

**Transformational leadership and its relationship with personality preferences
in South African organisations**

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- My husband Louis, for his support and knowledgeable guidance and our two darling daughters for their support and patience.

Soli deo gloria!

ABSTRACT

The general purpose of this study is to investigate and identify the relationship between transformational and leadership personality preferences. The aim of the study is therefore to establish an empirical link between transformational leadership and certain aspects of personality preferences in order to verify if these leaders can be distinguished from others by means of their personality preferences. The transformational leaders' ratings as identified by use of the Multifactor questionnaire are compared with personality preferences indicated on the scales of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator®.

Given the research literature an expectation exists that a statistically significant difference will be found between aspects of personality preferences of transformational and non-transformational leaders. Therefore transformational leaders will be identifiable from non-transformational leaders by their personality preferences.

The research group was a convenience sample that consisted of 66 leaders chosen from two organisations in the financial and entertainment industries at the level of team leader or in a supervisory capacity.

The statistical procedures utilised in the analysis of the data included analysis of frequencies, t-tests and cross tabulations.

Firstly, the transformational leaders in the selected organisations were identified successfully. As far as determining the personality preferences of the identified transformational leaders and establishing any possible links between the transformational leadership style and chosen personality preferences, the only significant difference was found between the introversion and extroversion preferences. A significant difference between introversion and extroversion in

terms of the Intellectual Stimulation rating on the MLQ was found as well as in terms of the Average and Inspirational Motivation ratings. No other statistically significant differences or interdependencies were found between the personality preferences as identified by the MBTI® and any of the ratings on the MLQ.

The third objective of determining whