnaire, such as the scale on inspiration motivation that describes observable leader behaviour (Bass, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1999 cited in Yukl, 1998: 327).

According to Tejada (2001: 37-39), some studies have developed new measures,

employed modifications of this instrument, or used various forms of the instrument itself. For example: Firstly, Howell and Avolio (1991) cited in Tejeda (2001: 37-39) used a shorter form of the MLQ (Form 10), which consisted of behavioural items only; secondly, Basu's (1991) cited in Tejeda (2001: 37-39) study on transformational leadership and subordinate innovative behaviour employed a new measure of charisma without any transactional leadership items; thirdly, Sridhar *et al.* (1994) cited in Tejeda (2001: 37-39) investigated transformational and transactional leadership and related it to follower empowerment utilising modified forms of the MLQ; fourthly, Tepper and Percy (1994) cited in Tejeda (2001: 37-39) investigated the factor structure of a 24-item, reduced form of Bass and Avolio's (1990) cited in Tejeda (2001: 37-39) 72-item MLQ; and fifthly, Howell and Avolio (1993) cited in Tejeda (2001: 37-39) successfully used latent variable partial least squares analysis in investigating the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership to organisational outcomes by using a reduced form of the MLQ, which contained only charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration as subscales of transformational leadership. Transactional leadership scales were included in this study, but laissez-faire was not.

In the same vein, this research employed a reduced form of the MLQ, viz. the 21-item MLQ-6S which was developed by Bass and Avolio in 1992.

The rationale for using particularly the reduced form of the MLQ, viz. MLQ-6S, was premised on, amongst other things, two factors. Firstly, consistent with the requirements of a limited-scope research, the revised form was deemed appropriate. Secondly, Tejeda's (2001: 46-48) study on exploring the psychometric properties of the MLQ, and developing from the existing MLQ items theoretically valid and internally consistent subscales, did not lend support to the continued use of the full-item MLQ. This scholar instead proposed a 27-item reduced form of the MLQ with the following advantages, which may also be applicable to the much reduced 21-item form used in this research: shorter measures are appropriate for surveys, especially when participant burden is a concern; the scales appear to be internally consistent and empirically distinct from one another; the items in the questionnaire are consistent with the Multifactor Leadership Theory; and data that have been collected with the full- or complete-item set of the MLQ

may be subjected to reanalysis using the reduced form without requiring any further data collection.

4.3.1.2 Rationale

The underlying principles of the MLQ are that if the respondent scores high on transformational leadership factors, then this would mean that the respondent can exhibit desirable transformational leadership behaviours for managing change such as idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Low scores on transactional and laissez-faire leadership factors also imply that the respondent is transformational in his/her leadership style (Northouse, 2001: 155). The opposite is also true. The factors measured by the MLQ are discussed in section 4.3.1.4 below.

4.3.1.3 Aim

The aim of the MLQ-6S is to measure the leader's transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles (Northouse, 2001: 155). In other words, the aim is to try and determine the frequency or the extent to which the leader exhibits transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours.

4.3.1.4 Factors

The MLQ-6S measures a total of seven factors constituted as four transformational leadership factors, two transactional leadership factors and one laissez-faire leadership factor. It provides a description of the leader's leadership style through 21 descriptive items from which the leaders judge how frequently each item fits them. The seven factors constitute what Bass and Avolio (1994) have termed a Full Range of Leadership Styles (Avolio, 1999: 42; Northouse, 2001: 156). That is, the Full Range of Leadership model is based on the MLQ factor structure (Bass, 1998: 99). According to the Full Range of Leadership model, every leader displays each style to some extent (Bass, 1998: 7).

The MLQ-6S measures the following seven factors (Northouse, 2001: 157):

Transformational leadership factors

Factor 1. *Idealised influence*: This factor indicates whether the leader holds the subordinates' trust, maintains their faith and respect, shows dedication to them, appeals to their hopes and dreams, and acts as their role model. It is represented by three items, viz. items 1, 8 and 15:

Item 1: *I make others feel good to be around me.*

Item 8: *Others have complete faith in me.*

Item 15: *Others are proud to be associated with me.*

Factor 2. *Inspirational motivation*: This factor measures the degree to which the leader provides a vision, uses appropriate symbols and images to help others focus on their work, and tries to make others feel their work is significant. It is represented by three items, viz. items 2, 9, and 16:

Item 2: *I express with a few simple words what we could and should do*

Item 9: *I provide appealing images about what we can do.*

Item 16: *I help others find meaning in their work.*

Factor 3. *Intellectual stimulation*: This factor shows the degree to which the leader encourages others to be creative in looking at old problems in new ways, creates an environment that is tolerant of seemingly extreme positions, and nurtures people to question their own values and beliefs and those of the organisation. It is represented by three items, viz. items 3, 10 and 17:

Item 3: *I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.*

Item 10: *I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.*

Item 17: *I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.*

Factor 4. *Individualised consideration*: This factor indicates the degree to which the leader shows interest in others' wellbeing, assigns projects individually, and pays attention to those who seem less involved in the group. It is represented by three items, viz. items 4, 11, and 18:

Item 4: *I help others develop themselves.*

Item 11: *I let others know how I think they are doing.*

Item 18: *I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.*

Transactional leadership factors

Factor 5. *Contingent reward*: This factor shows the degree to which the leader tells others what to do in order to be rewarded, emphasises what he/she expects from them, and recognises their accomplishments. It is represented by three items, viz. items 5, 12, and 19:

Item 5: *I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.*

Item 12: *I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.*

Item 19: *I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.*

Factor 6. *Management-by-exception (active and passive)*: This factor assesses whether the leader tells others the job requirements, is content with standard performance, and believes in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it". It is represented by three items, viz. items 6, 13 and 20:

Item 6: *I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.*

Item 13: *As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.*

Item 20: *I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.*

Laissez-fair leadership

Factor 7. *Laissez-fair*. This factor measures whether the leader requires little of others, and is content to let things ride and let others do their own thing. It is represented by three items, viz. items 7, 14, and 21:

Item 7: *I am content to let others continue working in the same way as always.*

Item 14: *Whatever others want to do is OK with me.*

Item 21: *I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.*

4.3.1.5 Administration

The MLQ-6S contains information on how to go about completing it. It provides a description of the leader's leadership style (Northouse, 2001: 156). It is generally a self-administered questionnaire in which 21 descriptive statements (items) are provided. The leader describes how frequently each statement fits him/her. These descriptive statements are part of the seven factors that relate to transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. The leader's score for each factor, as indicated on the MLQ-6S score sheet (**Appendix 3**), is determined by summing up three specified items on the questionnaire. For example, to determine the leader's score for Factor 2, *inspirational motivation*, responses to items 2, 9, and 16 are summed.

4.3.1.6 Interpretation

Interpretation is also based on the scores obtained on items 1 to 21 on the questionnaire. The score for each factor is determined by summing up three specified items on the questionnaire as indicated in section 4.3.1.5 above. For example, for idealised influence, scores on items 1, 8 and 15 are summed to determine the overall score on this factor. A score range of high (9 – 12), moderate (5 – 8), or low (0 – 4) is then allocated to a factor.

The seven factors are divided into three groups as follows (Northouse, 2001: 155): The first group is the scores on factors 1 through 4, representing items that directly assess the degree to which the subject's leadership is transformational. Higher scores on these

factors indicate more frequently exhibited transformational leadership. The second group is the scores on factors 5 and 6, representing the transactional dimensions of leadership. Higher scores on these factors indicate that the respondent tends to use reward systems and/or corrective structures in his/her leadership style. The last factor is laissez-faire leadership, which assesses the degree to which the subject employs hands-off leadership, or non-leadership. Higher scores on this factor indicate that the subject tends to provide little structure or guidance to subordinates.

4.3.1.7 Reliability

Several different approaches, according to Bass (1998: 117-119), have been used to confirm the reliability of the MLQ by examining the resulting agreement among raters. The approaches included Rate-Rerate Consistency, Subordinate-Superior Agreement, and Peer Ratings Based on Performance in Small Groups. These approaches provided evidence that the MLQ is a reliable leadership measurement instrument.

In the same vein, various other types of evaluations such as performance ratings by supervisors and direct reports, as well as standard financial measures, have shown some positive relationship between transformational behaviour and high MLQ ratings (Bass, 1995: 630), thereby proving the instrument's reliability. Also, similar results were found in various organisational settings when the MLQ was employed (Bass, 1995: 620). Lowe, Kroek and Swasubramaniam (1996) cited in Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 319-320) and Tejeda (2001: 36) conducted a meta-analysis, which involved forty studies from a variety of countries, institutions and organisational levels, and arrived at the conclusion that the MLQ is a valid and reliable measure of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership.

4.3.1.8 Validity

There is substantive evidence, as shown in a number of research studies conducted by Tejeda (2001: 31-52) and Avolio and Bass (1999: 59), that the MLQ is indeed a valid instrument across a number of validity types. These validity types include *criterion-*

related or predictive validity based on some external criterion; *construct validity*, based on the logical relationship among variables; and *content validity*, which refers to the extent to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 123).

Tejeda (2001: 31-52) conducted research with the following aims: to explore the psychometric properties of the MLQ; to develop theoretically valid and internally consistent subscales from the existing MLQ items; and to propose a 27-item reduced form of the MLQ. The following were the findings: firstly, a reduced set of items from the MLQ appeared to show preliminary evidence of predictive and construct validity; secondly, the transformational subscales or items were highly inter-correlated in support of convergent validity for this construct category; and third, the transformational leadership scales were negatively related to both management-by-exception subscales and laissez-faire leadership, providing some support for discriminant validity.

Avolio and Bass (1999: 59) also found the more recent form of the MLQ (Form 5X) to have discriminant validity. The purpose of their research was to examine the factor structure of the MLQ-5X, which had been designed to address some of the main limitations of the earlier forms of this instrument. By including two correlated higher-order factors that were used to represent the transformational and transactional contingent reward leadership factors, these researchers were able to reduce the latent correlations and enhance discriminant validity between the transformational higher-order factor that contained charisma, inspirational and intellectual stimulation and the second higher-order factor that contained individualised consideration and contingent reward.

Despite its established validity, the MLQ was subjected to some criticism particularly with regard to its content and construct validity. The content of the MLQ has been changed/reduced/modified over the years and, as a result, those studies employing this instrument have produced differing factor structures (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997 cited in Tejeda, 2001: 34; Lewens, Van Geti & Coetsier, 1997 cited in Tejeda, 2001: 34; Yammarino & Bass, 1990 cited in Tejeda, 2001: 34). This in turn poses some problems for content validity and may be harmful to the development and

accumulation of knowledge (Bokbo & Stone-Romero, 1998 cited in Tejada, 2001: 34; Newma & Tejada, 1999 cited in Tejada, 2001: 34; Schrieshein, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner & Lankau, 1994 cited in Tejada, 2001:37).

Nevertheless, the comparative studies and replication studies do confirm that the MLQ is a reliable and valid leadership instrument (Whitelaw, 2001: 2).

4.3.1.9 Justification for inclusion in the research

The MLQ has been widely used, more than any other leadership instrument (Northouse, 2001: 154). Many empirical studies have been conducted in a multitude of sectors using the MLQ such as in business and industry, government, the military, educational institutions and non-profit organisations, and across a wide-range of occupational categories and managerial levels (Bass, 1998: 8-9). It has also been used in different cultures such as Japan (Yokochi, 1989 cited in Bass, 1998: 55) and the Netherlands where it was even translated into Dutch (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997 cited in Tejada, 2001: 34). Moreover, it has also been used to compare transformational leadership ratings between men and women (Bass, 1998: 73), and its profiles have been correlated with the profiles of other instruments such as the Gordon Person Profile and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Bass, 1998: 122-123).

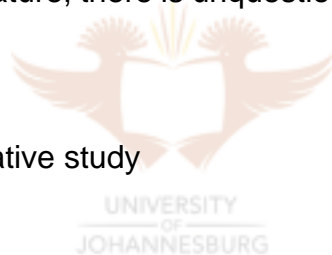
The MLQ is thus used in this research because it is the most researched and validated leadership instrument in the world (Tejada, 2001: 32). Many organisations therefore use the MLQ to systematically measure the transformational leadership behaviours among their leaders and it is the most widely used in this regard (Northouse, 2001: 154). The MLQ thus has emerged from quite a thorough and rigorous research process over the past fifteen years, and its key strengths lie in its scientific genesis (Whitelaw, 2001: 1).

The MLQ has also proven its reliability and validity and meets the eight hallmarks of good scientific research as delineated by Sekaran (1992: 10-14), viz. purposiveness, rigour, testability, replicability, precision and confidence, objectivity, generalisability, and parsimoniousness. Whitelaw (2001: 1) applied these hallmarks to the MLQ. Moreover, it

has been revised several times over a period of fifteen years so as to address some of the limitations observed in the earlier forms and to close the gaps as far as reliability and validity are concerned. This gives the researcher utilising this instrument some degree of confidence.

Research on the MLQ clearly demonstrates links between transformational leadership behaviours and desired organisational outcomes such as successful change. The conceptualisation of transformational leaders as change agents in chapter 3 is congruent to the operationalisation of leadership in this instrument. That is, those leaders that are able to exhibit the transformational leadership behaviours as measured by the MLQ will necessarily be able to manage change successfully.

Given the widespread use of the MLQ, its undisputed popularity among leadership researchers and its scientific nature, there is unquestionable justification to include it in this research as well.



4.3.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

The interview is undoubtedly the most common source of data in qualitative research (Bryman, 2001: 312). Interviews range from the highly structured style in which questions are determined before the interview, to the open-ended conversational format (Burns, 2000: 422-426). The highly structured format is used primarily to gather socio-demographic information. This research adopted a person-to-person format and used a semi-structured interview.

4.3.2.1 Development

The interview conducted in this research was developed from the descriptive, qualitative research on transformational leadership. This research has provided considerable insight into the way in which leaders motivate followers and influence change in organisations (Yukl, 1998: 334). In particular, the interview was based on research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) who identified and interviewed *effective leaders* in an attempt

to ascertain the characteristic behaviours, traits, and influence processes (Yukl, 1998: 334).

Bennis and Nanus (cf. section 3.5.1) undertook a 5-year study of some dynamic, innovative leaders, which included 60 top-level corporate leaders and some 30 public sector organisation leaders (Yukl, 1998: 337). During unstructured interviews that lasted 3 to 4 hours, supplemented with some observation, they asked the 90 leaders questions related to their strengths and weaknesses, past events that influenced their leadership approach, and critical points in their careers (Northouse, 2001: 142). From the leaders' responses, the researchers could identify and isolate some common themes or strategies used by leaders in transforming the organisation (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 140-141). Some common themes or strategies were developing a vision, developing commitment and trust, and facilitating organisational learning.

The interview questions therefore rotated firstly around those questions that were posed by Bennis and Nanus in determining the leaders' characteristic behaviours and influence processes, and secondly around the common themes or strategies as identified by these researchers.

Unlike in the quantitative study of this research, where an existing measure was used as it was without any alterations, in the qualitative study the measure used, though based on established research, was not exactly a replica of the measure used in the mentioned research. There was thus some flexibility and uniqueness in the interview as compared to the rigidly formulated items on the questionnaire. Furthermore, whilst the MLQ measured three dimensions of leadership behaviour, viz. transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership (Northouse, 2001: 155), the interview assessed one dimension, viz. transformational leadership.

4.3.2.2 Rationale

The underlying principle of the interview was that it would elicit from the leaders those common themes or strategies used by leaders in transforming the organisation, such as developing a vision, developing commitment and trust, and facilitating organisational

learning. It also elicited typical characteristics and influences or “guidelines” of transformational leaders, which have been observable from other research on transformational leadership, such as acting in a confident and optimistic manner, and expressing confidence in followers, amongst others.

4.3.2.3 Aim

The aim was to establish the following from the leaders: Firstly, their transformational leadership strengths; secondly, their transformational leadership weaknesses; thirdly, a description of past events that could have contributed to their leadership styles; fourthly, a description of the critical points in their careers that also could have shaped their leadership style; and lastly, a description of the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader.

4.3.2.4 Factors

The interview measured only one dimension, namely transformational leadership. The factors were firstly those that were based on the research of Bennis and Nanus (1985) in an attempt to isolate themes or common strategies used by leaders in transforming the organisation; and secondly, those that attempted to identify characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader.

Factor 1: *What are your transformational leadership strengths?*

Factor 2: *What are your transformational leadership weaknesses?*

Factor 3: *What past events most influenced your leadership approach?*

Factor 4: *What were the critical points in your career?*

Factor 5: *What are the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader?*

There was also some convergence in the findings from the different types of research to suggest some tentative “guidelines” for transformational leadership, i.e. for leaders who seek to inspire and motivate followers. Such transformational leadership guidelines, which are expected to be discernable from the outcome of the interview, are, according

to Yukl (1998: 342):

- Articulate a clear and appealing vision.
- Explain how the vision can be attained.
- Act confident and optimistic.
- Express confidence in followers.
- Provide opportunities for early successes.
- Celebrate successes.
- Use dramatic, symbolic actions to emphasise key values.
- Lead by example.
- Empower people to achieve the vision.

4.3.2.5 Administration

The interview was semi-structured in that the interview questions were prepared beforehand. It contained a protocol to be followed during the interview (Creswell, 1994: 152), including the following components:

- A heading: Semi-structured interview on transformational leadership.
- Instructions to the interviewer, who was also the researcher, viz.
 - opening statements that involved greetings, outlining the purpose of the interview, the duration of the interview, etc.
 - the key research questions to be asked, viz. What are your transformational leadership strengths? What are your transformational leadership weaknesses? What past events most influenced your leadership approach? What were the critical points in your career? What are the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader?
 - probes to follow key questions such as asking a question like: “Can you mention any other characteristic of a transformational leader”? or “What is your understanding of a good transformational leader”?.

- Space for recording the interviewer's comments. That is, a notebook in which the interviewer recorded comments based on the interviewee's responses to questions.

The interview questions and responses were tape-recorded so that they could be transcribed and analysed. From these transcriptions and analyses, common themes and strategies were extracted and typical characteristics of transformational leaders were identified.

4.3.2.6 Interpretation

Interpretation of the interview was based on the responses to factors 1 to 5 as outlined in section 4.3.2.4 above. The responses were interpreted relative to the findings of the research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) in particular, as well as other research on transformational leadership. If the interview illustrated convergence with the findings from these research studies, it would suggest the existence of some common themes, as well as typical characteristics of transformational leaders. Where divergence was observed, this would be evidence of additional transformational leadership characteristics that had not been identified in past research studies.

4.3.2.7 Reliability

Researchers in various disciplines do concur on the importance of the concepts of reliability and validity, but clearly there is some dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative researchers in terms of their application of these concepts (Lee, 1999: 145-146). The argument is that these concepts are less important when it comes to qualitative research in that they do not readily apply to their studies and it is therefore inappropriate to try and apply them. However, Lee's argument that the ideas of reliability and validity apply equally well to both the quantitative and qualitative research, and Creswell's (1994: 158) contention suggesting the importance of addressing the concepts of reliability and validity in a qualitative research, are accepted in this research.

Following on Babbie and Mouton (2001: 275-276), reliability and validity of the interviews can be enhanced by triangulation, writing extensive field notes, member checks, peer review, reasoned consensus and audit trial, thereby allowing participants to speak freely without distorting what they say whilst being interviewed.

Although it is difficult to replicate the research exactly in another context (Creswell, 1994: 159), reliability is enhanced by utilising two approaches as suggested by Yin (1989) cited in Creswell (1994: 159) and Lee (1999: 157).

First a thorough protocol is written, which outlines a set of specific procedures and the general principles laid out for the research (Lee, 1999: 157). The protocol specifies the following: an overview of the research's objectives; the specific research questions under study, interview schedules and topics, as well as method of data analysis; the structure of the research report; and field/interview procedures such as the researcher's credentials, site specifications, and sources of information.

Secondly, an interview database is created. This consists of audio-taped and transcribed interviews, which are available for external inspection and reanalysis. The detailed protocol and data documentation increase the repeatability and therefore the reliability of the interview.

4.3.2.8 Validity

Internal validity was enhanced through the use of several procedures. Firstly, two sets of extensive field notes were kept: one describing the environment in which the interview took place; and the other theoretical memoranda, i.e. observations that contradicted or enhanced the original theoretical ideas (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 275). Secondly, member checks were done by taking all transcripts and analysed texts back to four of the interviewees so as to check with them whether what had been constructed from the data was actually what they had said (Babbie & Mouton, 1998: 275-276; Creswell, 1994: 158). Thirdly, an audit trial was done with a colleague who holds a doctoral degree in education and acts as an independent examiner. All the theoretical ideas, notes, raw

data and interpretations were handed over to this independent examiner who studied them in great depth with the expectation that he would point out biases, flaws and other problems in the interview.

External validity was enhanced by making sure that the findings of the interview were generalisable to other similar studies, albeit to a limited scale (Creswell, 1994: 158-159). This generalisability would be based on the categories or themes of transformational leadership to emerge from the data analysis or from the data collection protocol as used in this research.

4.3.2.9 Justification for inclusion in the research

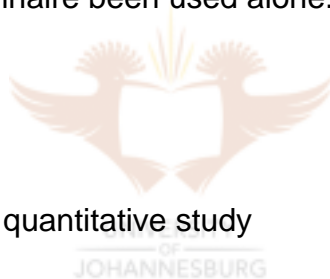
The use of the MLQ in this research does not necessarily provide a conclusive solution to the research problem or definite answers to the research questions. In other words, the Positivist Paradigm is in itself inadequate in addressing the research problem and questions. The interview was used precisely to supplement the possible shortcomings of the questionnaire. The Interpretive Paradigm, as delineated by the use of an interview, thus provided more enlightenment on transformational leadership than would be the case if only the Positivist Paradigm was explored. It is for this reason that methodological triangulation was used.

It should be noted, however, that although the interview had a somewhat considerable impact on the results of the entire research, it played a supplementary and subsidiary role to that of the questionnaire in this research. Following on Creswell (1994: 177) and Lee (1999: 13), the design used was a *dominant-less-dominant design* in that this research is presented within a single, dominant quantitative paradigm with just one small component of the overall research drawn from the alternative qualitative paradigm. The triangulation is in essence sequential as opposed to being simultaneous. It is sequential in the sense that the use of the interview was informed by and based on the results of the questionnaire.

As indicated in the preceding sections, the majority of studies on transformational leadership are quantitative and involve the use of the MLQ. Others are qualitative and employ the interview among the qualitative measurement instruments. Few, if any, studies blend the two paradigms in studying this construct. This research therefore brings a different perspective to the study of transformational leadership and provides a significant departure from established practices, specifically for the knowledge era.

The interview was used to close the gaps that might have been left by the questionnaire. The latter limited the subject to providing responses to a specific set of items. The interview therefore allowed the subject to go beyond what the questionnaire provided. The subjects were given the latitude to express themselves further, thereby providing additional information over and above that provided by the questionnaire. The interview provided a broader picture of the subject's transformational leadership than would have been the case had the questionnaire been used alone.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION



4.4.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

Data collection using the MLQ has been done in a variety of ways. In previous research, leaders were afforded an opportunity to receive assessment of their leadership style from multiple sources (Bass, 1998: 119). Some research has involved subordinates rating their leaders on transformational behaviours (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997 cited in Avolio, 1999: 44; Seltzer & Bass, 1997 cited in Bass, 1998: 10), whilst other research involved self-ratings by the leaders themselves (Tejeda, 2001: 36). Still other research involved simultaneous ratings by followers and leaders themselves with a view to comparing the scores from both ratings (Atwater & Yammarino, 1993 cited in Bass, 1998: 118; Bass, 1998: 94; Gattlieb, 1990 cited in Avolio, 1999: 45). Other research further involved leaders rating their subordinates (Garcia, 1995 cited in Avolio, 1999: 46) whilst other research involved peer ratings based on performance in small groups (Bass, 1998: 118-119). In this research the MLQ process involved the participant leaders completing the MLQ-6S on their own perceptions of the frequency of various leadership

behaviours.

The MLQ-6S was thus used as an instrument to collect quantitative data and was self-administered. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 258) posit one important prerequisite for self-administered questionnaires, namely that of literacy on the part of the population. Self-administered questionnaires are only appropriate when the population being studied is adequately literate. In this research the population met this prerequisite in all respects, with their qualifications ranging from a post-matric qualification such as a diploma to a doctoral degree and, for that matter, full professorship.

The MLQ-6S was accompanied by two other documents, viz. the cover letter (**Appendix 4**) and a document on biographical and background information (**Appendix 5**). The cover letter was personalised so as to create a good impression on the subject and make him/her feel that his/her participation in the research was indeed highly valued, with a consequent high response rate. As Babbie and Mouton (2001: 262) point out, self-administered questionnaires that are not personalised receive a notoriously low response.

Following on Punch (2003: 63), the cover letter contained information on what the research was all about, who was conducting it and why, what use would be made of the information collected, a promise to keep the biographical information confidential in line with research ethics (Reaves, 1992: 47), and a statement of the possibility of contacting the participant again for a follow-up interview should the participant fall within the range of those participants that would be identified for such an interview.

In order to ensure a high response rate and to encourage participation in the research, a promise was made to provide participants with a summary of the findings after the statistical analysis of the data and completion of the research.

After determining what the sample would be like, the question of access to the sample had to be addressed. Firstly, a letter was written to the HR directors of the HE institutions that were used as the primary sampling units, asking them to provide a list of the particulars of leaders in the various identified categories. Of the seven institutions

contacted, four did provide a list after numerous requests over the course of a month, while two failed to respond to the request and one refused to provide the list, arguing that the information requested was confidential. Even those institutions that responded positively to the request failed to provide an exhaustive list as requested. The reason for requesting an exhaustive list was to accommodate non-respondents, as mail surveys are known for their low response rate, usually under 10% (Reaves, 1992: 108).

An exhaustive list was aimed at ensuring sufficient data even without the non-respondents. The non-exhaustive lists received from the HR directors therefore created the problem of not having access to the entire target sample. Secondly, the institutions' websites were visited in an attempt to obtain a list of subjects, keeping in mind questions of ethics, however. This method was successful in that an exhaustive list could be retrieved for all the categories of leaders as defined for all the 7 institutions surveyed. The entire procedure of acquiring the lists took five months, from October 2003 until February 2004. In total, 399 questionnaires were individually administered either electronically or via mail.

4.4.1.1 Electronic data collection

When collecting data the most efficient strategy was sought, since the strategy chosen can strongly influence the quality of the data. As a result, there was a need for better planning for data collection, greater effort, and more researcher control in data collection (Punch, 2003: 41). In an attempt to ensure the collection of high-quality data, the questionnaires were administered electronically, as the subjects were geographically dispersed and scattered over a radius of 800 km, making face-to-face administration almost impossible.

The aim with electronic administration of the questionnaire was threefold: Firstly, it was to try and ensure speedy responses, since much time was wasted acquiring the lists of participants. Secondly, as the sample was educated, it was assumed that everybody had access to an e-mail facility. Thirdly, there are virtually no costs involved in electronic administrations, a point duly supported by Denscombe (2000: 8). The cover letter, a

document on biographical and background information and the questionnaire were all distributed via e-mail with a request that after online completion they should be returned via e-mail as well.

The electronic administration of the questionnaire, however, created several problems. Firstly, a sizeable number of leaders did not have their e-mail addresses listed on the web and, as a result, they could not be contacted electronically. Secondly, some leaders responded by saying that they could not open the file, requesting that the file, which was in Word Perfect format, be converted to MS Word, for example. The conversion was done, but others responded that they still could not open the file. In total 185 questionnaires were administered electronically and 58 were returned by the respondents. The response rate was thus 31%.

4.4.1.2 Mail data collection

Seeing that electronic administration was not bearing fruit as expected, it was decided that the questionnaire would be mailed with a concomitant change on the cover letter that they be returned via mail or fax. The mailing method of distribution was used firstly as a follow-up to those who either did not respond to the electronically administered questionnaire or could not open the file; secondly to those who did not have their e-mail addresses listed on the web; and thirdly to those who were initially not sent any questionnaires at all. The questionnaires were then distributed to all the remaining subjects with a request that they be returned by the stipulated deadline, which was three weeks from the date of dispatch. Responses were received either via mail or fax as requested in the cover letter. In total 214 questionnaires were administered via mail and 131 were returned. The response rate was 62%.

After the deadline for the return of the questionnaires had elapsed by one week, the questionnaire was again sent to those who had not responded, with the words “follow-up” in bold print at the top of the cover letter. A total of 35 completed questionnaires were returned after one follow-up. No more follow-ups were done hereafter due to the satisfactory response rate. Of the 399 questionnaires sent out, 190 were returned and

this constituted a response rate of 47.6%, which was quite satisfactory and deemed sufficient for this research. It could, however, not be established whether non-respondents differed in any systematic and relevant fashion from those who had responded.

The time needed for mail questionnaires to reach the subjects, to allow time for the completion of the questionnaire and to also allow for two or three follow-up periods, required six to eight weeks of administration (De Vaus, 1994: 112). In this research, the period from electronic administration to mail administration, including a follow-up, lasted a period of 15 weeks.

Overall, the subjects were willing to cooperate and they completed the questionnaire accordingly. The subjects' frame of mind and attitude were positive and they presumably answered honestly and conscientiously, thereby enhancing the reliability and validity of the data, as well as the response rate (Punch, 2003: 42-43).

4.4.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

The data collection procedures in qualitative studies generally involve a number of steps such as setting the boundaries for the study; collecting information through observations, interviews, documents, and visual materials; and establishing the protocol for recording information (Creswell, 1994: 148). Despite this delineation of the steps in qualitative data collection, Creswell (1994: 143) maintains that unlike in quantitative research, few scholars agree on a precise procedure for data collection, analysis, and reporting of qualitative research. As a result, procedures used by qualitative researchers differ tremendously. In this research, the semi-structured interview was used for the collection of qualitative data.

Semi-structured interviews usually have an overarching topic, general themes, targeted issues, and specific questions with a predetermined sequence for their occurrence (Lee, 1999: 62). The overarching topic is that of transformational leadership. The general themes relate to those that emerged in research by Bennis and Nanus (1985), viz.

developing a vision, developing commitment, and facilitating organisational learning. Specific questions are those mentioned in section 4.3.2.4 and which constituted the factors of the interview. The targeted issues pertain to identifying characteristic behaviours and influences that define a transformational leader. The semi-structured interview therefore allowed the interviewer to pursue matters as circumstances dictated. The interviewer therefore entered the interview situation with a predetermined interview schedule that included a set of themes, targeted issues, and specific questions.

The interview was used as a follow-up and supplement to the questionnaire. A total of 86 subjects scored high on all transformational leadership behaviours, which constituted 45.3% of the total sample of 190 (N=190). Out of these 86 subjects, 25 were selected for interviews, which was 29.1% of those who scored high on all the transformational leadership behaviours and 13.2% of the total sample surveyed, i.e. 190. It would not have been possible to interview all 86 subjects due to cost and time constraints. As a result, only 25 of the “qualifying” sample were selected to participate in the interview.

A letter (**Appendix 6**) was written to 36 of the 86 subjects requesting them to participate in the interview and providing the reason as to why they were chosen for an interview. Two weeks after dispatching the letters, a telephonic follow-up was made to enquire about receipt of the letter and to set up an appointment for conducting the interview, preferably in the subjects’ offices. A total of 11 subjects were either non-respondents or unavailable for interviews, thereby leaving a total of 25 who were available for interviews. Once appointments had been finalised, interviews as discussed in 4.3.2.5 were conducted.

4.5 DATA PROCESSING

4.5.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

How data is processed depends on what is intended to be achieved by the research. Also, there must be clarity about the research questions for which answers are being sought (De Vaus, 1994: 129). Quantitative data collected through the MLQ had to be

processed using some statistics.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarise patterns in the responses of people in the sample. They described a property of a group of measurement (Reaves, 1992: 83). As a result, they provided information on the frequency of exhibition and the level (high, moderate, or low) of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours of leaders. Descriptive statistics were also used to describe the distribution of a set of data by looking at two issues. Firstly, they were used to determine the width of the spread or the evenness thereof (frequency distribution). Secondly, they were used to determine the mid-point or the average (measure of central tendency) and the spread (measure of dispersion) of the data (Denscombe, 2000: 193).

The questionnaire data were analysed by Statkon (Statistical Consultation Service) at the Rand Afrikaans University. The results were provided after 15 days from the date of submission.

4.5.1.1 Frequency distribution

Frequency distributions, which resulted from a counting exercise, were used as a method of analysis. According to De Vaus (1994: 137) the first thing that needs to be done after the collection of all data is to literally count how many respondents provided particular responses to each questionnaire item, which will determine how the sample is spread or distributed in the various categories of each variable.

Frequency distributions can be presented in either a table or a graph. In this research, tables were used to display frequencies. Following on De Vaus (1994: 137-139), three issues were addressed based on the shape of the distribution. The first thing determined was whether the distribution was skewed and in what direction; secondly, how widely spread the cases were, i.e., whether they were concentrated in a few categories or widely dispersed across many categories; and thirdly, what the most typical responses were, i.e., the categories in which most cases were commonly found.

4.5.1.2 Measures of central tendency and dispersion

Distributions were summarised by statistics, which are broadly known as measures of central tendency and of dispersion (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 423-426). Measures of central tendency describe a group of respondents in terms of what is typical (De Vaus, 1994: 140). That is, they indicate the average or typical response to a questionnaire item. The mean was used as a measure of central tendency. Measures of dispersion determine how many respondents in the group differ from what is typical, since not everyone in the group is typical. In other words, they tell how well the measure of central tendency sums up the distribution. The standard deviation (SD) was used as a measure of dispersion.

The mean: This measure of central tendency describes what would result if there were a totally equal distribution of values, i.e. if the total amount or frequencies were evenly spread (Denscombe, 2000: 193). It is calculated by adding up the scores for each case in the sample and dividing this by the number of cases in the sample (De Vaus, 1994: 145).

The standard deviation: This measure of dispersion measures the spread of the data relative to the mean of the data (Denscombe, 2000: 197). It uses all values in calculating how far the values tend to be spread out around the mean. It provides a measure of the summarising value of a mean and tells within what range of the mean a certain percentage of the cases lie (De Vaus, 1994: 148).

4.5.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

Qualitative data processing attempted to address the questions of, firstly, common themes that transformational leaders use in interaction with their followers and transforming their organisations, and secondly, additional transformational leadership behaviours and influences that characterise the transformational leaders. It was conducted as an activity simultaneous with data collection, data interpretation, as well as narrative report writing (Creswell, 1994: 153).

4.5.2.1 Steps in the interview procedure

The following seven steps were followed in a complete interviewing procedure as delineated by Kvale (1996: 88) cited in Babbie and Mouton (2001: 290) and Lee (1999: 81-86):

- *Thematising*: This step involved clarifying the purpose of the interview and concepts to be explored as discussed in section 4.3.2.3 above.
- *Designing*: This step involved laying out the process through which the interviewer would accomplish his purpose, including taking due cognisance of the ethical dimension. The interviewees were provided with details as to how the interviews would be conducted, the expected duration of the interview, as well as confidentiality of their answers.
- *Interviewing*: This step involved doing the actual interviews. In conducting the interviews, a particular protocol was followed as outlined by Creswell (1994: 152). This protocol is explained in section 4.3.2.7 above.
- *Transcribing*: This step involved writing a text of the interviews. It marked the post-interview phase where the interviewer listened to the tape-recorded interviews and transcribed the actual recording verbatim. Transcriptions and notes taken during the interviews were compared and aligned so that they were consistent with the actual interview.
- *Analysing*: This step, discussed in some detail below, involved determining the meaning of gathered materials in relation to the purpose of the research.
- *Verifying*: This step involved checking the reliability and validity of materials through mechanisms discussed in sections 4.3.2.7 and 4.3.2.8.

- *Reporting*: This step involved telling others what the interviewer had learnt from the interview.

4.5.2.2 Data analysis

In interpreting the qualitative data, the researcher's self played a significant role and as such, his identity, values and beliefs shaped by personal experiences and social background (Denscombe, 2000: 208-209) could not be completely divorced from the final product of interpretation. The researcher was therefore an integral part of qualitative data analysis.

Following on Lee (1999: 89-94), two major modes of data analysis were employed, viz. *meaning condensation* and *hermeneutic meaning interpretation*. This was premised on the fact that qualitative research necessitates, in most instances, the application of multiple techniques and, as a result, it is only prudent to triangulate with multiple methods (Lee, 1999: 94). The process of data analysis is therefore eclectic in nature (Creswell, 1994: 153).

Meaning condensation involved extracting, abridging and abstracting the most important themes from the interview texts. Data were thus reduced whilst simultaneously articulating the most important themes from the data. The meaning was condensed in five basic stages.

Firstly, the researcher read the entire set of interview transcripts, totalling 71 pages typed in single spacing. This was done with a view to developing a sense of the entire data set, and then analysing each interview, one at a time.

Secondly, the researcher identified the *natural meaning units*, i.e. those portions that are perceived to relate to an identifiable theme per interview question. The units consisted of words, sentence fragments or phrases, complete sentences, portions of paragraphs, and longer passages. These portions of text were pulled and reassembled physically into a

continuous flow of text.

Thirdly, the natural meaning unit was defined. This step is called thematising, as the unit's underlying theme is conveyed during this step.

Fourthly, the researcher interrogated the meaning units in terms of the specific purpose of the research. The question asked here is how each natural meaning unit fits with or informs the study's research questions.

Lastly, the concisely worded natural meaning units were integrated into a coherent and non-redundant structure. The larger data set was reduced into a more meaningful, coherent, but manageable set of underlying themes.

It is evident from the above that meaning condensation involved interpreting data almost exclusively from the interview text itself. Hermeneutic meaning interpretation required imposing meaning primarily on the perspective from a pre-existing paradigm, viz. the descriptive research on transformational leadership by Bennis and Nanus (1985), as described in the literature in chapter 3, section 3.4.1.

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an empirical study for the research. The population and sample were discussed. Purposive sampling was used for both the quantitative and qualitative studies. Since the research involved a complex sample in which different levels of sampling units were employed, both the primary and secondary sampling units were described for both the quantitative and qualitative studies as well.

The MLQ-6S, as an already existing instrument, was used as a quantitative measuring instrument. It measured three variables, viz. transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. Its reliability and validity have been tested and confirmed since the development of the initial form in the mid-eighties. Quantitative data were collected both electronically and via mail. The overall response rate was 47.6%. The semi-structured

interview was used as a supplement to the questionnaire and, as a result, methodological triangulation was employed. The interview assessed only one variable, viz. transformational leadership.

Quantitative data processing involved the use of descriptive statistics in which frequency distributions and measures of centrality (mean) and dispersion (standard deviation) were used. Qualitative data processing was described firstly in terms of seven steps followed in a complete interview procedure, viz. thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, verifying, and reporting, and secondly in terms of two major modes of data analysis, viz. meaning condensation and hermeneutic meaning interpretation.

The next chapter provides the results of the empirical study.



CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the results of the empirical study resulting from the discussion in the previous chapter. In phase 1, the results of the quantitative study are provided. Firstly, the leaders' scores on the questionnaire are provided. These scores were used to identify those leaders with high scores on all the transformational leadership behaviours for interview purposes. Secondly, results from descriptive statistics that were used to summarise patterns in the responses of subjects in the sample are provided. These results are based on frequency distributions and measures of central tendency (mean) and dispersion (standard deviation) of the data. Frequency distributions provide the distribution of transformational leadership behaviours, transactional leadership behaviours and laissez-faire leadership. The mean and the standard deviation provide the level of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership.

In phase 2, the results of the qualitative study per interview question are provided. The results provide common themes and behaviours that transformational leaders employ in interacting with their followers with a view to managing change successfully. These results are based on two major modes of qualitative data interpretation, viz. meaning condensation and hermeneutic meaning interpretation.

5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Table 5.1 below summarises the biographical characteristics of the sample, including gender, racial group, age, years of experience, and leadership categories.

TABLE 5.1
BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE (N = 190)

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Gender		
Male	137	72.1
Female	47	24.7
Missing values	6	3.2
Total	190	100
Racial Group		
White	149	78.4
Black	31	16.3
Coloured	3	1.6
Indian	2	1.1
Missing values	5	2.6
Total	190	100
Age		
31-40	21	11.1
41-50	71	37.4
51-60	69	36.3
61-70	16	8.4
Missing values	13	6.8
Total	190	100
Years of experience		
0 – 1	27	14.2
2 – 5	89	46.8
6 – 8	30	15.9
9 and above	43	22.6
Missing values	1	0.5
Total	190	100
Leadership category		
Vice-Chancellor	2	1.1
Deputy Vice-Chancellor	9	4.7
Registrar	7	3.7
Dean (Executive, etc.)	22	11.6
Head/Chair of Dept/School	96	50.5
Director (Executive, Chief, Senior, etc.)	41	21.6
Manager	9	4.7
Campus Head	3	1.6
Missing values	1	0.5
Total	190	100

The sample consisted of leaders drawn from the seven primary sampling units (N = 190). The gender composition was strongly biased towards males with 72.1% males and 24.7% females. Similarly, racial composition was highly skewed towards Whites, i.e. 78.4% Whites, 16.3% Blacks, 1.6% Coloureds and 1.1 % Indians. The mean age was

49.66 years (SD = 9.31) which showed a trend towards older people, characteristic of senior leadership levels within the sample. The minimum age was 31 years whilst the maximum age was 65 years. It was established that 14.2% of respondents had up to 1 year of experience in their respective leadership positions whilst 46.8% had between 2 and 5 years' experience. Also, 15.9% of respondents had between 6 and 8 years' experience, whilst 22.6% had 9 or more years' experience. Vice-chancellors constituted the fewest number of subjects at 1.1% whilst heads/chairs of departments/schools constituted the largest number of subjects at 50.5%.

5.3 PHASE 1 – QUANTITATIVE STUDY

This section provides the results of the quantitative study. The results, based on the subjects' scores on the questionnaire, the frequency distributions, and the measures of central tendency and dispersion, are provided.

5.3.1. The leaders' scores on the questionnaire

Tables 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 provide the number and percentage of participants who achieved different categories of scores for the different factors of the three leadership styles.

TABLE 5.2
LEADERS' SCORES ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS	HIGH (9 – 12)	MODERATE (5 – 8)	LOW (0 – 4)	TOTAL
FACTOR 1: Idealised Influence (Items 1, 8 & 15)	139 73.2%	47 24.7%	4 2.1%	190 100%
FACTOR 2: Inspirational Motivation (Items 2, 9 & 16)	134 70.5%	56 29.5%	0 0%	190 100%
FACTOR 3: Intellectual Stimulation (Items 3, 10 & 17)	134 70.5%	56 29.5%	0 0%	190 100%
FACTOR 4: Individualised Consideration (Items 4, 11 & 18)	155 81.6%	35 18.4%	0 0%	190 100%

Table 5.2 indicates the following scores on the transformational leadership behaviours:

Idealised influence: 139 (73.2%) leaders achieved high scores, 47 (24.7%) achieved moderate scores, whilst 4 (2.1%) received low scores.

Inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation: 134 (70.5%) leaders achieved high scores, 56 (29.5%) achieved moderate scores, whilst no leaders (0%) received low scores.

Individualised consideration: 155 (81.6%) leaders achieved high scores, 35 (18.4%) achieved moderate scores, whilst no leaders (0%) received low scores.

It follows from the above that the majority of leaders achieved high scores, followed by moderate scores, and lastly low or no scores on all the transformational leadership behaviours.

A headcount of leaders who achieved high scores on *all* the transformational leadership behaviours yielded a total of 86 (45.3%). Those who achieved moderate scores yielded a total of 7 (3.7%), whilst no leaders received low scores on *all* the transformational leadership behaviours.

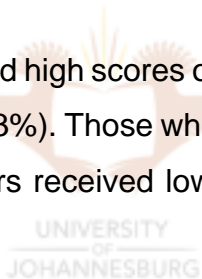


TABLE 5.3
LEADERS' SCORES ON TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS	HIGH (9 – 12)	MODERATE (5 – 8)	LOW (0 – 4)	TOTAL
FACTOR 5: Contingent Reward (Items 5,12 & 19)	129 67.9%	58 30.5%	3 1.6%	190 100%
FACTOR 6: Management-by-exception (Items 6, 13 & 20)	115 60.5%	75 39.5%	0 0%	190 100%

Table 5.3 indicates the following scores on transactional leadership behaviours:

Contingent reward: 129 (67.9%) leaders achieved high scores, 58 (30.5%) achieved moderate scores, whilst 3 (1.6%) received low scores.

Management-by-exception: 115 (60.5%) leaders achieved high scores, 75 (39.5%) achieved moderate scores, whilst no leaders (0%) received low scores.

It follows from the above that the majority of leaders achieved high scores, followed by moderate scores, and lastly low or no scores on both transactional leadership behaviours.

A headcount of the leaders who achieved high scores on *both* transactional leadership behaviours yielded a total of 89 (46.8%). Those who achieved moderate scores yielded a total of 30 (15.8%), whilst no leaders received low scores on *both* transactional leadership behaviours.

TABLE 5.4
LEADERS' SCORES ON THE LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP	HIGH (9 – 12)	MODERATE (5 – 8)	LOW (0 – 4)	TOTAL
FACTOR 7: Laissez-faire leadership	7 3.7%	82 43.2%	101 53.1%	190 100%

Table 5.4 indicates the following scores on laissez-faire leadership:

7(3.7%) leaders achieved high scores, 82 (43.2%) achieved moderate scores, whilst 101 (53.1%) received low scores.

It follows from the above that the majority of leaders received low scores, followed by moderate scores, and lastly high scores on laissez-faire leadership.

A headcount of leaders who achieved high scores on laissez-faire leadership yielded a total of 7 (3.7%). Those who achieved moderate scores yielded a total of 82 (43.2%), whilst those who scored low yielded a total of 97 (51.1%).

5.3.2 Frequency distributions

The research involved the use of descriptive statistics in summarising patterns in the

responses of people in the sample. Descriptive statistics were used for two purposes. Firstly they were used to determine the frequency distribution of the data, i.e. how subjects responded to the items on the behaviours of the different leadership styles. Secondly, they were used to determine the measure of central tendency (mean) and dispersion of the data (standard deviation), i.e. the mean and SD of the different leadership styles.

Table 5.5 indicates the leaders' responses to the 21 questionnaire items as they appeared chronologically in the questionnaire. The table therefore includes four transformational leadership behaviours, two transactional leadership behaviours, and one laissez-faire leadership behaviour.

**TABLE 5.5
LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS**

		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	Total
1. I make others feel good to be around me.	Count		3	24	96	63	186
	%		1.6%	12.9%	51.6%	33.9%	100.0%
2. I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.	Count	1	5	26	98	58	188
	%	.5%	2.7%	13.8%	52.1%	30.9%	100.0%
3. I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.	Count	2	1	37	90	57	187
	%	1.1%	.5%	19.8%	48.1%	30.5%	100.0%
4. I help others develop themselves.	Count		1	11	74	103	189
	%		.5%	5.8%	39.2%	54.5%	100.0%
5. I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.	Count	2	11	45	80	50	188
	%	1.1%	5.9%	23.9%	42.6%	26.6%	100.0%
6. I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.	Count			10	48	130	188
	%			5.3%	25.5%	69.1%	100.0%
7. I am content to let others continue working in the same way as always.	Count	37	45	79	20	7	188
	%	19.7%	23.9%	42.0%	10.6%	3.7%	100.0%
8. Others have complete faith in me.	Count		1	21	119	43	184
	%		.5%	11.4%	64.7%	23.4%	100.0%
9. I provide appealing images about what we can do.	Count		3	34	112	37	186
	%		1.6%	18.3%	60.2%	19.9%	100.0%

10. I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	Count		3	26	112	46	187
	%		1.6%	13.9%	59.9%	24.6%	100.0%
11. I let others know how I think they are doing.	Count		4	20	92	70	186
	%		2.2%	10.8%	49.5%	37.6%	100.0%
12. I provide recognition/reward when others reach their goals.	Count		1	17	70	98	186
	%		.5%	9.1%	37.6%	52.7%	100.0%
13. As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.	Count	14	30	91	37	13	185
	%	7.6%	16.2%	49.2%	20.0%	7.0%	100.0%
14. Whatever others want to do is OK with me.	Count	55	59	58	11	1	184
	%	29.9%	32.1%	31.5%	6.0%	.5%	100.0%
15. Others are proud to be associated with me.	Count		2	24	116	39	181
	%		1.1%	13.3%	64.1%	21.5%	100.0%
16. I help others find meaning in their work.	Count		2	16	118	51	187
	%		1.1%	8.6%	63.1%	27.3%	100.0%
17. I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.	Count			34	106	47	187
	%			18.2%	56.7%	25.1%	100.0%
18. I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.	Count		3	31	92	61	187
	%		1.6%	16.6%	49.2%	32.6%	100.0%
19. I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.	Count		5	37	108	31	181
	%		2.8%	20.4%	59.7%	17.1%	100.0%
20. I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.	Count		2	19	97	68	186
	%		1.1%	10.2%	52.2%	36.6%	100.0%
21. I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.	Count	42	55	41	30	16	184
	%	22.8%	29.9%	22.3%	16.3%	8.7%	100.0%

5.3.2.1 Transformational leadership behaviours

Transformational leadership consists of four behaviours, viz. idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.

Idealised influence is constituted by items 1, 8 and 15 on the questionnaire. The majority of respondents totalling 119 (64.7%) were of the opinion that others had complete faith in them *fairly often* (item 8). Only 1 (0.5%) respondent, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt that this statement was applicable to him/her *once in a*

while. The second largest number of respondents totalling 116 (64.1%) was of the opinion that others were proud to be associated with them *fairly* often (item 15). This is followed by 96 (51.6%) respondents who were of the opinion that they made others feel good to be around them *fairly* often (item 1). On average, the majority of respondents totalling 110 (60.1%), which is the sum of $119 + 116 + 96/3$, were of the opinion that they exhibited idealised influence *fairly often*.

Inspirational motivation is constituted by items 2, 9 and 16 on the questionnaire. The leaders' responses to these items show more or less the same trend shown by their responses to the idealised influence items. The majority of leaders totalling 118 (63.1%) were of the opinion that they helped others find meaning in their work *fairly often* (item 16). Only 1 (0.5%) respondent, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt that he/she *did not at all* express in a few words what they could or should do (item 2). The second largest number of respondents totalling 112 (60.2%) was of the opinion that they provided appealing images about what they could do *fairly often* (item 9). This is followed by 98 (52.1%) respondents who were of the opinion that they expressed with a few simple words what they could and should do *fairly often* (item 2). On average, the majority of respondents totalling 109 (58.5%), which is the sum of $118 + 112 + 98/3$, were of the opinion that they exhibited inspirational motivation *fairly often*.

Intellectual stimulation is constituted by items 3, 10 and 17 on the questionnaire. The leaders' responses to these items show more or less the same trend shown by their responses to the idealised influence and inspirational motivation items. The majority of respondents totalling 112 (59.9%) were of the opinion that they provided others with new ways of looking at puzzling things *fairly often* (item 10). Only 1 (0.5%) respondent, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt that he/she enabled others to think about old problems in new ways *once in a while* (item 3). The second largest number of respondents totalling 116 (56.7%) was of the opinion that they encouraged others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before *fairly often* (item 17). This is followed by 90 (48.1%) respondents who were of the opinion that they enabled others to think about old problems in new ways *fairly often* (item 3). On average, the majority of respondents totalling 103 (54.9%), which is the sum of $112 + 106 + 90/3$, were of the

opinion that they exhibited intellectual stimulation *fairly often*.

Individualised consideration is constituted by items 4, 11 and 18. The leaders' responses to these items show a different trend from that shown by their responses to the other three behaviours of transformational leadership. The majority of the respondents totalling 103 (54.5%) were of the opinion that they helped others develop themselves *frequently* (item 4). Only 1 (0.5%) respondent, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt that this statement was applicable to him/her *once in a while*. The second largest number of respondents totalling 92 (49.5%) was of the opinion that they let others know how they thought they were doing *fairly often* (item 11). This is followed by 92 (49.2%) respondents who were of the opinion that they gave personal attention to others who seemed rejected *fairly often* (item 18). On average, the majority of respondents totalling 86 (46.0%), which is the sum of $90 + 92 + 92/3$, were of the opinion that they exhibited individualised consideration *fairly often*.

It follows from the above description that the majority of leaders exhibited the transformational leadership behaviours *fairly often* whilst the overwhelming minority of leaders exhibited these behaviours *once in a while* or they *did not exhibit them at all* (**General aim (1) and Question 4**).

In sum, the most frequently exhibited transformational leadership behaviour was idealised influence (60.1%), followed by inspirational motivation (58.5%), followed by intellectual stimulation (54.9%), and lastly individualised consideration (46.0%). A leader exhibiting idealised influence holds a subordinate's trust, maintains their faith and respect, shows dedication to them, appeals to their hopes and dreams, and acts as their role model.

5.3.2.2 Transactional leadership behaviours

Transactional leadership consists of two behaviours, viz. contingent reward and management-by-exception.

Contingent reward is constituted by items 5, 12 and 19. The majority of respondents

totalling 108 (59.7%) were of the opinion that they called attention to what others could get for what they accomplished *fairly often* (item 19). Only 1 (0.5%) respondent, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt that he/she provided recognition/rewards when others reached their goals *once in a while* (item 12). The second largest number of respondents totalling 98 (52.7%) was of the opinion that they frequently provided recognition/reward when others reached their goals (item 12). This is followed by 80 (42.6%) respondents who were of the opinion that they told others what to do if they wanted to be rewarded for their work *fairly often* (item 5). On average, the majority of respondents totalling 86 (46.6%), which is the sum of $80 + 70 + 108/3$, were of the opinion that they exhibited contingent reward *fairly often*.

Management-by-exception is represented by items 6, 13 and 20. The majority of respondents totalling 130 (69.1%) were of the opinion that they were *frequently* satisfied when others met agreed-upon standards (item 6). Only 2 (1.1%) respondents, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt that they told others the standards they had to know to carry out their work *once in a while* (item 20). The second largest number of respondents totalling 97 (52.2%) was also of the opinion that they told others the standards they had to know to carry out their work *fairly often* (item 20). This is followed by 91 (49.2%) respondents who were of the opinion that as long as things were working, they *sometimes* did not try to change anything (item 13). On average, the majority of respondents totalling 70 (37.6%), which is the sum of $130 + 13 + 31/3$, were of the opinion that they exhibited management-by-exception *frequently*.

It follows from the above description that the majority of leaders exhibited contingent reward *fairly often* and management-by-exception *frequently* whilst the minority of leaders exhibited these behaviours *once in a while* (**Objective 1 and Question 5**).

5.3.2.3 Laissez-faire leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is constituted by items 7, 14 and 21. The majority of respondents totalling 79 (42.0%) were of the opinion that they *sometimes* were content to let others continue working in the same way as always (item 7). Only 1 (0.5%)

respondent, which was the lowest number of respondents in this factor, felt *frequently* that whatever others wanted to do was OK with them (item 14). The second largest number of respondents totalling 59 (32.1%) was also of the opinion that whatever others wanted to do was OK with them *once in a while* (item 4). This is followed by 58 (31.5%) respondents who were of the opinion that item 14 was applicable to them sometimes. On average, the majority of respondents totalling 59 (31.9%), which is the sum of 79 + 58 + 41/3, were of the opinion that they exhibited laissez-faire leadership *sometimes* (**Objective 2 and Question 8**).

5.3.2.4 Findings on frequency distributions

A comparison of the exhibition of the behaviours of the three leadership styles indicates that leaders exhibited transformational leadership behaviours *fairly often* and transactional leadership behaviours *fairly often* and *frequently*. The least exhibited leadership style was laissez-faire leadership, which was exhibited *sometimes*.

5.3.3 Measures of central tendency and dispersion

The distributions were summarised by statistics, which are broadly called measures of central tendency and of dispersion. The mean and the standard deviation (SD) were used respectively. Table 5.6 below indicates the measures of central tendency and dispersion of the data. Although the table indicates additional measures, only the mean and the SD are discussed.

TABLE 5.6
MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION

	Statistics						
	N		Mean	Median	Std Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Valid	Missing					
1. I make others feel good to be around me.	186	4	3.18	3.00	.710	-.545	.089

2. I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.	188	2	3.10	3.00	.771	-.813	1.114
3. I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.	187	3	3.06	3.00	.787	-.716	1.083
4. I help others develop themselves.	189	1	3.48	4.00	.632	-.931	.437
5. I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.	188	2	2.88	3.00	.908	-.578	.037
6. I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.	188	2	3.64	4.00	.582	-1.377	.901
7. I am content to let others continue working in the same way as always.	188	2	1.55	2.00	1.041	.130	-.405
8. Others have complete faith in me.	184	6	3.11	3.00	.600	-.197	.383
9. I provide appealing images about what we can do.	186	4	2.98	3.00	.670	-.309	.222
10. I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	187	3	3.07	3.00	.668	-.414	.413
11. I let others know how I think they are doing.	186	4	3.23	3.00	.722	-.718	.412
12. I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.	186	4	3.42	4.00	.680	-.873	.029
13. As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.	185	5	2.03	2.00	.975	-.090	.058
14. Whatever others want to do is OK with me.	184	6	1.15	1.00	.940	.289	-.730
15. Others are proud to be associated with me.	181	9	3.06	3.00	.625	-.319	.592
16. I help others find meaning in their work.	187	3	3.17	3.00	.613	-.392	.822
17. I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.	187	3	3.07	3.00	.656	-.072	-.662
18. I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.	187	3	3.13	3.00	.737	-.452	-.276
19. I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.	181	9	2.91	3.00	.694	-.386	.321
20. I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.	186	4	3.24	3.00	.674	-.547	.152
21. I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.	184	6	1.58	1.00	1.247	.393	-.860

5.3.3.1 The mean and standard deviation of transformational leadership

Leaders' responses to items 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 17 and 18 made it possible to calculate the mean and SD of their transformational leadership. Table 5.7 indicates the

leaders' perception of their transformational leadership as shown by the mean and SD.

TABLE 5.7
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION INDICATING THE LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLE

Statistics				
Variable	N		Mean	Std Deviation
	Valid	Missing		
Transformational Leadership	186	4	3.14	.683

Table 5.7 indicates that the mean for the leaders' transformational leadership is 3.14 whilst the SD is 0.683. The mean of 3.14 implies that the leaders were of the opinion that they exhibited transformational leadership *fairly often* (**General aim (2) and Question 6**). This was a *relatively high level* of transformational leadership exhibited by the 186 leaders who correctly completed the questionnaire (**General aim (3) and Question 9**). The SD measures variability around the mean. In this case, the value of the SD is low at 0.683 against the mean of 3.14. That is, the mean is a typical value given that the SD is low. Typically, all leaders exhibited transformational leadership *fairly often*.

It is worth noting, however, that these leaders did not exhibit transformational leadership frequently, which would have been the highest level of exhibition of this leadership style. Frequent exhibition of transformational leadership would have been almost perfect for their ability to manage change successfully. Furthermore, the leaders did not exhibit this leadership style sometimes, or once in a while, or even not at all, which would have made their level of transformational leadership low, thereby rendering them incapable of managing change.

Since the leaders exhibited transformational leadership fairly often, which was a relatively high level of exhibition, it can be stated that *these leaders will be able to manage change fairly successfully*.

5.3.3.2 The mean and standard deviation of transactional leadership

Leaders' responses to items 5, 6, 12, 13, 19 and 20 made it possible to calculate the mean and SD of their transactional leadership. Table 5.8 indicates the leaders' perception of their transactional leadership as shown by the mean and SD.

TABLE 5.8
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION INDICATING THE LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLE

Variable	Statistics		Mean	Std Deviation
	N			
	Valid	Missing		
Transactional Leadership	186	4	3.02	.752

Table 5.8 provides results almost similar to those provided in table 5.7 for transformational leadership. The mean is indicated as 3.02 whilst the SD is 0.752. The mean value of 3.02 implies that leaders were of the opinion that they exhibited transactional leadership *fairly often* (**Question 7**). This was also a *relatively high level* of transactional leadership exhibited by the 186 leaders who correctly completed the questionnaire (**Objective 3 and Question 10**). As was the case with transformational leadership, the SD is also low at 0.752 against the mean of 3.02 implying that there is little variation around the mean. That is, the mean is a typical value given that the SD is low. Typically all leaders exhibited transactional leadership *fairly often*.

The leaders also did not exhibit transactional leadership frequently, which would have been the highest level of exhibition of this leadership style. The leaders did not exhibit transactional leadership sometimes, or once in a while, or even not at all, which would have rendered their level of this leadership style low.

Since the leaders exhibited transactional leadership fairly often, which was also a relatively high level of exhibition, it can be stated that *these leaders led by the exchange relationship they had with their followers*.

5.3.3.3 The mean and standard deviation of laissez-faire leadership

Leaders' responses to items 7, 14 and 21 made it possible to calculate the mean and SD of their laissez-faire leadership. Table 5.9 indicates the leaders' perception of their laissez-faire leadership as shown by the mean and SD.

TABLE 5.9
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION INDICATING THE LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP STYLE

Statistics				
Variable	N		Mean	Std Deviation
	Valid	Missing		
Laissez-faire Leadership	185	5	1.38	1.076

Table 5.9 indicates that the mean for laissez-faire leadership is 1.38 whilst the SD is 1.076. The mean of 1.38 implies that the leaders were of the opinion that they exhibited laissez-faire leadership *once in a while* (**Objective 2 and Question 8**). This is a *very low level* of laissez-faire leadership exhibited by the 185 leaders who correctly completed the questionnaire (**Objective 4 and Question 11**). In contrast to the SDs of the transformational and transactional leadership styles, the SD for laissez-faire leadership has a high value at 1.076 against the mean of 1.38. This implies that there is more variability around the mean. As a result, the assertion that leaders exhibited laissez-faire leadership once in a while varied from leader to leader or was not typical among all the leaders.

It is worth noting, however, that these leaders did not exhibit laissez-faire leadership sometimes, or fairly often, or even frequently. Since the leaders exhibited laissez-faire leadership once in a while, which was a very low level of exhibition, it can be stated that these leaders did not exhibit non-leadership, since laissez-faire leadership is defined as non-leadership.

5.3.3.4 Findings on the mean and standard deviation

On average, the level of transformational leadership was more or less the same as the level of transactional leadership within the HE sector, as leaders exhibited these styles of leadership fairly often. This is in line with Bass' view that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership (Tejeda, 2001: 35) – what is referred to as the transformational/transactional continuum. Transformational leadership does not necessarily detract from transactional leadership but rather builds on it, thereby broadening the leader's effect on effort and performance (Bass, 1998: 4; Bass & Avolio, 1992: 22). The low level of laissez-faire leadership indicates that leaders in the HE sector did not exhibit non-leadership, which is good vis-à-vis their ability to manage change successfully.

5.4 PHASE 2 – QUALITATIVE STUDY

The interview texts were constituted by the leaders' responses to five questions, which attempted to isolate common themes, strategies and behaviours that transformational leaders employ in interacting with their followers with a view to managing change successfully.

5.4.1 Interview question 1

What are your transformational leadership strengths?

The purpose of this question was to try and identify those themes or behaviours that transformational leaders perceive as the core of their transformational leadership style. They are the defining elements without which a leader cannot be defined as a transformational leader (**Objective 5 and Question 12**). Although many leaders thought it difficult to identify strengths in oneself in that what one might regard as strengths might be seen by other people as weaknesses, or that they might be perceived as being arrogant, their responses to this question revealed the following:

5.4.1.1 People orientation

Transformational leaders are absolutely people oriented and this is extremely important in exhibiting transformational leadership.

One leader said the following about people orientation: “I think you need a people-oriented approach, because at the end of the day, you are working with people to achieve your goals”.

People orientation means that leaders know all their followers – not just by name. They know everything that happen in the followers’ lives. It is important to know, for example, whether the followers are married; who their spouses are and what they are doing; whether they have children and what they are doing; whether they are studying and what they are studying.

People orientation also involves caring for and motivating one’s followers. The leaders care for the followers by way of empathising with them during trying times and are not detached from their problems. The leaders also create a motivating climate conducive to optimal functioning. They respect, love and accept their followers and are patient with them in cases where their job performance is below par. This allows the followers to function at their best. Moreover, the leaders’ strength lies in their ability to develop a team that functions optimally and this has a bearing on the output of the unit under the leaders’ jurisdiction.

One leader said: “As a leader, my focus is on personnel – the people I work with – and not myself. This will allow them to function at their best; to develop a team to work at their maximum potential, and that will reflect on the output of the unit I am responsible for”.

Such leaders also stand up for their followers and take the blame for their mistakes and give them credit where it is due. They are responsible for the followers’ actions. Standing up for one’s followers is not done blindly, however. In order to ensure that the followers

do not abuse the leaders' orientation towards them, they exhibit firmness so much so that anyone who does not perform is dealt with accordingly.

One leader said: "You have to be soft on people but harsh on issues. If somebody has *screwed up*, sorry to use the word, you have to look at the issues that lead to that state of affairs".

In interpreting the theme of people orientation, it emerges from the preceding analysis that people orientation results in motivated followers, among other things. In this case, motivation is more intrinsic than extrinsic. If it were to be extrinsic, that would imply that leaders are transactional in their leadership style and as such, exhibit the contingent reward behaviour (cf. section 3.4.2.5). They would be engaged in an exchange relationship with their followers in which the latter are motivated to do certain things in expectation of some rewards or favours from leaders. Intrinsically motivated followers, on the other hand, have an insatiable desire to do more, with the consequence that the organisation attains its objectives and productivity levels are raised.

Also, in interpreting the leaders' tendency to stand up for their followers, it emerged that whilst literature does lend support to people orientation in exhibiting transformational leadership, it is silent on the question of *firmness*. If leaders are people oriented but not firm, followers are likely to abuse the leaders' orientation towards them. They might become complacent, sloppy, and tardy in carrying out their responsibilities because they know that their leaders will stand up for them. The leaders therefore have to be firm so that followers do not rest on their laurels in the hope that leaders will protect them. The leaders have to be people oriented but firm.

5.4.1.2 Sensitivity to the macro-environment

Transformational leaders are sensitive to the constantly changing environment in which they operate – in this case, the HE environment. They are consciously aware of and sensitive to the change taking place in the environment, as it has ramifications for other activities in which they are routinely engaged. They do environmental scanning in which

they collect information on the environment. They appraise the situation and make sound judgments in terms of what the relationships are in the situation. This sensitivity allows them to monitor change and develop mechanisms appropriate for managing change successfully. Successful management of change presupposes that the leaders have a passion for change. Otherwise, any attempt to manage change without passion for it and a knowledge of where one wants to go (strategic direction), becomes an exercise in futility.

One leader said the following about sensitivity to the macro-environment: “Now, if you look at change you find that it is inevitable; it is fast. I think I can synchronise with the environment; that environment is changing. If you don’t do this, you become redundant. In other words, you need to synchronise with the macro-environment. You need to look at your domain – the field you work in. You need to look at the developments in the field. For example, in this sector, you need to look at the policies promulgated by government. Otherwise, you become redundant and out of sync. Once you are out of sync, you compromise the future, not only your personal future, but that of the people you work with. I have my radar in place. I want my antenna to focus on the world we live in. I am constantly focusing on the synchronisation with the environment”.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) also found that transformational leaders develop conscious awareness of environmental changes and trends (Yukl, 1998, 340) in their efforts to manage change.

In interpreting the theme of being sensitive to the macro-environment, reference should be made to the literature chapters of this research. In chapter 3, section 3.4.1.2, it is argued that transformational leaders are change agents. In chapter 2, section 2.4.6, it is argued that for adequate management of change, leaders must be sensitive to three environmental or contextual factors in which change is taking place, viz. the context in which change is occurring, the substance or content of the change programme, and the process (rather than snapshot analysis) of change – what is referred to as the contextualist approach to change (Dawson, 1994: 24). They are sensitive to the context, content and process of change in the HE sector as manifested in the form of mergers

and incorporations of institutions of higher learning.

Such leaders are therefore sensitive to the macro-environment and thus have a conscious awareness of all the change dynamics (context, content and process), and are well-equipped to manage such change successfully. As a result of this conscious awareness of, and ability to manage change, they have a deep-seated, firmly entrenched feeling (passion) about change and the management thereof.

5.4.1.3 The ability to manage diversity

Transformational leaders' strength lies in their ability to manage diverse groups of people. The leaders need to bring other cultures into the equation, because by so doing they enrich the people. Therefore, change needs to be viewed from a diversity point of view in an organisation. People from diverse cultural backgrounds need not only be informed, but should be consulted and allowed to have an input into the transformation process. They must be accommodated and empowered to be part of the decision-making machinery. As a result, the followers feel that they are an inseparable part of a worthwhile enterprise, as was the case with the followers of the leaders interviewed by Bennis and Nanus (Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 84; Northouse, 2001: 142; Yukl, 1998: 338). One leader said the following about the ability to manage diversity: "I have empathy for other cultures. I have appreciation for cultures that made my life a misery. Empathy goes with reconciliation and I can manage that".

In interpreting the theme of the leaders' ability to manage diversity, it emerged that diversity is not only confined to cultural differences. It embraces the entire array of issues that make people different from one another. South Africa is a melting-pot of different cultures, languages, races, ethnic groups, religions, sexual preferences and socio-economic and socio-political backgrounds. Therefore, any discussion of diversity needs to be approached from these different perspectives.

A truly transformational leader must be able to relate to, understand, and co-exist with people from these diverse backgrounds. For that matter, people have a constitutional

right to be respected irrespective of such diversities. Such a leader must be able to transcend the stereotypes that relate to these diversities. Although such stereotypes are attitudes and are therefore firmly entrenched and deeply ingrained, a transformational leader must be able to transcend them. Once leaders are able to transcend such stereotypes, i.e. once they are able to manage diversity effectively and efficiently, they become charismatic as well. Charismatic leaders are those leaders whose followers identify with them, irrespective of their diverse backgrounds, and follow them without any questions. Nelson Mandela, Pope John Paul II, Martin Luther King Junior, Mahatma Gandhi and Mother Theresa are but a few examples of charismatic leaders with an unquestionable ability to manage diversity.

5.4.1.4 The ability to engage in two-way communication

Transformational leaders facilitate two-way communication, which plays a pivotal role in the leader-follower relationship. They are able to observe and listen to what the followers are saying. Such an open and two-way communication is a basic ingredient for developing trust between the leader and the follower and is a “golden line in every organisation”.

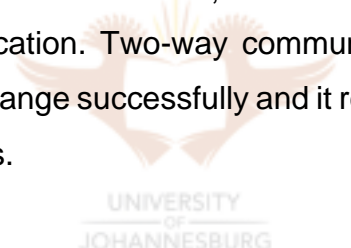
Coupled with two-way communication is an open-door policy, which leaders should implement. This reassures the followers that the leaders are indeed approachable and willing to listen to them and that there is transparency between the two parties in terms of their daily interactions with each other.

One leader said the following about two-way communication: “Communication should be a two-way process, i.e. you talk to people and people talk to you. You have to listen to whatever they are saying, whether it is significant or not, because we do not think alike. You might think that the people’s contributions are insignificant but when you analyse them, you find that they are seeing something which you can’t see – something that might potentially have some consequences for your department”.

Two-way communication also relates to Bass’ transformational leadership behaviour of

inspirational motivation. This includes developing and communicating an appealing vision (Avolio, 1994: 133) to focus the efforts of subordinates. Leaders communicate high expectations or give pep talks (Bass & Avolio, 1992: 326) to followers and inspire them to become more committed to the organisation and allow them to communicate their feelings and ideas freely.

In interpreting the theme of two-way communication between leaders and followers, it emerges that such communication is not an option but a *sine-qua-non*. Leaders must not only initiate communication but must consciously trigger followers to communicate with them by always providing reassurance that the followers' willingness to engage in this kind of discourse is highly appreciated, thereby adopting an open-door policy. Both trivial and important organisational issues have to be communicated both ways. Otherwise, there is a risk of enhancing the grapevine – the unofficial communication system within an informal organisation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 444) – if the leader does not encourage two-way communication. Two-way communication will go a long way in assisting leaders to manage change successfully and it reduces the risk of resistance to change on the part of followers.



5.4.1.5 Exposure to transformational leadership

The transformational leaders' strength lies in their long-term exposure to transformational leadership, as well as extensive reading on this leadership style. This provides the leaders with the necessary ammunition to become good transformational leaders with the consequent ability to manage change successfully. Such leaders have the ability to transform people's thinking and even change their attitudes towards certain things such as, for example, racism.

One leader said the following about exposure to transformational leadership: "What I think is my transformational leadership strength is, firstly, my long-term exposure to this style of leadership. I think that I have started a long time ago not to place people in specific boxes. I respect people for who they are and never categorised them. Secondly, I think reading a lot of literature on how transformational leadership contributes in

developing one into a good transformational leader. You get a lot of information from this kind of literature”.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) also found that transformational leaders are able to sharpen their skills and enhance the knowledge they gained from experience of success and failure by recognising the importance of continually gathering information about changing and uncertain events. They also create a network of information and take the initiative on special studies for information gathering needed for strategic planning (Yukl, 1998: 339). They found that leaders are committed to learning and relearning (Bass, 1990: 150), including consistent emphasis on education in the organisation (Northouse, 2001: 143), through reading widely on transformational leadership.

In interpreting the theme of the leaders' exposure to transformational leadership, it emerges that transformational leadership is a process and not a trait (Northouse, 2001: 4-5). The trait perspective contends that certain individuals have inborn qualities such as height, intelligence, extraversion, and fluency. The process perspective contends that leadership can be observed in leader behaviours and can thus be learned. People can therefore be coached on transformational leadership and can also emulate this leadership style from their leaders and exhibit it from what they have read.

5.4.1.6 Religious beliefs

Transformational leaders derive their strength from their religious beliefs, especially Christianity. The fundamental principles of Christianity are that people should be viewed as equals and not be discriminated against on the basis of, for example, race or gender. This goes a long way towards making people feel valued, needed, respected and trusted.

One leader said the following about Christian principles: “First of all, you must understand my world-view. I work from a Christian view which says *you are internally motivated*. I believe that at a certain point and in a certain season of my life, I convey the Will of God as I see it. I believe that I am there for a specific reason. I am internally

motivated and God wants me to do a job and therefore I can do the best I can. I am thus internally motivated because of my philosophy of life”.

A solid religious foundation provides leaders with fitness – mental fitness, physical fitness, and spiritual fitness. Fit leaders have energy and energise their followers in turn.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) also found that the establishment of trust by leaders in the organisation gives it a sense of integrity analogous to a healthy identity (Northouse, 2001: 142).

Religion has been found to play a significant role in the workplace, and its relationship to work-related values has been established as in the following examples (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 103-104):

Catholic: Consideration – this involves concerns that employees be taken seriously, be kept informed, and that their judgments be used. It is more or less similar to the transformational leadership behaviour of individualised consideration as discussed in section 3.4.2.3.

Protestant: Employer effectiveness – this involves desire to work for a company that is efficient, successful, and a technological leader.

Buddhist: Social responsibility – this involves concern that the employer be a responsible part of society.

Muslim: Continuity – this involves the desire for a stable environment, job longevity, and reduction of uncertainty.

No religious preference: Professional challenge – this involves concern with having a job that provides learning opportunities and opportunities to use skills well.

In interpreting the theme of religious beliefs, it emerges that such leaders have an

external locus of control, i.e. they attribute outcomes to circumstances beyond their control (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 135). They see their transformational leadership style as being a result of their religion and not a result of their own control of events that affect their lives. They exhibit this leadership style because their religion prescribes it that way. In other words, they are “psychologically programmed” to exhibit the transformational leadership style as a result of their religion.

5.4.1.7 Having a vision

An unquestionable strength of transformational leaders is that they must have a vision. Visionary leaders are always on top of issues. They can “see” things at a distance and develop mechanisms ahead of time to deal with them effectively and efficiently. They not only have a vision, but are able to translate it into something tangible.

One leader said the following about having a vision: “A transformational leader has to be visionary. You have to have a vision as to where you are going. If you don’t know where you are going, any road can lead you there. So, you have to be visionary. I regard myself as a visionary leader”.



There is remarkable concurrence among almost all theories and research on transformational leadership that having a vision is a necessary condition to be met in order to be referred to as a transformational leader (Yukl, 1998: 342). Bennis and Nanus (1985) identified the development of a vision as one of the three common themes or strategies used by leaders in transforming their organisations. They found that transformational leaders have the capacity to develop a clearly articulated and appealing vision for their organisations (Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 296; Philip *et al.*, 1990 cited in Pierce & Newstrom, 2000: 271) and that vision is necessarily a commodity of such leaders (Bennis & Nanus, 1997: 17).

Tichy and Devanna (1986), in defining the change process as a three-act process (Northouse, 2001: 143), identified *the creation of a new vision* as Act 2 in that process (cf. section 3.5.2.2). This act centres on the leaders’ struggle to focus the attention of the

organisation on an exciting and positive vision of the future (Tichy & Devanna, 1986: 6). This vision acts as a conceptual road map indicating the direction in which the organisation is heading and what it will look like in future (Northouse, 2001: 144).

In interpreting the theme of having a vision, no leader can be classified as being transformational unless he/she has a vision or can develop one pertaining to the direction in which the organisation should be heading. Having a vision is therefore a prerequisite for transformational leadership.

5.4.2 Interview question 2

What are your transformational leadership weaknesses?

The purpose of this question was to try and identify those themes or behaviours that leaders perceive to be an impediment in exhibiting transformational leadership. Consequently, the leaders' ability to manage change would be compromised (**Objective 6 and Question 13**).

Almost all literature on transformational leadership focuses on the strengths and positive aspects of transformational leaders. The transformational leaders' weaknesses and negative aspects are not given attention, thereby creating the impression that such leaders either have insignificant weaknesses not worth writing about, or they do not have any weaknesses at all. On the contrary, other leadership styles, such as transactional leadership, are portrayed in terms of their weaknesses. For example, transactional leadership departs from the intent to develop individual followers and the transactional leader does not individualise the needs of followers or even focus on their personal development (Northouse, 2001: 140). This means that transactional leaders are not people oriented, as indicated in section 5.4.1.1, and people orientation leads to the creation of a motivating climate in the organisation, amongst other things.

Transactional leadership also does not lead to organisational or societal change, but tends to perpetuate the status quo (Burns, 1979 cited in Hughes *et al.*, 1999: 290). As

indicated in section 2.2, change is absolutely essential if an organisation wishes to succeed and gain a competitive advantage in the turbulent and hostile business environment.

Interview question 2 therefore creates new knowledge in terms of reflecting the weaknesses of transformational leaders – an aspect that has hitherto been ignored or avoided by past research.

The leaders' responses to this question revealed the following:

5.4.2.1 Impatience

The transformational leaders thought that they often became impatient with processes and people.

Such leaders wanted to see change happen overnight. They also disliked red-tape – “seven signatures before leave could be approved” – long communication lines, and many policies and procedures channelling them into a certain mode of thinking. If they wanted something done, they wanted it done immediately. They were growing impatient with certain kinds of bureaucracy. They felt that their hands were tied and yet they wanted to go ahead with transformation.

One leader said the following about impatience with processes: “I want action. I make things happen and I want them to happen fast. I want to see movement and results, which is not always good. Unfortunately, in transformational situations you have to make an opportunity to be patient. As Mandela said, *you must hurry slowly*, but I don't have the patience for this”.

Leaders want to see followers move with them during a change process. When responding to change, some people can become aggressive. Some can become depressed, while some might try to bargain with the leader and also bargain themselves out of the change situation while resisting the change. This may lead to leaders growing

frustrated with their followers.

One leader said the following about impatience with people: “I have become impatient with people who fail to embrace change quickly. I want to see people move with me, i.e. at a pace commensurate with my mine. When people respond to change, they become aggressive. Some of them get depressed. Some of them will try to bargain with you somehow and bargain themselves out of the situation”.

Even though it is important to adopt a people-oriented approach, sometimes people have their own agendas to pursue. The leaders also thought, for example, that they were being impatient with political manoeuvring, because this could be a hindrance to the transformation process.

One leader said the following about impatience with political manoeuvring: “I am not a politician. What’s more, I am impatient with political manoeuvring, because within the transformation process that can be an impediment. People are simply acting on instructions and not on what they feel is right”.

The best thing to do in order to avoid impatience and the consequent frustration is to focus on the issues and not on the people. This, however, would contradict the leaders’ strength of people orientation. Leaders should rather attend counselling sessions where they could be assisted to deal with their impatience.

Although the leaders were impatient with people, they also tended to be paternalistic. They did not want to hurt people. They became empathetic even when it was not necessary.

In interpreting the theme of the transformational leaders’ impatience with processes and people, it became evident that such leaders have a clear understanding of the importance and urgency for change. An organisation that does not change rapidly and frequently in line with changes in the market will lose out to competitors. Some organisations are ahead of change in the market and therefore enjoy the *first-mover advantage*. Because of this type of understanding of change on the part of

transformational leaders, they become impatient with slow change processes and with people who are tardy in embracing, accepting, and moving along with change.

5.4.2.2 Inability to reverse decisions

Transformational leaders think that once a decision has been taken, it cannot be reversed. It is cast in stone.

One leader said the following about inability to reverse decisions: “Once decided, I am really not willing to go back to an issue and open it again. To me, it is a whole waste of time; but sometimes it is necessary, especially in the process of transformation, because in transformation, you do not have clear-cut answers. It is a new thing that you have to deal with. It is a new world opening up for you”.

In interpreting the theme of inability to reverse decisions, it should be noted that transformational leadership literature depicts leaders as being flexible in their thinking and receptive of inputs from followers. For example, they stimulate their followers to be creative and innovative and to also challenge their own beliefs and values and those of their leaders and organisation as well (Bass & Avolio, 2001: 204; Northouse, 2001: 138). However, it emerged from this research that these leaders also exhibit rigid behaviours, although in a very subtle way. This might be the result of having been psychologically conditioned by their predecessors or mentors, or whoever had some influence on them, that once decisions are taken they cannot be reversed. This is a behavioural pattern that can be unlearned or modified so that leaders can know that decisions can indeed be reversed if there is a need to do so.

5.4.2.3 Poor communication due to language barrier

Many White transformational leaders felt that their lack of knowledge of at least one African language was an impediment to effective communication with their followers who were speakers of these languages. When one does not know the language of one's followers, it becomes difficult to build rapport, trust, and a sense of belonging with one's

followers. Such a language barrier may negatively affect the management of change.

One leader said the following about poor communication due to language barrier: “I cannot speak an African language other than Afrikaans. I would have loved to be able to speak Sesotho fluently in this environment. However, even if you speak an African language too well, some native speakers may think that you are from the farm and that may cause some question marks of how honest you are as far as transformation is concerned”.

In sections 5.4.1.3 and 5.4.1.4, it was pointed out that such leaders' strengths lie in their ability to manage diversity and to effect two-way communication respectively. In this case, the leaders' weakness was that they communicated poorly with their followers due to the fact that they were unable to speak the African language spoken by their followers, which was a failure on the part of the leaders to manage diversity. This was therefore a diversity issue in which one group (White) was unable to connect with another (Black).

In interpreting the theme of poor communication due to language barrier, it emerges that the problem of White people not being able to communicate in an indigenous language is a legacy left by apartheid. During the apartheid era, indigenous languages were accorded no status whatsoever, with English and Afrikaans being the only two official languages in a highly multilingual country, which boasts some 11 languages. There was no conscious effort on the part of White people, with the exception of a few raised on farms, to learn the indigenous languages. Black people, on the other hand, were coerced into speaking English and Afrikaans, which were used by all organs of the state such as the courts, institutions of higher learning and public departments, with English being used as a *lingua franca*. This state of affairs led to the denigration of indigenous languages to the extent that they failed to develop to the level of English and Afrikaans.

Given that the new dispensation has accorded the indigenous languages official status, many White leaders wish that they were familiar with these languages so as to be able to build rapport and trust with their Black followers, since language is not only a tool for

communication but also serves to unite people. Although Black people might understand this predicament, it is difficult for White leaders to connect with their Black followers like they would with their White followers due to linguistic differences. This perpetuates the “us and them” philosophy. It compromises the establishment of mutual trust, team spirit, *camaraderie*, and a sense of belonging, which are all crucial in the pursuit of common objectives, such as effecting change in an organisation.

5.4.2.4 Avoidance of conflict

The transformational leaders were of the opinion that they quite often tended to avoid conflict with their followers even in the face of extreme provocation. The avoidance of conflict was manifested in a number of ways.

Firstly, the leaders thought that they were not strict enough with followers, thereby avoiding confronting the followers head-on. When followers did not perform, the leaders did not take punitive measures against non-performers. Instead, they corrected the mistakes committed by followers or else they did the actual work supposed to have been done by followers.



One leader said the following about lack of strictness with followers: “I am too lenient sometimes. When a person has made a silly mistake, I give him time to recover, and to repeat if you know what I am saying. Sometimes that could go against the whole issue of transformation. It can prolong transformation”.

Committing mistakes should, however, be viewed in a positive light. The leaders in the research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) viewed mistakes as being a normal part of doing things and used them as a window of opportunity for learning and development purposes (Yukl, 1998: 339). Bass (1998: 93) also found that transformational leaders came from backgrounds in which it was acceptable to fail as long as a person tried his/her best and mistakes were considered part of a learning process.

Another leader said: “I never force people to do what they are supposed to do”. This is

suggestive of the laissez-faire type of leadership in which the leader sits back and watches as the situation unfolds without intervening and giving directions. Consequently, this leader lacks mentoring skills.

Secondly, the leaders were unable to say “no”, lest they hurt their followers’ feelings. This compromised their ability to manage change, because if followers exhibited *anti-change* behaviours or acted in a manner suggesting resistance to change, the leaders failed to confront them so as to avoid creating potential conflict with them. They tended to accept whatever request that the followers came up with.

In interpreting the theme of avoidance of conflict, it emerged that the leaders did not want to create tension in the organisation, fearing that people’s commitment and performance might be negatively affected. Avoidance of conflict is but one tactic leaders employ in handling *dysfunctional conflict*, i.e. the kind of conflict that threatens the organisation’s interests (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 337-340). Avoidance might be suitable for trivial issues or when the costs of confrontation outweigh the benefits of resolving the conflict. It is, however, inappropriate for difficult and worsening problems. The advantage with avoidance is that it buys time in unfolding or ambiguous situations, such as in change situations. Avoidance should thus be seen in more of a positive light and be exhibited only when the returns outweigh the losses.

The fact that leaders were doing the work supposed to be done by followers in order to avoid conflict greatly impacted on leaders being overloaded already and would thus not provide sufficient time to manage change. Leaders should only create a space within which followers can work, give them ownership of processes, and empower them to do things on their own. Issues of staff development could be looked into with a view to assisting those followers who have problems carrying out their duties as expected.

Leaders should stimulate *functional conflict*, i.e. conflict that serves the organisation’s interests (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 336-338). This can be done in three ways: firstly by encouraging *programmed conflict*, which encourages different opinions without protecting the leaders’ personal feelings; secondly by adopting *devil’s advocacy*, which involves assigning someone the role of critic; and thirdly by implementing the *dialectic*

method, which fosters a debate of opposing viewpoints to better understand an issue.

Avoidance of conflict can therefore be done in a positive way depending on the circumstances at hand. The best way, however, would be to create functional conflict and to be *forthright* with followers – a theme discussed below.

5.4.2.5 Being forthright

Paradoxically, the transformational leaders tended to be forthright and did not avoid conflict irrespective of whether some people might have been hurt in the process. They believed in “telling it like it is”. They perceived this as a weakness in that people’s emotions came second to tasks to be performed.

One leader said the following about being forthright: “I am too forthright. I don’t yield very easily and people working with me may perceive it to be a weakness. But sometimes pretension doesn’t help as well. Until you convince me otherwise, I will stick to my point uncompromisingly so. I will tell it, whether you are a vice-chancellor or someone. But some people may not like it that way, being forthright. They want modesty and I don’t think I can be modest”.

In interpreting the theme of being forthright, it emerged that people perceived this theme as implying being inconsiderate, inhumane, disrespectful, unreasonably confrontational, “devilish”, not caring, and lacking people skills. If this perception is true, then it deserves to be classified as a weakness on the part of leaders. However, if being forthright is perceived as genuinely wanting to achieve the organisational objectives, manage change effectively and efficiently, and create functional conflict as discussed in section 5.4.2.4 above, then it is a strength on the part of transformational leaders.

Since the leaders declared the theme of being forthright as a weakness, then the perception of assigning negative attributes to this theme holds. It is therefore a debilitating and dysfunctional theme, which will certainly be an impediment to managing change. Leaders should therefore be forthright in a positive sense – that is, in a sense

that will enhance the attainment of organisational objectives and consequently, the successful management of change. It should also be clearly communicated to followers that being forthright, although confrontational, is only meant to further the aspirations of the organisation and is not meant to denigrate, demotivate or dehumanise the followers.

5.4.2.6 Perfectionist attitude

The transformational leaders perceived themselves as being too perfectionist in attitude and in their approach to doing certain things. As a result they struggled with delegation, as they wanted to do things themselves. They could not risk leaving important things in the hands of other people, lest they made mistakes. They left nothing to chance and wanted things to be done perfectly. They also tended to adhere strictly to deadlines. They preferred to spend sleepless nights rather than be beaten by deadlines.

One leader said the following about perfectionist attitude: "I think one of my greatest weaknesses is that I battle with delegation. The problem is that I want to do things myself. I can't risk leaving important things to be done by other people, lest they mess up. This is because I am a perfectionist. I want everything to be done perfectly. I leave nothing to chance. Also, I tend to adhere strictly to deadlines. I better spend sleepless nights than to be beaten by deadlines".

In interpreting the theme of being perfectionist in attitude, it emerged that attitudes were found to influence behaviour. That is, people behaved in a particular manner because they had a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with regard to a given object (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 136). The leaders behaved as they did towards their job as a result of their attitude. They wanted everything they did in the workplace to be perfect and would never compromise on this attitude. Once a leader has this kind of predisposition, it is extremely difficult for him/her to behave in any other manner that contradicts their perfectionism, because attitudes are resistant to change. That is why such leaders are not comfortable with delegating. In order to satisfy their perfectionist attitude, they want to do things themselves. Otherwise, they will always be suspicious about the perfection of work done by others.

This perfectionist attitude is therefore an obsession on the part of leaders. This obsession makes them compulsive in behaviour and they thus become dissatisfied if they think that some tasks performed have not reached the level of perfectionism as they would have expected.

In order to remedy this compulsiveness, leaders may be influenced indirectly through education and training experiences that change underlying attitudes. Another tactic may involve redirecting subjective norms through clear and credible communication, organisational culture values, and role models (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 138).

In research by Bennis and Nanus (1985), leaders were consciously aware of both their strengths and weaknesses and, as a result, they emphasised their strengths instead of dwelling on their weaknesses.

5.4.3 Interview question 3



What past events most influenced your leadership approach?

The purpose of this question was to identify and isolate important events in an individual's life that could have contributed significantly towards making an individual a transformational leader. This question was premised on the assumption that transformational leadership is not bestowed on an individual, but that it is rather acquired through learning from life's experiences (**Objective 7 and Question 14**).

In general, leaders failed to single out specific events in their lives. They instead mentioned ongoing processes that had taken place throughout a significant portion of their lives. One leader said: "I cannot cite a single event but I got more experience as I grew older". This implies that transformational leadership is not acquired from one or two events in one's life. It is rather acquired through many events taking place over the years and collectively shaping one into a transformational leader.

Literature does lend support to the fact that an entire array of life's experiences shapes

the way a person behaves in future. Relevant experiences acquired earlier in life appear to contribute to one's emergence as a transformational leader in adult life (Bass, 1998: 93). Griffin (1996: 105) argues that dozens of important individual events shape individuals' lives and contribute significantly to their ethical beliefs and behaviours. These events are not isolated but are a normal and routine part of growing up and maturing. They are not necessarily positive, in that negative events may also shape an individual's ethics. For example, if a person steals something and does not get caught, he may feel no remorse and thus continue to steal. However, if he is caught stealing, he might feel guilty enough to revise his ethical standards and not steal in future.

The leaders' responses to this question revealed the following:

5.4.3.1 Family influences

The transformational leaders attributed their transformational leadership style to certain events within the family that occurred as they were growing up. Their parents used to set high standards and, as a result, leaders set high standards for themselves too. They were also brought up in "liberal households".

One leader said the following about family influences: "I come from a family where there was nothing autocratic. My father wasn't an autocratic person. I was given an opportunity to stand for my rights. I think neither of my parents was a conflict-driven individual. They would always negotiate and allow you to talk about things. Open negotiation was a norm. In fact, I remember very few conflict situations, although there were some, but really they couldn't be classified as conflicts in the true sense of the word".

While many leaders attributed their leadership style to the influence of both parents, some indicated that either the mother or the father was the one who had contributed the most. Some had been raised by single parents due to the absence of the other parent for various reasons, including death. As a result, they had started shouldering responsibility at an early age.

One of the leaders said: “In my upbringing I was given an opportunity to be responsible. My parents, especially my mother, provided me with that type of independence because in those days fathers used to be migrant workers and were not available for long periods of time. My mother has influenced me a lot. As a result, I am not fearful of anybody or any situation. I had that kind of an upbringing. I can stand on my own regardless of what happens because I can adjust”.

The most prominent values within the family were the ones based on Christianity. The majority of the leaders were raised within a Christian environment and the Christian values were intertwined with those of transformational leadership.

One leader said the following about being brought up in a Christian family environment: “I grew up in a Christian atmosphere, and I was taught to accept the people as they are. They gave me freedom to make my own choices concerning my career and they supported me in every way. I salute them for that”.

Avolio and Gibbon (1988) cited in Bass (1998: 98) found that neither a severely disadvantaged nor a highly privileged childhood was conducive to becoming a transformational leader. Instead, most conducive was a childhood with some moderate challenges.

In interpreting the theme of family influences, it emerges that central to these influences is the question of *ethics* – an individual’s personal beliefs regarding what is right and wrong, or good or bad (Griffin, 1996: 104). Moreover, transformational leadership is an *ethical and moral exercise*, as it essentially raises the level of human conduct and motivation (Northouse, 2001: 132). People therefore begin to form ethical standards as children in response to the behaviours of their parents and the behaviours that their parents allow them to choose. A conflict-free household, for example, will result in a child leading a conflict-free life in his/her family or at work later in life.

Children are therefore highly likely to adopt and emulate high ethical standards if they

perceive them among family members. The exhibition of these ethical behaviours may be strengthened by receiving rewards for conforming to them and punishment for not conforming. If, however, family members engage in unethical behaviours and allow children to act likewise, children are likely to develop low ethical standards. Transformational leaders in adult life do not simply emerge fortuitously, but are shaped to a large degree by the high moral standards set by their parents, and parental influence is shown in their early performance in school (Bass, 1998: 98).

In the same vein, child-rearing practices shape the child's future conduct. If, at an early age, the child is afforded an opportunity to assume responsibility and is given the freedom to make decisions, aided or single-handedly, that child is likely to become a responsible and effective decision-maker in future, which is also a good quality of transformational leadership. Bass (1998: 93) found that highly transformational leaders come from families that stressed high standards of excellence along with strong, supportive homes, with parents who provided them with challenges but also supported them in their efforts whether they resulted in success or failure.

Similarly, if a child is raised in a Christian family, where Christian principles and beliefs are the norm, such a child will live by Christian principles and beliefs later in life. Bass (1998: 94) found that early adulthood experiences of transformational leaders revealed that they engaged in religious activity one to three hours a week, which was a precursor to charismatic-inspirational leadership. Section 5.4.1.6 has already alluded to the role that religion plays in shaping one into a transformational leader, as well as its relationship with work-related values.

5.4.3.2 Mentor influences

The transformational leaders attributed their leadership style to their leaders who were also their mentors. Their leadership style had been directly shaped by those events during which they interacted with their leaders.

One leader said the following about mentor influences: "I had two extremely positive

leaders to whom I had to report. I worked for USAID and I had what I would most probably refer to as one of the best leaders I have ever worked with. He gave me absolute autonomy to run major projects and I think that autonomy and independence have allowed me to grow as well. I had the same experiences with the Free State Department of Health. I can't make a choice between those two guys. They were absolutely great leaders. They were visionary. They were always there for us and always objective. They were open and frank in their discussions. I took a lot from those two CEOs”.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) also found that there was a reciprocal impact on followers with regard to positive self-regard in leaders, thereby creating in them feelings of confidence and high expectations. They also found that leaders were committed to learning and re-learning (Bass, 1990: 150; Northouse, 2001: 143), including consistent emphasis on education in the organisation (Northouse, 2001: 143).

Paradoxically, some leaders had negative experiences with their bosses and in their lives in general, which also helped shape their transformational leadership style.

One leader said the following about negative experiences with a leader and life in general. “I learnt a lot from other people. I had many negative experiences especially from my boss. But I have had negative experiences in social circles as well. However, all these negative experiences made me grow as a person. They made me the kind of transformational leader I am today”.

Some women leaders attributed their leadership style to gender stereotypes in the workplace. They argued that being a woman and working among White men was quite unbearable. They therefore had to be persistent and stubborn in order to climb their way up the corporate ladder.

In interpreting the theme of mentor influences, it emerges that a mentor-protégé relationship is quintessential in helping followers to become good transformational leaders, which may also assist the organisation in its succession planning, for instance.

Mentoring is therefore important in developing a high-performance culture, including employee development and effective organisational communication, for three reasons (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 74-76): Firstly, it contributes to creating a sense of oneness in terms of promoting the acceptance of the organisation's core values; secondly, it promotes a sense of membership by the socialisation aspect of mentoring; and thirdly, it enhances interpersonal exchanges among organisational members.

The mentor-protégé relationship is usually informal and can be initiated by either of the two parties. The mentor teaches and counsels the protégé about performance-related issues, organisational politics, and other issues deemed important in, for instance, shaping the transformational skills of the protégé. If appropriate, the mentor also advances the protégé's career by telling co-workers how good the protégé's work is, thereby making recommendations for new job assignments (Griffin, 1996: 689).

Mentoring is similar to the transformational leadership behaviour of individualised consideration (Bass, 1985: 90), which indicates the degree to which the leader shows interest in others' wellbeing, assigns projects individually, and pays individual attention to those who seem less involved in the group (Northouse, 2001: 157).

Those leaders that have had good mentors are therefore likely to be ahead of their counterparts who have not had mentors or whose relationships with their superiors were not cordial, but were characterised by conflict. This is supported by research cited in Kreitner and Kinicki (1998: 76), namely that individuals with mentors were frequently promoted, had greater career satisfaction, and made more money from income than those without mentors. Mentoring therefore directly influences the development of transformational leadership behaviours. Also, Fiedler and Leister (1977) cited in Bass (1985: 106-107) indicated that leaders who were faced with stressful conflict with their bosses had their intellectual functioning impaired. However, experienced leaders can apply their intelligence better to managing and guiding their bosses whilst inexperienced ones may be handicapped by the lack of experience.

In interpreting a question of leaders having had negative experiences with their bosses,

it emerged that such leaders' transformational leadership style might have been shaped by other factors not attached to their bosses. A number of such factors may be identified. Firstly, the leaders' personal strengths (section 5.4.1), family influences and assumption of leadership roles (section 5.4.3) could have made a significant contribution. These factors might have had a collective influence in counteracting the negative influences of the leaders' bosses. Secondly, the leaders might have traits or inborn characteristics such as intelligence and emotional maturity that enabled them to become transformational leaders despite the setback from their bosses. Therefore, having had a positive or negative boss should not be regarded as the "be all and end all" in promoting or hindering the development of the leaders' transformational leadership style. It should rather be viewed as a collection of various aspects that are involved in developing a transformational leader.

In interpreting the question of gender stereotypes in the workplace, it emerged that such stereotypes can unfortunately lead to poor decisions, create barriers for women, and undermine employee loyalty and job satisfaction (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 164). Gender stereotypes are pervasive in many organisations and countries, though in varying magnitudes. However, with the advent of the feminist movement, such stereotypes are gradually being transcended and more and more women are assuming senior leadership positions in government and large organisations and are being given the recognition they deserve. Pieces of legislation governing the labour relationship such as the Labour Relations Act (Act no. 55 of 1995), the Employment Equity Act (Act no. 66 of 1998) and Convention 111 of the International Labour Organisation have been promulgated in an attempt to, *inter alia*, address imbalances of the past and eradicate gender stereotypes in the workplace (Bendix, 2001: 83-88). Those women that have managed to become transformational leaders despite the gender stereotypes are remarkably strong, both intellectually and emotionally.

5.4.3.3 Assumption of leadership roles

The transformational leaders claimed that they were made to assume leadership roles at an early age, especially when they were still at school or university, such as being herd-

boy, captain of various sports teams, a hostel prime, an SRC president, and so on.

One leader said the following about assumption of leadership roles: “As from my university days I was SRC chairperson at UP. I was a prime of the first-year residence. We were only six senior students and there were about sixty first-year students. These first-year students looked at me as a father figure and I was only in my fourth year. I appreciated the trust that they put in me and I also appreciated the advice that I gave them because that was a big responsibility”.

Transformational leaders were found to have engaged in more leadership activities in high school and college (Bass, 1998: 93). They had been more involved in high-school sports activities, particularly team sports, in their early life (Yammarino & Bass, 1990 cited in Bass, 1998: 93).

Some leaders attributed their transformational leadership style to their circle of friends in which they assumed leadership roles.

One leader said the following in this regard: “I think one of my greatest influences was my group of friends I grew up with. I was the shortest of them all, but I was probably the second oldest in a group of five or six guys. So, physically I was not there but mentally I was. I was tough. I wouldn't say tough but it was like being a counsellor to my friends. When they had problems they would come to me. I think that influenced the way I am thinking today. Because I would support them and I would give them guidance. You know, at the age of nineteen, I was already seen as somebody they could come to for their problems. That I think made a big impact”.

In interpreting the theme of the assumption of leadership roles, it emerged that when people are afforded an opportunity to practice or act out leadership, they gradually learn to become leaders in future. They acquire leadership behaviours, which they exhibit in different situations and adapt accordingly, i.e. according to the demands of the situation. Obviously, when one is given an opportunity to lead others, one develops confidence and positive self-esteem, which go a long way in making one long to achieve even more.

An individual is motivated to go the extra mile in sharpening his/her leadership competencies. The adage that “practice makes perfect” holds true in this situation.

Peer influences also play a significant role in developing transformational leadership. For example, if a child has friends who engage in shoplifting, vandalism or drug abuse, he/she may decide to engage in the same activities as well. But if his/her peers have high ethical standards and reject such behaviours, he/she is likely to adopt these standards (Griffin, 1996: 105).

Also, if a child’s peers notice some leadership qualities in him/her, they are likely to utilise those qualities for their own benefit. They will assign, though tacitly, some leadership roles to such a child. As a result, the child, also tacitly, assumes leadership roles within such a circle of friends. Bass (1998: 95-97) found that the school-age experiences of transformational leaders revealed that they were almost always leaders of the gang or “clique”, which was a precursor of charismatic-inspirational leadership. He also found that transformational leaders higher in individualised consideration either encouraged others to talk to them about their personal problems or were told of personal problems by others.



5.4.4 Interview question 4

What were the critical points in your career?

The purpose of this question was to try and identify critical or turning points in the leaders’ careers that could have contributed towards making them transformational leaders. This was premised on the assumption that one’s career provides a platform for exhibiting transformational leadership. Some leaders had problems identifying specific points in their careers and could therefore not answer the question satisfactorily. One leader said in this regard: “Nothing exactly. I cannot isolate any particular point in my career that could answer your question. I think my entire life has been characterised by countless such critical points. So, for me to single out any one of them is almost impossible”.

Similar to interview question 3 discussed in section 5.4.3 above, the leaders' problem of identifying specific points in their careers implies that transformational leadership is not only acquired from one or two points in one's career. It is also acquired through many points in one's career that have occurred through the passage of time, collectively shaping one into a transformational leader (**Objective 8 and Question 15**).

The leaders' responses to this question revealed the following:

5.4.4.1 Appointment to a position

The transformational leaders cited their appointment to a position in an organisation as a critical point in their careers. Appointment to a position includes first-time appointment straight after high school or university, as well as a change from one organisation to another.

One leader said the following about appointment to a position: "It was definitely when I was appointed Director of Cooperative Education in this institution".

Another leader said the following about changing from one organisation to another: "Another critical point was when I left the public service and joined TSA as a manager of Academic Service. That introduced me to the higher education sector".

Also, leaders cited their promotion to a more senior position as a critical point in their careers. Promotion is a form of motivation and makes an individual happy, satisfied, and inspired to go the extra mile in making meaningful contributions to the unit or the organisation as a whole.

One leader said the following about being promoted: "I was with Gencor, then thereafter I joined Anglo. I was promoted to a senior personnel officer, and it must have been at about the age of 28 or 29. You know, being promoted was definitely a highlight in my career".

In interpreting the theme of appointment to a position, it emerges that one gets a feeling of achievement, gratification and self-fulfilment when appointed. Finding a job, particularly in the hostile and unreceptive South African job market, is payback time for all the hard work and sacrifices during school and university days. It is a dream come true, as many young people dream of securing a job in future. The dream epitomises the need for achievement, i.e. the desire to accomplish a goal or task more effectively than in the past (Griffin, 1996: 481), which has been found to overlap with Maslow's higher order needs of esteem and self-actualisation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 196-197).

With regard to the question of promotion, it emerges that promotion is both a reward and a positive reinforcer (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 467- 469). It is a positive reinforcer, because positive reinforcement strengthens behaviour by *contingently* presenting something pleasing. Promotion is, however, more a result of transactional leadership than transformational leadership. The follower performs in a certain way, as prescribed by the leader, in anticipation of some reward from the latter. This exchange relationship between the leader and the follower is reminiscent of the *contingent reward behaviour* of transactional leadership (cf. section 3.4.2.5). Promotion therefore perpetuates the transformational/transactional continuum philosophy.

5.4.4.2 Making unpopular decisions

The transformational leaders claimed that one does not have to “buy face” by making decisions that will be accepted by followers and supervisors. They considered themselves to be strong enough and to have sufficient character to make unpopular decisions, as long as those decisions were justifiably correct.

One leader said the following about making unpopular decisions: “I overturned an appointment of an internal candidate. There were two candidates, black and white. The black one, funny enough, was under-qualified compared to the white one. As Dean, I overturned the appointment of this black guy. I did not turn it down on the basis of equity,

but on the fact that the black guy was under-qualified and less appropriate for the job. I took that strong decision. So, as far as the Faculty is concerned, I have taken some unpopular decisions”.

Another leader said: “The most recent point is that I have suspended a staff member because of racism, a white lecturer. When I gave him a chance to present his side of the story, he said the whole country is discriminating against blacks. I said to him: *Thanks, you are suspended effective from Monday*”.

In interpreting the theme of making unpopular decisions, it emerges that decision-making is the most basic and fundamental of all managerial activities (Griffin, 1996: 232). It is a given that every leader must make a decision at one stage or another. Transformational leaders will always make decisions based on facts and rational thinking. Such leaders will firstly not make decisions haphazardly, as in the case of a garbage model of decision-making; secondly, they will not be channelled by bound rationality in decision-making in which they are bound or restricted by a variety of constraints, including personal or environmental characteristics that reduce rational decision-making; and thirdly, they will not subscribe to groupthink in which cohesive in-groups allow the desire for unanimity to override sound judgment when generating and evaluating alternative causes of action (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 359-369).

Transformational leaders therefore “do not run a popularity campaign” by making decisions that are popular and accepted by the majority of people in the organisation, or to please some people. They make decisions that are best for the welfare of both the organisation and its employees. They apply their minds to a situation and decide on the best option for the matter being dealt with, irrespective of whether other people will be in favour of the decision. They do not sit back, relax and watch as the situation unfolds, as is the case with laissez-faire leaders. Instead, they intervene in the situation and confront the situation head-on in pursuit of the goals and aspirations of the organisation.

5.4.4.3 Receiving awards

The transformational leaders also cited their reception of awards in recognition of their

achievements or work well done as a critical point in their careers. This boosted their morale and inspired them to even achieve more.

One leader said the following about receiving awards: “I operate in a national professional environment. I was one of 18 people over the past 30 years who received an award for outstanding contribution and leadership, even nationally. I received that award, and that was one of the biggest honours for me – being recognised by my colleagues nationally. I think the reason why I obtained an award was not just the contribution I have made in my field, but also that I can influence other people”.

Other leaders cited their completion of a senior degree, such as a master’s or doctoral degree, as a critical point that left an indelible mark in their minds. The attainment of a higher qualification had resulted in their promotion to a more senior position.

One leader said the following about completing a doctoral degree: “I moved to an academic institution which enabled me to get a PhD and ultimately become a professor with transformational skills. I had a specific experience during my stay at Bongani Hospital when the environment was hostile and very political and there was a definite need for transformation there”.

In interpreting the theme of receiving awards, it emerged that the leaders were not only being recognised for their past achievements but were also being inspired to be more committed and to do more. This is also similar to Bass’ transformational leadership behaviour of inspirational motivation (cf. section 3.4.2.3). Inspirational motivation involves leaders communicating high expectations to followers and inspiring and motivating them to become more committed to the organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 133; Northouse, 2001: 138). As a result, team spirit is aroused and enthusiasm and optimism are displayed (Bass, 1998: 5).

Receiving awards is also similar to the transactional leadership behaviour of contingent reward, which characterises the exchange relationship between leaders and followers. In this case, inspirational motivation augments contingent reward, since transformational leadership builds on and augments transactional leadership (Bass, 1998: 4; Bass &

Avolio, 1992: 22). Leaders are therefore extrinsically motivated to achieve more as a result of being rewarded for their efforts.

With regard to earning higher academic qualifications, it emerged that the leaders were achievement oriented, with the consequence that they experienced feelings of achievement, gratification and self-fulfilment, as discussed in section 5.4.4.1 above regarding appointment to a position.

5.4.4.4 Completing important projects

The transformational leaders also cited the undertaking and completion of important projects, such as mergers and incorporations, as marking a critical point in their careers. Successful completion of projects provided leaders with a sense of satisfaction and self-fulfilment, which went a long way towards making them transformational leaders.

One leader said the following about the completion of important projects: “The major issues were to implement projects, cross-cutting projects that are important, such as, for example, the Performance Management System. It is something I will always remember. It certainly enriched me, my leadership and decision-making style; and then obviously the merger, the incorporation. It has been a major challenge but it is definitely something that I know has contributed in making us grow”.

In interpreting the theme of completion of important projects, it emerges that the leaders also gained a feeling of achievement, gratification and self-fulfilment, as discussed in sections 5.4.4.1 and 5.4.4.3. In addition, the completion of important projects leads to *task identity*, which refers to the extent to which the job requires an individual to perform a whole or complete and identifiable piece of work. It is high when a person works on a project from beginning to end and sees a tangible result (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 203). The completion of important projects has motivating potential, which shapes an individual into a transformational leader.

5.4.5 Interview question 5

What are the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader?

The purpose of this question was to establish from the leaders those behaviours and influences that characterise an individual they would perceive to be a good transformational leader. Whilst questions 1 to 4 required the leaders to describe themselves as transformational leaders, question 5 required leaders to provide a description of “an idea they carry in their heads” about a good transformational leader, and not themselves *per se*.

From the leaders’ responses, these characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader can be categorised into four behavioural categories, viz. cognitive, affective, motivational, and interpersonal behaviours.



Cognitive behaviour (rationality, thinking, problem solving)

Cognitive behaviour is based on a perspective that emphasises thinking as the key element (Davis & Pallandino, 1997: 552) in causing behaviour. It is derived from the individual’s knowledge about the situation and is subject to individual perceptions (Griffin, 1996: 453). It involves understanding and knowing (Groome, Dewart, Esgate, Gurney, Kemp & Towell, 2001: 2). Its most general dimension is *general intelligence*, which represents an individual’s capacity for constructive thinking, reasoning and problem solving (George & Jones, 1999: 54; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 139).

In terms of cognitive behaviour, the leaders’ responses revealed the following:

A good transformational leader has his/her ear to the ground, monitors what is happening in the environment, and aligns him/herself with progressive thinking in the industry. The leader is also a scholar and keeps abreast with developments in the fields of leadership and change management and is well acquainted with leadership and

change management literature.

The leader is able to apply the quantum model in the approach to change, i.e. think big in order to achieve big – quantum thinking, (quantum seeing, quantum feeling). He/she understands why people do certain things and does not criticise for the sake of criticising.

Affective behaviour (visionary, emotional, feeling, sensing, values)

Affective behaviour involves an individual's feelings and emotions that result from his/her beliefs about a person, object or situation (Gordon, 1996: 79; Griffin, 1996: 453). Kreitner and Kinicki (1998: 142) claim that employees pursue organisational goals in a logical and rational manner (cognitive behaviour) and that emotional behaviour is seldom factored into the equation. Despite this, day-to-day organisational life indicates how prevalent and powerful emotions can be. Potent emotions such as anger and jealousy, for example, often push aside logic and rationality in the workplace. Leaders, however, exhibit emotional behaviour both to motivate and intimidate.

In terms of affective behaviour, the leaders' responses revealed the following:

A good transformational leader has a vision of where he/she wants to take the organisation – “if you don't know where you are going, any road can lead you there”. He/she has charisma, which is a necessary ingredient for attaining unequivocal follower support, and has patience in dealing with transformational issues.

The leader displays sensitivity to what should be transformed and to the resources that would be needed to make this happen, as well as to mapping the road towards transformation. In other words, the leader embraces change wholeheartedly. He/she also displays innovation and creativity, which are necessary for managing unpredictable change situations, coupled with total confidence and consistency in dealing with transformational issues. Equally important is that the leader displays honesty, fairness, openness, transparency and objectivity, which will earn trust from followers.

The leader is also unconstrained by the rigidity of the past, and displays flexibility according to the demands of the changing situation. He/she is colour-blind, accepts all people unconditionally, and is able to interact effectively with people from diverse cultural backgrounds.

Motivational behaviour (doing behaviour)

Motivational behaviour involves those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary, goal-oriented actions (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 210). It is important that leaders understand these psychological processes if they are to successfully guide followers towards accomplishing organisational objectives. Motivational behaviour thus plays a large part in determining the level of performance of employees, which in turn influences how effectively the organisational goals and objectives are met (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996: 10).

In terms of motivational behaviour, the leaders' responses revealed the following:

A good transformational leader is able to motivate his/her followers to see the necessity of changing to the new paradigm that must be followed. Not only should the leader be able to motivate followers, but he/she should be able to create a motivating climate in which followers can freely express themselves.

The leader also acknowledges that people have inherent strengths and that they should be convinced and not coerced. He/she is able to accept his/her mistakes and is eager to learn from others (self-motivation).

Interpersonal behaviour (communication, teamwork)

Interpersonal behaviour involves exhibiting the ability to communicate with, understand, and motivate both individuals and groups (Gordon, 1996: 228; Griffin, 1996: 18). The interpersonal roles performed include those of being a figurehead, a leader and a liaison,

which involve dealing with other people (Griffin, 1996: 15). Interpersonal behaviour necessitates that the leader exhibits *communicative competence*, i.e. the ability to effectively use communication behaviours in a given context (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 434).

Interpersonal behaviour also enhances teamwork in which leadership is shared, accountability is both individual and collective, the members have developed their own purpose, problem-solving is a way of life, and effectiveness is measured by collective outcomes (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998: 415). Also, team spirit is enhanced. A winning team spirit is affected by such factors as visionary thinking, collective self-confidence, high self-esteem, barrier-breaking rules, and a positive psyche (Hersey *et al.*, 1996: 551).

In terms of interpersonal behaviour, the leaders' responses revealed the following: A good transformational leader is able to communicate well and translate into acceptable language what other people are putting too strongly, and is also a good listener.

The leader is both people oriented and results driven, thereby balancing the needs of the followers with those of the tasks to be performed in order to achieve the desired results – “if people are happy with what they are doing, they will make customers happy as well. Happy followers make happy customers”. He/she thus gives customers ownership of processes and makes them part of the decision-making machinery in the organisation.

The leader has the ability to build and sustain a team. He/she is accommodative of various points of view and does not have temper-tantrums when his/her views are not accepted or supported. He/she does not run a popularity campaign but does what is in the heart, even though it might make him/her unpopular. He/she shows sympathy and empathy and liberates the oppressed.

5.5 FINDINGS VIS-À-VIS LEADERS' ABILITY TO MANAGE CHANGE

Section 1.2 provided arguments pertaining to the perception that scholars and role players in the HE sector have about the lack of leadership among leaders in the sector.

There has generally been consensus that institutions of higher learning find themselves in a precarious situation, because leaders in these institutions lack the necessary skills, competencies and behaviours to lead their respective institutions so that they can gain a competitive advantage and deliver on their responsibilities in the most effective and efficient manner possible. This negative perception has also necessitated the transformation of the HE landscape in South Africa in order to make the HE system more efficient.

The findings in this research are contrary to people's negative perception about leadership in the sector. Leaders have been found to exhibit transformational leadership and its behaviours fairly often, which is a relatively high level of exhibition. Also, the level of this leadership style is reasonably high, thereby implying that the leaders can manage change fairly successfully. This indicates that the bleak picture painted about leadership is not a true reflection of what leadership is like in the sector. Therefore, the perception that there is a lack of leadership among leaders in the HE sector is not that accurate.

5.6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided the results of the empirical study. The quantitative study provided 3 sets of results. Firstly, the leaders' scores on the questionnaire were provided. It was found that 86 leaders achieved high scores on all transformational leadership behaviours. Secondly, the results of the frequency distributions of the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, as well as laissez-faire leadership, were provided. Leaders were found to exhibit transformational leadership behaviours fairly often, and the transactional leadership behaviours fairly often and frequently, whilst laissez-faire leadership was exhibited sometimes. Thirdly, the results of the mean and SD for the three leadership styles were provided. Leaders were found to exhibit transformational and transactional leadership fairly often, whilst laissez-faire leadership was exhibited sometimes.

The qualitative study provided common themes and strategies used by leaders in transforming their organisations. The themes discovered are those pertaining to their

transformational leadership strengths and weaknesses, past events that influenced their leadership approach, critical points in their careers, and their idea of a good transformational leader, i.e. the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader.

The findings are contrary to the widespread perception among scholars and role players in the HE sector that there is a lack of leadership among leaders in the sector. These findings reveal that the leaders studied were exhibiting a reasonable frequency and level of transformational leadership, which, however, still has to be developed in order to ensure the successful management of change.



CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter puts together the research process, from scientific orientation to the results. It indicates the extent to which the research problem has been addressed, the questions answered and the objectives achieved through the literature survey and the empirical study. It also provides a summary of the quantitative and qualitative research findings. The limitations of the research, recommendations to address the gaps identified, and suggestions for future research are also provided.

6.2 LITERATURE SURVEY

The literature survey involved the critical review of two constructs from certain theoretical and research perspectives, viz. organisational change and transformational leadership.

6.2.1 Review of change models

The first literature survey in chapter 2 provided a critical review of the appropriateness and adequacy of five behaviour-oriented change models in explaining Large-Scale Organisational Change (LSOC) in the South African HE sector.

Firstly three textbook models, viz. Lewin's Three-phase Change Model, the Action Research Model, and Contemporary Adaptations to Action Research; secondly contingency models; and thirdly the contextualist model were critically reviewed. The LSOC is manifested in the form of mergers and incorporations among institutions of higher learning as legislated in the Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997. The finding was that, on the one hand, the textbook and contingency models are inappropriate and inadequate for addressing LSOC in the HE sector, as they are ahistorical, acontextual,

and processual in character. On the other hand, the contextualist approach is appropriate and adequate for addressing the problem because it takes into account the historical, contextual, and processual nature of change. The basic analytic framework of the contextualist model emphasises that it is the relationship between the content of a specific change strategy, the context in which it occurs, and the process by which it occurs that characterise this model of organisational change (**Literature survey question 1**). A paradigm shift was recommended where there should be some significant departure from reliance on textbook models, particularly Lewin's Three-phase Change Model, and contingency models, to a contextualist model.

6.2.2 Review of transformational and transactional leadership theories

The second literature survey in chapter 3 provided a review of two transformational and transactional leadership theories, viz. Burns' theory (1978) and Bass' theory (1985).

The finding was that Bass' theory was appropriate and adequate for addressing the research question. Firstly, although the inception of this theory was almost two decades ago, it has been revised over a number of years, thereby providing a sense of "newness". Secondly, it focuses on the transformational/transactional continuum, building on Burns' earlier work and arguing that transformational leadership does not necessarily detract from transactional leadership, but rather builds on it. Therefore, the leader can exhibit these two leadership styles, although in varying magnitudes. Thirdly, whilst the constructs of transformational and transactional leadership have been widely studied and researched, few if any recent theories on these constructs can be singled out as being empirically sounder than Bass' theory. Fourthly, the quantitative research instrument, the MLQ-6S, is one of the latest refinements of the MLQ, which is regarded as the most validated and widely researched and used leadership instruments in the world. The Full Range of Leadership (FRL) model is based on the MLQ factor structure. Fundamental to the FRL model is that every leader exhibits each style of leadership to some extent (**Literature survey question 2**).

6.2.3 Review of descriptive research on transformational leadership

The third literature survey in chapter 3 provided a review of two descriptive research studies on transformational leadership, viz. research by Bennis and Nanus (1985) and research by Tichy and Devanna (1986).

The finding was that the research by Bennis and Nanus is appropriate and adequate for addressing the research problem in that it provided the interview factors of this research project in which leaders were interviewed to determine common themes, strategies or behaviours used in transforming the organisation. Common themes are those that underlie the leaders' transformational leadership strengths, weaknesses, past events that influenced their leadership approach, critical points in their careers, and their understanding of a good transformational leader. The research of Bennis and Nanus was also followed in the hermeneutic interpretation of the qualitative data (**Literature survey question 3**).

6.3 CONCLUSION



This section provides conclusions based on the results of the quantitative and qualitative studies.

6.3.1 Phase 1 – quantitative study

Descriptive statistics were used to determine the frequency distributions of the data, i.e. how subjects responded to the items on the behaviours of the three leadership styles investigated. Based on the results of the frequency distributions, it is concluded that the leaders in the HE sector exhibited:

- transformational leadership behaviours, viz. idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration *fairly often*, which indicates that those leaders were, to a large extent, transformational in their leadership style;

- transactional leadership behaviours, viz. contingent reward and management-by-exception *fairly often* and *frequently* respectively, which indicates that those leaders were, to a large extent, also transactional in their leadership style;
- laissez-faire leadership *sometimes*, which indicates that those leaders were, to a large extent, not laissez-faire in their style.

Descriptive statistics were also used to determine the mean and the SD of the three leadership styles.

6.3.1.1 Transformational leadership

On the basis of the mean and the SD, it was found in section 5.3.3.1 that the leaders exhibited transformational leadership *fairly often*, which is a relatively high level of exhibition of this leadership style. It can thus be concluded that *those leaders were able to manage change fairly successfully*.

A conclusion is therefore drawn to the effect that the leaders in the HE sector:

- exhibited transformational leadership *fairly often* and as such they had a relatively high level of transformational leadership;
- could manage change in their respective HE institutions and the HE sector in general fairly successfully.

6.3.1.2 Transactional leadership

On the basis of the mean and the SD, it was found in section 5.3.3.2 that the leaders exhibited transactional leadership *fairly often*, which is also a relatively high level of exhibition of this leadership style. It can thus be concluded that *these leaders were leading by the exchange relationship they had with their followers*.

A conclusion is therefore drawn to the effect that the leaders in the HE sector:

- were exhibiting transactional leadership fairly often and as such they had a relatively high level of transactional leadership;
- were also departing significantly from the intent of developing individual followers in that they were not individualising the needs of followers or even focusing on their personal development;
- were unconcerned about developing followers to their fullest potential, but were focused on satisfying the requirement of the exchange relationship between themselves and their followers;
- were pursuing the cost-benefit economic exchange that would enable them to meet followers' current material and mental needs in return for contractual services rendered by followers.

6.3.1.3 Laissez-faire leadership

On the basis of the mean and SD, it was found in section 5.3.3.3 that the leaders exhibited laissez-faire leadership *once in a while*, which is a very low level of exhibition of this leadership style. However, the assertion that laissez-faire leadership was exhibited once in a while varied from leader to leader and was not typical among all leaders.

A conclusion is therefore drawn to the effect that the leaders in the HE sector:

- were exhibiting laissez-faire leadership once in a while and as such they had a very low level of laissez-faire leadership;
- were not exhibiting non-leadership;

- could not be characterised as being indecisive, uninvolved, withdrawn when followers needed them, reluctant to take a stand, not monitoring, not responding to problems, and not generally showing passive indifference about the task and followers.

6.3.2 Phase 2 – qualitative study

The findings of the qualitative study, based on two modes of data processing, viz. meaning condensation and hermeneutic meaning interpretation, were as follows:

6.3.2.1 Interview question 1

What are your transformational leadership strengths?

The *strengths* of transformational leaders lie in their:

- People orientation in terms of knowing, motivating, caring and standing up for their followers;
- sensitivity to the macro-environment in terms of embracing, monitoring and having passion for change;
- ability to manage people from diverse cultural backgrounds;
- ability to engage in two-way communication and adopt an open-door policy;
- exposure to transformational leadership, as well as reading extensively on this leadership style;
- religious beliefs, especially Christianity; and
- having a clearly articulated and appealing vision in terms of the direction in which the organisation is heading.

6.3.2.2 Interview question 2

What are your transformational leadership weaknesses?

The *weaknesses* of transformational leaders lie in their:

- impatience with processes and people;
- inability to reverse decisions;
- poor communication due to language barrier, especially with regard to their knowledge of an African language spoken by their followers;
- avoidance of conflict in terms of not being strict enough with followers and being unable to say “no” to them;
- being forthright and “telling it like it is” irrespective of whether some people might feel hurt in the process; and
- being perfect in attitude and in their approach to doing certain things.

6.3.2.3 Interview question 3

What past events most influenced your leadership approach?

The *past events* which most influenced the transformational leaders’ leadership approach included:

- family influences in which both or either of the parents created a “liberal household” by setting high standards and levels of morality and allowing children to take responsibility at an early age whilst at the same time inculcating Christian values;
- mentor influences in which a mentor provided a role model for transformational leadership for the followers to emulate; and
- assumption of leadership roles at school or university and within their circle of friends.

6.3.2.4 Interview question 4

What were the critical points in your career?

The *critical points* in the transformational leaders' careers included:

- appointment to a position directly after high school or university or a change from one organisation to another;
- making unpopular decisions, which were nevertheless justifiably correct;
- receiving awards in recognition of their achievements and work well done, as well as completion of senior academic qualifications; and
- completion of important cross-cutting projects that included, *inter alia*, mergers and incorporations of institutions of higher learning.

6.3.2.5 Interview question 5

What are the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader?

The characteristic *behaviours and influences* of a good transformational leader included:

Cognitive behaviour

A good transformational leader:

- has his/her ear to the ground, monitors what is happening in the environment, and aligns him/herself with progressive thinking in the industry;
- is a scholar and keeps abreast with developments in the fields of leadership and change management literature;
- is able to apply the quantum model in the approach to change, i.e. think big in order to achieve big – quantum thinking, (quantum seeing, quantum feeling); and
- understands why people do certain things and does not criticise for the sake of criticising.

Affective behaviour

A good transformational leader:

- has a vision of where he/she wants to take the organisation – “if you don’t know where you are going, any road can lead you there”;
- has charisma, which is a necessary ingredient for attaining unequivocal follower support;
- has patience in dealing with transformational issues;
- displays sensitivity to what should be transformed and to the resources that would be needed to make this happen, and also maps the road towards transformation. In other words, the leader embraces change wholeheartedly;
- displays innovation and creativity, which are necessary for managing unpredictable change situations;
- displays total confidence and consistency in dealing with transformational issues;
- displays honesty, fairness, openness, transparency and objectivity, which will earn trust from followers;
- is unconstrained by the rigidity of the past, but displays flexibility according to the demands of the changing situation; and
- is colour-blind and accepts all people unconditionally and is able to interact effectively with people from diverse cultural backgrounds.

Motivational behaviour

A good transformational leader:

- is able to motivate his/her followers to see the necessity of changing to the new paradigm that must be followed. Not only should the leader be able to motivate followers, but he/she should be able to create a motivating climate in which followers can freely express themselves;
- acknowledges that people have inherent strengths and that they should be convinced and not coerced;
- is able to accept his/her mistakes; and
- is eager to learn from others (self-motivation).

Interpersonal behaviour

A good transformational leader:

- is able to communicate well and translate into acceptable language what people are putting too strongly;
- is a good listener;
- is both people oriented and results driven, thereby balancing the needs of the followers and those of the tasks to be performed in order to achieve desired results – “if people are happy with what they are doing, they will make the customer happy as well. Happy followers make happy customers”;
- gives followers ownership of processes and makes them part of the decision-making machinery in the organisation;
- has the ability to build and sustain a team;
- is accommodative of various points of view and does not have temper-tantrums when his/her views are not accepted or supported;
- does not run a popularity campaign but does what is in the heart, even though it might make him/her unpopular; and
- shows sympathy and empathy and liberates the oppressed.

6.3.2.6 Qualitative hypothesis generation

A hypothesis entails making a conjectural statement or tentative proposition (Black, 1994: 29) or an “educated guess” about the problem cited, after which one can, by means of research, either confirm or refute that statement (Dreyer, 1994: 6). This description of a hypothesis is more appropriate to a Positivist Quantitative Paradigm in which a hypothesis is formulated prior to undertaking the empirical study. It provides an expectation of the outcome of the research (Black, 1994: 6). The process of *testing* this hypothesis involves confronting it with suitable data in order to try and establish its truth. However, these data may point to the truth or falsity thereof, i.e. the conclusion based on the hypothesis may either be confirmed or refuted (Dreyer, 1994: 6).

In the Interpretive Qualitative Paradigm, there is no specific hypothesis at the outset, and the qualitative researcher therefore begins without a hypothesis (Silverman, 1994: 2-5). Blaikie's (2001: 70) argument that it is not uncommon to invent hypotheses after the research has been completed is followed in this section. Qualitative researchers therefore seek to *generate* the hypothesis during data analysis or at the end of the study (Silverman, 1994: 21). In other words, the hypothesis emerges during the course of the study.

The hypothesis generated during this qualitative study emerges as follows:

Transformational leadership is shaped by the leaders' strengths and weaknesses, in which they dwell more on their strengths than their weaknesses, past events that most influenced their leadership approach, critical points in their careers, and characteristic behaviours – cognitive, affective, motivational, and interpersonal – that define good transformational leaders, with the consequent ability to manage change fairly successfully.

UNIVERSITY
OF
JOHANNESBURG

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has been found to be lacking in a number of aspects, viz. limitations with regard to the questionnaire, the self-administration mode of the questionnaire, the primary sampling units of the quantitative study, the statistics used in processing quantitative data, and the interval between questionnaire administration and interviews.

6.4.1 The questionnaire

The research used the MLQ-6S as a quantitative data-gathering instrument. This instrument was deemed appropriate firstly for *limited-scope* doctoral research and secondly for remedying the shortcomings of the full-item MLQ (cf. section 4.3.1.1). The MLQ-6S is therefore a much shorter form of the MLQ with only 21 items. The small number of items may create a problem when it comes to *generalisation* of the results to

the entire population. The quantitative results may thus only be valid to the sample that was surveyed and, as a result, it might not be possible to generalise such results to the entire population of senior leaders in the HE sector. In order to attain such a generalisation, the 45-item MLQ could have been the more appropriate form to be used in this research.

6.4.2 The self-administration mode of the questionnaire

The MLQ is a 360° feedback assessment, which provides leaders with an opportunity to have their leadership behaviours assessed by multiple sources. In this research, the MLQ process involved participant leaders completing the MLQ-6S on their own perceptions of the frequency of various leadership behaviours (cf. section 4.4.1). The fact that leaders had to rate themselves inevitably resulted in subjectivity of responses, which may not necessarily be a true reflection of the leaders' leadership styles. The more appropriate approach could have been to administer the questionnaire to the leaders, their followers and/or the leaders' leaders and then compare the results from these ratings. The overlap of the results could have been a near true reflection of the leaders' leadership styles. The latter approach could have circumvented subjectivity and bias on the part of the leaders.

6.4.3 The primary sampling units

The research involved seven HE institutions, which were being merged or incorporated, as the primary sampling units. Institutions such as the University of the Witwatersrand, the University of Cape Town, the University of Venda, and the University of Zululand were not involved in the mergers. A question to ask is whether or not generalisations could be made to these institutions. The likely answer might be "no" since most leaders surveyed responded from the point of view of change in the form of mergers and incorporations as they were experiencing it at a particular point in time.

6.4.4 Statistics used in processing quantitative data

Descriptive statistics were used to analyse quantitative data, whilst inferential statistics were not used in data analysis. Inferential statistics enable researchers to draw conclusions about some property of the population from which the sample is derived (Reaves, 1992: 225). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) in particular analyses the variation within and between groups or categories of data using their means, for example (Denscombe, 2000: 203). It indicates whether the differences between the observed sample means are likely to exist in the population from which the sample was drawn (De Vaus, 1994: 186). Since inferential statistics were not used in this research, it would be difficult to make generalisations to the entire population in the HE sector. The results based on descriptive statistics alone would have been “too thin” for this type of research had it not been supplemented by interviews.

6.4.5 The interval between questionnaire administration and interviews

The time that elapsed between the administration of the questionnaire and the conducting of the interviews was about five months. This was due to the initial electronic administration of the questionnaire, which did not go well, thereby necessitating the mail administration followed by one follow-up a few weeks later. This interval could have affected the outcome of the interviews, as too much time elapsed between the two data-gathering procedures. As a result, a number of things could have happened that would have had a bearing on the leaders' leadership styles. For example, some leaders might have attended workshops or training on leadership, or they could have had some experiences in their families or organisations that could have made them alter or modify their leadership approach, thereby affecting the outcome of the interviews.

6.5 THE VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

The value of the research, in terms of *theory*, is that it highlights the significance of Bass' theory of transformational and transactional leadership in addressing the problem of leadership from the Positivist Paradigm. This theory is rooted within the post-industrial leadership or “New Leadership” paradigm, which is an embodiment of several models of leadership such as servant leadership, transformational leadership, and the critical

model of leadership (Shriberg *et al.*, 2002: 219).

Bass' theory identifies specific transformational leadership behaviours that leaders must exhibit in order to "qualify" as transformational leaders. It thus becomes a relatively easy exercise for leadership coaches to coach leaders and potential leaders on these behaviours, because they are observable and can be learnt.

In addressing the question of change, organisations would be encouraged to use the MLQ to systematically measure their transformational leadership style, as this instrument is the most widely used in this regard (Northouse, 2001: 154). Research on the MLQ clearly demonstrates links between transformational leadership behaviours and desirable organisational outcomes such as successful change. This instrument has also been applied in a wide range of organisational settings, as well as with leaders in different cultures (Bass, 1998: 8-9).

In terms of *practice*, the value that this research would add would be that of satisfactorily and adequately solving the perceived problem of leadership in the HE sector. It is hoped that leaders coached in transformational leadership behaviours would be able to lead the change process in the most efficient manner possible, and that they would have the capacity to initiate and implement many changes, ranging from overcoming the apartheid-induced divide between a historically White institution and a historically Black institution, to developing programmes to meet the human resource needs of the region as pronounced in the White Paper of 1997 (Reddy, 2000: 80) and the NPHE of 2001 (Jansen, 2001: 5). It is expected that the HE institutions will be highly efficient in service delivery and the attainment of goals with the result that they will gain a global competitive advantage. The research would also add value to the general fields of leadership and change management in the broad field of human resources management.

In terms of *methodology*, the value that this research would add would be that of highlighting the importance of methodological triangulation. Triangulating the method ensures that more information is provided in the sense that the Interpretive Paradigm supplements the Positivist Paradigm. Most research on transformational leadership uses

either of the two paradigms and in most cases the research problem cannot be adequately addressed. The blending of the two paradigms enables the researcher to approach the research problem from two perspectives with the result that the problem is satisfactorily and adequately addressed. The Interpretive Paradigm has the potential to supplement the Positivist Paradigm and reorient the current understanding of the research problem.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

In section 5.3.2.1, it is indicated that the leaders exhibited all the transformational leadership behaviours *fairly often*. While this frequency of exhibition of these behaviours is satisfactory, it is nevertheless inadequate for optimal management of change. The desirable scenario would be to have leaders exhibit these behaviours frequently, if not always.

In the same vein, it is indicated in section 5.3.3.1 that, on the basis of the mean and the SD, the leaders exhibited transformational leadership *fairly often*, which is a relatively high level of exhibition of this leadership style. The desirable scenario would also be to have leaders exhibit transformational leadership frequently, if not always, which would be an absolutely high level of exhibition. Better leaders are transformational more frequently, while less adequate leaders concentrate on correction and passivity (Bass, 1998: ix).

In order to attain the desirable scenario of frequent exhibition of transformational leadership and its behaviours and the high level of exhibition of this leadership style, some organisational development (OD) intervention in the form of *coaching* and/or *training* in HE leadership and management needs to be done. This is so because transformational leadership can be taught and learnt (Bass, 1998: 98). The following are recommended:

6.6.1 Coaching as a type of intervention

Coaching is a people-focused development (Mathews, 1997: 3) and an open-ended process that analyses the present situation, defines the performance goal, and combines personal, organisational and external resources with the purpose of implementing a plan to reach that goal (King & Eaton, 1999: 145). It is typically carried out on a one-to-one basis, but this does not exclude small teams working towards a very specific target, usually according to a planned programme over a much shorter period of time (King & Eaton, 1999: 145; Mathews, 1997: 3).

Coaching is an important and popular intervention for a number of reasons (Mathews: 1997: 6): Firstly, it is cost effective for small businesses and does not “cost a penny”. Secondly, it focuses on specific issues such as the development of transformational leadership behaviours; long-term or short-term opportunities for effecting either a planned change in people or creating some particular change opportunities; and the twin needs of both the organisation and the individual . Thirdly, it empowers individuals and teams to take ownership of their own development.

In the same vein, Hudson (1999: 7) argues that in the new environment of perpetual change, employees who cannot manage this change will not produce great results, no matter how effective their technical skills or leadership abilities. But coaches can help people search for the advantages of change. Coaches are thus positive change agents.

It is recommended that HE institutions take a proactive stand and utilise the services of an accredited MLQ coach who will put in place OD interventions to coach leaders in the transformational leadership behaviours lacking in their repertoire. The coach may employ any of the different intervention types available at his/her disposal such as Human Process Interventions (e.g. Process Consultation), Technostructural Interventions, Human Resources Management Interventions, and Strategic Interventions (Cummings & Worley, 2001: 41).

The intervention to be employed will involve a number of phases such as initial contact with the client, defining the relationship – psychological contract, selecting a setting, diagnostic interventions and data gathering through the MLQ, confrontive interventions

(agenda management and feedback), and reducing involvement and termination (Schein, 1988: 117).

Coaches will often find themselves in feedback situations in which inexperienced learners want to know how well they are doing (Parsloe, 1995: 145). Feedback will assist the leaders to see the discrepancy between what they think they are doing and what they are actually doing, and will show them where new skills, capabilities and behaviours need to be developed, which will lead to insights into ways to improve work processes (Hargrove, 1995: 162).

The coach will not provide a response in addressing the leaders' shortcomings until, firstly, the individual has really understood the feedback and has been able to relate it to concrete observable transformational leadership behaviours, and secondly, there is an assurance that the individual has begun an active process of trying to solve the problem for him/herself (Schein, 1988: 168).

Coaching will also not commence prior to the release of the MLQ Leadership Report. Once the leader has completed the MLQ, his/her responses are collated in a well-designed, easy-to-read, extensive and confidential report that enables him/her to understand his/her scores. The report will include:

- Full descriptions of the various leadership behaviours
 - Scale and item level information at all levels
 - A narrative of the leader's behaviour
 - Agreement levels along ratings
 - Leadership outcomes
 - Tips for building leadership competency
 - Suggestions for interpreting the report
- (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, 2004)

For each leader, a Leadership Development Plan (LDP) will be established in two sessions following the leader's initial session to discuss the MLQ Leadership Report.

Parsloe (1995: 24) outlines four stages involved in producing a development plan, viz. assessment of current performance, skills and behaviours; prioritising needs; choosing appropriate development methods; and presenting a plan for sign-off.

The coach will prepare a Draft Leadership Development Plan (DLDP). This will then be discussed and developed collaboratively with each leader. The DLDP will then be reviewed and organised in ways that suit the learning style and preferences of the individuals involved. The key principles driving this coaching process is that leaders must own for themselves the items they have selected if the plan is to be fully and effectively implemented (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, 2004). The emphasis throughout is on regular contact until coaching objectives have been met (King & Eaton, 1999: 148).

After completion of all the intervention phases, the results of the intervention will be evaluated and the coach will disengage from the process. The success of the intervention, and the coaching in particular, will be evaluated by how successful leaders exhibit the transformational leadership behaviours and, consequently, how successfully they manage change. If progress in frequently exhibiting the transformational leadership behaviours is evident, then gradual disengagement from the intervention by the coach will take place.

6.6.2 Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme

The South African Universities and Vice-Chancellors Association (SAUVCA) and the Committee of Technikon Principals (CPT) made a conscious attempt to address the lack of leadership and management capacity by designing and implementing the *HE Leadership and Management Programme* (HELM) in 2002 to support university and technikon leadership. The coming into being of the HELM is a direct response to well-documented sectoral leadership and management capacity needs (cf. section 1.2). Its aim is therefore to guide, assist and support HE leadership in successfully navigating the constant challenges of change in its various manifestations, such as the recent mergers and incorporations. It also explores and creates dynamic solutions that address organisational and individual capacity gaps in HE leadership and management (Higher

Education Leadership and Management Programme, 2004).

The HELM provides participant leaders with the following benefits, amongst others:

- a formal space for the development of creative problem-solving through group interaction and an integrated curriculum that encourages a team approach to HE management;
- the opportunity to examine the changing nature of leadership roles, as well as the skills and behaviours that define good leadership in contemporary organisations;
- exposure to a range of management models, coupled with the opportunity to acquire new skills, enabling participants to play a more effective role at their institution;
- the opportunity to analyse and engage in the academic environment.
(Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme, 2004)

Since the inception of HELM, almost 600 chairpersons of councils or their deputies and senior managers (vice-chancellors, deputy vice-chancellors, registrars and deans) have attended the various leadership and management programmes. The success rate of these programmes has been measured by high participation rates where opportunities for networking with peers, accessing and sharing information, and exposure to best practice in various management areas have been particularly valued (Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme, 2004).

6.6.3 In-house leadership training

Some institutions of higher learning have developed in-house leadership training in which internal experts on leadership are tasked to design the training programmes that are tailored to the needs of the particular institution. Other institutions solicit the assistance of leadership consultants to arrange workshops on leadership training with

the same aim of equipping leaders with the necessary skills, competencies or behaviours of leadership.

Mathews (1997: 69) contends that the trend these days is for staff development and training to be devolved to the line managers. The training and development department will, nevertheless, always have a role in creating the framework: handling the corporate administration, drawing up the standards for development, selecting consultants and providing some specialist training in-house, but, increasingly, staff development and training is best carried out by staff practitioners rather than by exclusive specialists. In order to achieve this, the training and development department will need to select and train a number of staff who, in turn, will offer their training and development services in-house, to their own departmental colleagues or to other departments.

The Central University of Technology, Free State is one such institution that has developed an in-house leadership training programme called the *Quality Leadership and Management Programme*.

In conclusion, HELM and in-house training should be used to supplement coaching. Coaching is aimed at developing specific transformational leadership behaviours, whilst HELM and in-house training are aimed at developing leadership and management capabilities specific to the HE environment. The two are not mutually exclusive but complement each other.

6.7 FUTURE RESEARCH

Whilst this research has endeavoured to examine the level of transformational leadership among leaders in the HE sector and their consequent ability to manage change, a number of questions still remain unanswered, and gaps in knowledge still exist in this area of leadership and change management. It is suggested that the following research be undertaken to address such unanswered questions and gaps in knowledge:

- Comparison of the transformational leadership ratings between men and women in the HE sector and their consequent ability to manage change.
- Comparison of the transformational leadership ratings between leaders in the different HE institutions and their consequent ability to manage change in their respective institutions.
- Comparison between the self-ratings by leaders and ratings of leaders by their followers and peers on transformational leadership.
- The correlation between transformational leadership and the ability to manage change.
- The testing of the results of this research by performing an empirical study in other sectors in the public domain and the business sector in general.

6.8 SUMMARY

This chapter provided the conclusion, limitations, recommendations, and suggestions for future research. The following is a concurrent summary of the chapter in particular and the research in general.

The literature survey on change models indicated that the contextualist model, among the five behaviour-oriented change models, is appropriate and adequate for addressing LSOC in the HE sector, as it takes into account the historical, contextual and processual nature of change.

The literature survey on transformational and transactional leadership indicated the following: Firstly, that Bass' theory on transformational and transactional leadership was appropriate and adequate for addressing the research problem, as it focuses on the transformational/transactional continuum within the Full Range of Leadership Model, and that the quantitative research instrument, the MLQ-6S, is rooted within this theory. Secondly, that the research by Bennis and Nanus on transformational leadership was

also appropriate and adequate for addressing the research question, as it provided the interview factors as well as a frame of reference for the hermeneutic interpretation of the interview data.

The research was found to be lacking in respect of the reduced, 21-item MLQ-6S, which might create a problem when it comes to generalising the findings to the entire population; the self-administration mode of the questionnaire which inevitably leads to subjectivity; the primary sampling units of the quantitative study which might also pose a problem of generalisation of the findings; the statistics used in processing quantitative data which was limited to descriptive statistics without using inferential statistics; and the 5-month interval between questionnaire administration and interviews, which might have affected the outcome of the interviews.

The findings of the empirical study were that, firstly, leaders in the HE sector exhibited transformational leadership and its behaviours *fairly often* and as such, they had a relatively high level of transformational leadership with the consequence that they could manage change fairly successfully; secondly, they exhibited transactional leadership and its behaviours *fairly often* and as such, they also had a relatively high level of transactional leadership with the consequence that they were leading by the exchange relationship they had with their followers. This is supportive of the transformational/transactional leadership continuum philosophy; thirdly, they exhibited laissez-faire leadership *once a while* and as such, they had a very low level of laissez-faire leadership with the consequence that they did not exhibit non-leadership.

The qualitative study, in its findings, provided a description of the transformational leaders' strengths and weaknesses, past events that most influenced their leadership approach, critical points in their careers, and characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader.

The findings generally indicate that the bleak picture that scholars and role players in the HE sector have painted about leadership in the sector is not as bleak as they claim, although some improvements in developing transformational leaders still have to be

made.

It is recommended that the HE institutions utilise the services of an accredited MLQ coach who will put in place OD intervention mechanisms to coach leaders in the transformational leadership behaviours lacking in their repertoire. The aim is to have leaders exhibit such behaviours frequently, if not always. The HELM and in-house training should be used to supplement coaching so as to develop leadership capabilities specific to the HE sector.



REFERENCES

Africa, H. (2000). Grappling with change: The case of Vista University. In N. Cloete, I. Bunting & T. Kulati (Eds.). *Leadership and institutional challenges in higher education*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

Atwater, D.C. & Bass, B.M. (1994). Transformational leadership in teams. In B.M. Bass & B.J. Avolio (Eds.). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Avolio, B.J. (1994). The alliance of total quality and the full range of leadership. In B.M. Bass & B.J. Avolio (Eds.). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Avolio, B.J. (1995). Leadership: Building vital forces into highly developed teams. *Human Resources Management*, 11(7): 10-15.

Avolio, B.J. (1999). *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces of organisations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Avolio, B.J. & Bass, B.M. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational & Organisational Psychology*, 72(4): 441-462.

Babbie, E. (1999). *The basics of social research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.



Balnaves, M. & Caputi, P. (2001). *Introduction to quantitative research methods: An investigative approach*. London: SAGE.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial application*. New York: The Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1994). Transformational leadership and team and organisational decision making. In B.M. Bass & B.J. Avolio (Eds.). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Bass, B.M. (1995). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share a vision. In R.M. Steers, L.W. Pater & G.A. Bigley (Eds.). *Motivation and leadership at work*. (6th Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill: 628-640.

Bass, B.M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1992). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 14(5): 21-27.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1994). Introduction. In B.M. Bass & B.J. Avolio (Eds.). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (2001). Shatter the glass ceiling: Women may make better managers. In K. Grint (Ed). *Leadership: Classical, contemporary, and critical approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bendix, S. (2001). *Industrial relations in South Africa*. Landowne: Juta

Bennis, W. (1989). *On becoming a leader*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Bennis, W. (1989). *Why leaders can't lead: The unconscious conspiracy continues*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper and Row.

Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1997). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York: New Harper and Row.

Black, T.R. (1994). *Evaluating social science research: An introduction*. London: SAGE.

Black, T.R. (1999). *Doing quantitative research in the social sciences: An integrated approach to research design, measurement and statistics*. London: SAGE.

Blaikie, N. (2001). *Designing research*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Brunyee, L.R. (2001). Managing in the rapidly changing context of higher education: A manager, as reflective practitioner, reflects on some experiences. In P. Higgs (Ed.). *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 15(2), 1.

Bryman, A. (2001). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burke, W.W. (1982). *Organisation development: Principles and practices*. Columbia University: HarperCollins Publishers.

Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Burns, R.B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods*. London: SAGE.

Cloete, N.; Bunting, I. & Kulati, T. (2000). Higher education and leadership challenges in 1999. In N. Cloete, I. Bunting & T. Kulati. (Eds.). *Leadership and institutional challenges in higher education*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

Coetsee, L.D. (2002). *Change management: Study guide for MPTP 813*. Potchefstroom: Telematic Learning Systems, PU for CHE.

Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R.N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organisations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Craig, R.C. (1996). *The ASTD training and development handbook*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Creswell, J.W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative & quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cummings, T.G. & Worley, C.G. (2001). *Organisational development and change*. Australia: South-Western College.



Davis, S.F. & Palladino, J.J. (1997). *Psychology*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.

Dawson, P. (1994). *Organisational change: A processual approach*. London: Paul Chapman.

Den Hartog, D.N.D. & Van Muijen, J.J. (1997). Transactional and transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 70(1): 19-34.

Denscombe, M. (2000). *The good research guide: For small-scale social research projects*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Department of Education. (1997). *Education White Paper 3: A programme for the transformation of higher education*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Education. (1997). *Higher Education Act, No 101 of 1997*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Education. (2001). *National Plan for Higher Education*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Education. (2002). *Transformation and restructuring: A new institutional landscape for higher education*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

De Vaus, D.A. (1994). *Surveys in social research*. London: University College of London.

Dreyer, C. (1994). *An introduction to research in language learning*. Potchefstroom: PU for CHE.

Engelbrecht, A.S. (2002). The effect of organisational leadership on value congruence and effectiveness: An integrated model. In S.M. Brink. (Ed.). *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 5(3): 589-608. Pretoria. University of Pretoria.

File, J. (2000). A comparative perspective on leadership and institutional change. In N. Cloete, I. Bunting & T. Kulati. (Eds.). *Leadership and institutional challenges in higher education*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

George, J.M. & Jones, G.R. (1999). *Understanding and managing organisational behaviour*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Golembiewski, R.T. (1998). Appreciating appreciative inquiry: Diagnosis and perspectives on how to do better. *Research in Organisational Change and Development*, 14(1): 1-45.

Goodstein, L.D. & Burke, W.W. (1993). Creating successful organisation change. In C. Mabey & B. Mayon-White (Eds.). *Managing change*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Gordon, J.R. (1996). *Organisational behaviour: A diagnostic approach*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall International.

Government Gazette No. 22138, Notice No. 230.

Griffin, R.W. (1996). *Management*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Groome, D.; Dewart, H.; Esgate, A.; Gurney, K.; Kemp, R. & Towell, N. (2001). *An introduction to cognitive psychology: Processes and disorders*. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Gultig, J. (2000). The university in post-apartheid South Africa: New ethos and new divisions. In P. Higgs (Ed.). *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 14(1): 37-52.

Handford, J.S. (1999). *Essential transformational leadership skills to mobilise people*. Potchefstroom: PU for CHE (Dissertation - MBA).

Hargrove, R. (1995). *Masterful coaching: Extraordinary results by impacting people and the way they think and work together*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hay, H.R.; Fourie, M. & Hay, J.F. (2001). Are institutional combinations, merger or amalgamation the answer? An investigation into staff perceptions. In S. Badat (Ed.). *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 15(1): 100-108.

Hersey, P.; Blanchard, K.H. & Johnson, D.E. (1996). *Management of organisational behaviour: Utilising human resources*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall International.

Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme. (2004). Available from: www.sauvca.org.za/keyprojects/ (Accessed 7 July 2004).

Hudson, F. (1999). *The handbook of coaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hughes, R.L.; Ginnet, R.C. & Curphy, G.L. (1999). Charisma and transformational leadership. *Leadership: Enhancing lessons from experiences*. Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hill: 285-326.

Jansen, J.D. (2001). Does the national plan effectively address the critical issues facing higher education? In J.D. Jansen (Ed.). *South Africa Journal of Higher Education*, 15(3): 5-9.

King, N. & Anderson, N. (2002). *Managing innovations and change: A critical guide for organisations*. Australia: Thomson.

King, P. & Eaton, J. (1999). Coaching for results. *Industrial and commercial training*, 31(4): 145-148.

Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (1998). *Organisational behaviour*. Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Lee, T.W. (1999). *Using qualitative methods in organisational research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Mathews, S. (1997). *Mentoring and coaching: The essential leadership skills*. London: FT Pitman.

McLagan, P. (2002). Change leadership today: Why we need to rethink change. In R. Havenga (Ed.). *Management Today*, 18(7): 28-31.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Mouton, J. (2001). *How to succeed in your masters and doctoral studies: A South African guide and resource book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. (2004). Available from: www.transformasia.com.au (Accessed 5 August 2004).

Nadison, N. (2000). Strategic programme and project leadership. In N. Cloete, I. Banting, & T. Kulati (Eds.). *Leadership and institutional challenges in higher education*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

Nanus, B. (1992). *Visionary leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Nanus, B. (1996). *Leading the way to organisation renewal*. Portland, OR: Productivity Press.

Nicholson, N. (1993). Organisational change. In C. Mabey & B. Mayon-White (Eds.). *Managing change*. London: Paul Chapman.

Norris, B.D. (2001). Transformation, diversity and organisational change within institutions of higher education. *South African Journal of Education*, 21(3): 219-222.

Northouse, P.G. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE .

Parsloe, E. (1995). *Coaching, mentoring and assessing: A practical guide to developing competence*: London: Kogan Page.

Paton, R.A. & McCalman, J. (2001). *Change management: A guide to effective implementation*. London: SAGE.

Pettigrew, A. (1987). Context and action in the transformation of a firm. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24(6): 649-670.

Pierce, J.L. & Newstrom, J.W. (2000). *Leaders and the leadership process*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Punch, K.F. (2003). *Survey research: The basics*. London: SAGE.

Reaves, C.C. (1992). *Quantitative research for the behavioural sciences*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Reddy, J. (2000). Regional consortia, partnerships, mergers and their implications for the transformation of the South African higher education system. In P. Higgs (Ed.). *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 14(1): 79-87.

Schein, E.H. (1988). *Process consultation: Its role in organisation development*. Vol. 1. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Shriberg, A.; Shriberg, D.L. & Lloyd, C. (2002). *Practicing leadership: Principles and applications*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Silverman, D. (1994). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction*. London: SAGE.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje, G.J. DeJ. (1997). *Management principles*. Kenwyn: Juta & Co.

Strickland, F. (1998). *The dynamics of change: Insights into organisational transition from the natural world*. London: Routledge.

Strydom, A.H. & Hay, H.R. (2001). Academic programme co-operation in South African higher education: Imperatives, challenges and threads. In J.D. Jansen (Ed.). *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 15(3): 82-91.

Swanepoel, B.; Erasmus, B.; Van Wyk, M. & Schenk, H. (2000). *South African human resources management: Theory and practice*. Kenwyn: Juta & Co.

Tejeda, M.J. (2001). The MLQ revisited: Psychometric properties and recommendation. *Leadership Quarterly*, 12(1): 31-52.

Tichy, N.M. & Devanna, M.A. (1986). *The transformational leaders: The key to global*

competitiveness. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Van Rensburg, C & Crous, F. (2000). Die verband tussen sekere persoonlikheidseienskappe en transformasionele leierskap. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 26(3): 39-46.

Van Rooyen, G. (2000). Strategising and managing in a crisis: Lessons from the public sector. In N. Cloete, I. Bunting & T. Kulati (Eds.). *Leadership and institutional change in higher education*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

Van Staaden, J.F.; Scheepers, J.M. & Rieger, H.S. (2000). Lokus van beheer en transformasionele leierskap. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 26(3): 8-14.

Van Tonder, H. (1998). *The effect of transformational leadership on organisational culture*. Johannesburg: RAU (Thesis - DCom).

Vithal, R. & Jansen, J. (1997). *Designing your first research proposal*. Kenwyn: Juta & Co.

Walsham, G. (1993). Management science and organizational change: A framework for analysis. In C. Mabey & B. Mayon-White (Eds.). *Managing change*. London: Paul Chapman.

Wengraf, T. (2001). *Qualitative research interviewing*. London: SAGE.

Whitelaw, P.A. (2001). Reliability and validity: The terrible twins of good research. Article reproduced from *the MLQ Network Newsletter "360 degree Feedback*, November 2001.

Wright, P.M & Noe, R.A. (1996). *Management of organizations*. Boston. McGraw-Hill.
Yammarino, F.J. (1994). Indirect leadership: Transforming leadership at a distance. In B.M. Bass & B.I. Avolio (Eds.). *Improving organisational effectiveness through*

transformational leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in organisations*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.



LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1



**A LETTER WRITTEN TO THE HUMAN RESOURCES
DIRECTORS OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS
REQUESTING THE PARTICULARS OF SENIOR LEADERS**



Vista University
P.O. Box 1881
Welkom
9460
Tel: 057-3964112
Fax: 057-3557829
Cell: 0822022582
E-mail: vnger-mj@weasel.vista.ac.za

25 January 2004

The Human Resources Director
Human Resources Department
University of North West
Private Bag X2046
Mmabatho
2735



Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR CONTACT PARTICULARS OF LEADERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH WEST

I am the Campus Registrar at the Welkom Campus of Vista University, now Central University of Technology, Free State. I am doing a Doctoral degree in Leadership in Performance and Change at RAU, student # 200370849. The aim of my research is to establish the *frequency* of exhibition of transformational leadership and its behaviours as well as to ascertain the *level* of transformational leadership among leaders in the higher education sector. The University of North West (Mmabatho Campus) is one of the institutions of higher learning I am using as sources of my data. I would appreciate it if you could send me a list of all leaders at the University of North West whose positions are any of the following (or those in any managerial position which I might not have indicated):

- Vice-Chancellor
- Deputy Vice-Chancellor
- Registrar
- Dean (Executive, etc.)
- Head/Chair of Department/School
- Director (Executive, Chief, Senior, etc.)
- Manager
- Campus Head

The contact particulars I need are the person's name, position, and e-mail address and/or postal address, fax no. and tel. no.

I need to electronically send the attached leadership questionnaire to them for them to complete and send back to me, preferably electronically as well.

Included with this letter is a cover letter for the completion of a questionnaire and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to be completed by leaders. I send you the cover letter and the questionnaire for you to see the kind of research I am involved with, not necessarily for you to complete now. Once I receive the particulars of leaders, I will dispatch this questionnaire to them for completion.

I will appreciate it if my request is acceded to.

Yours sincerely

Gift Vinger
ID: 6612145338089



[Empty rectangular box]

APPENDIX 2

THE MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE: FORM 6-S (MLQ-6S)

UNIVERSITY
OF
JOHANNESBURG

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE-FORM 6S (MLQ-6S)

INSTRUCTIONS: This questionnaire provides a description of your leadership style. Twenty-one descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word *others* may mean your followers, clients, or group members.

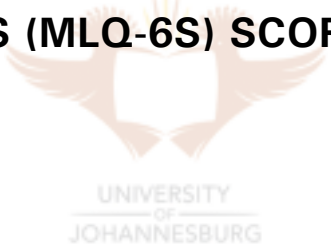
Key: 0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often
4 = Frequently, if not always

1.	I make others feel good to be around me.	0	1	2	3	4
2.	I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.	0	1	2	3	4
3.	I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.	0	1	2	3	4
4.	I help others develop themselves.	0	1	2	3	4
5.	I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.	0	1	2	3	4
6.	I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.	0	1	2	3	4
7.	I am content to let others continue working in the same way as always.	0	1	2	3	4
8.	Others have complete faith in me.	0	1	2	3	4
9.	I provide appealing images about what we can do.	0	1	2	3	4
10.	I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	0	1	2	3	4
11.	I let others know how I think they are doing.	0	1	2	3	4
12.	I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.	0	1	2	3	4
13.	As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.	0	1	2	3	4
14.	Whatever others want to do is OK with me.	0	1	2	3	4
15.	Others are proud to be associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
16.	I help others find meaning in their work.	0	1	2	3	4
17.	I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.	0	1	2	3	4
18.	I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.	0	1	2	3	4
19.	I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.	0	1	2	3	4
20.	I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.	0	1	2	3	4
21.	I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.	0	1	2	3	4

--

APPENDIX 3

THE MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE: FORM 6-S (MLQ-6S) SCORE SHEET

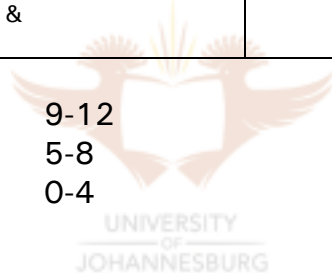


SCORE SHEET (MLQ-6S)

SUBJECT NAME.....

TOTAL	HIGH (9-12)	MODERATE (5-8)	LOW (0-4)
1. Idealised influence (items 1, 8 & 15)Factor 1			
2. Inspirational motivation (items 2, 9 & 16)Factor 2			
3. Intellectual stimulation (items 3, 10 & 17)Factor 3			
4. Individualised consideration (items 4, 11 & 18)Factor 4			
5. Contingent reward (items 5, 12 & 19)Factor 5			
6. Management-by-exception (items 6, 13 & 20)Factor 6			
7. Laissez-faire leadership (items 7, 14 & 21)Factor 7			

Score range: High = 9-12
 Moderate = 5-8
 Low = 0-4



APPENDIX 4



A COVER LETTER ACCOMPANYING THE QUESTIONNAIRE



Vista University (Central University of
Technology)
P.O. Box 1881
Welkom
9460
Tel: 057 - 3964112
Fax: 057 3557829
Cell: 0822022582
E-mail: vnger-mj@weasel.vista.ac.za

7 November 2003

The Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Advancement & marketing
Central University of technology, Free State
Private Bag X20539
Bloemfontein
9300



Dear Prof.

REQUEST TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Attached please find the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 6S (MLQ - 6S). This instrument is used to systematically measure the transformational leadership behaviours in organisations and it is the most validated leadership instrument in the world.

I am the Campus Registrar at the Welkom Campus of Vista University (now Central University of Technology: Free State). I am using this instrument to gather data for my Doctoral research in Leadership in Performance and Change in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at Rand Afrikaans University. The research is concerned specifically with establishing the *frequency* of exhibition of transformational leadership and its behaviours as well as ascertaining the *level* of transformational leadership among leaders in the higher education (HE) sector that would enable them to manage change successfully. This change is viewed within the context of the recent mergers and incorporations of institutions of higher learning. The value that the study would add would be that of solving the perceived problem of leadership in the HE sector.

I am particularly desirous of obtaining your responses because your experience as a leader will contribute significantly towards addressing the problem of leadership in the HE sector. The average time required for completing the questionnaire is 10 minutes.

The questionnaire and instructions as to how it is to be completed have been included with this letter in the hope you will agree to be a participant. It will be appreciated if you will complete the enclosed questionnaire on-line, prior to 15 November 2003, and e-mail back to me at the above written e-mail address. Following the completion of the research and the statistical analysis of the data, I will gladly send you a summary of the findings. Although all data will be dealt with confidentially, I need your biographical information for a follow-up interview should you fall within the range of those participants that would be identified for such an interview.

Hopefully, you will find time in your busy schedule to participate in this research. Thank you for your time and participation. I look forward to your early response.

Yours sincerely

Gift Vinger (researcher)

Prof. Frans Cilliers (promoter)



APPENDIX 5

**A DOCUMENT ON BIOGRAPHICAL AND BACKGROUND
INFORMATION ACCOMPANYING THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

UNIVERSITY
OF
JOHANNESBURG

PART 1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

TITLE :

INITIALS & SURNAME :

GENDER :

AGE :

RACE :

PART 2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

For which Higher Education Institution do you work?

1.	Vista University	1
2.	Rand Afrikaans University	2
3.	Potchefstroom University	3
4.	University of the Free State	4
5.	University of North West	5
6.	Technikon Free State	6
7.	Technikon Witwatersrand	7

What is your current position in the Institution?

1.	Vice-Chancellor	1
2.	Deputy Vice-Chancellor	2
3.	Registrar	3
4.	Dean	4
5.	Head of Department (HOD)	5
6.	Director (Executive, Chief, Senior, etc)	6
7.	Other (Specify)	7

How long have you been in this position?

1.	0-1 year	1
2.	2-5 years	2
3.	6-8 years	3
4.	9 and above	4

--

APPENDIX 6

**A LETTER WRITTEN TO THE LEADERS REQUESTING
THEM TO PARTICIPATE IN THE INTERVIEW**

UNIVERSITY
OF
JOHANNESBURG



Central University of
Technology, Free State

CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE
SENTRALE UNIVERSITEIT VIR TEGNOLOGIE, VRYSTAAT
YUNIVESITHI E BOHARENG YA THEKENOLOJI, FOREISTATATA

SUPPORT SERVICES DEPARTMENT

21 September 2004

The HOD: Drama & Theatre Arts
University of the Free State
P.O. Box 339
BLOEMFONTEIN
9300

Dear Prof.

RESEARCH INTERVIEW: REQUEST FOR AN APPOINTMENT

A few months ago I sent you a Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 6-S (MLQ-6S) for my Doctoral research in *Leadership in Performance and Change* which I am doing with RAU in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. Thank you once again for completing the questionnaire. Your participation in this research has contributed significantly towards my progress in the quantitative study of this research. I therefore need to do a qualitative study which will use an interview as a data gathering instrument.

The results of the quantitative study indicated that you are one of the participants who obtained high scores on transformational leadership. As a result, I would like to schedule an appointment with you for a follow-up interview. The purpose of the interview is to determine some common themes or strategies that leaders use in transforming their organisations as well as determining the characteristics of a good transformational leader.

The interview is a semi-structured interview as questions are predetermined. It will last for about 10 minutes and will consist primarily of the following five questions:

- *What are your transformational leadership strengths?*
- *What are your transformational leadership weaknesses?*
- *What past events most influenced your leadership approach?*
- *What were the critical points in your career?*
- *What are the characteristic behaviours and influences of a good transformational leader?*

The interview will be recorded for later transcription. It will preferably take place in your office. I would appreciate it if you could complete the appointment schedule below and either e-mail or fax back to me at mvinger@wlk.tfs.ac.za or (057) 3557829 (fax).

Interview week: Monday 11 – Friday 15 October (Please select any day during this week)

.....

DATE TIME UFS BUILDING & OFFICE NUMBER

I hope you find some time in your busy schedule to accommodate this interview.

I look forward to your speedy response.

Yours sincerely

.....
Gift Vinger
Campus Registrar
CUT, FS
Welkom
9460

Cell: 0822022582
Tel: (057) 396 4112

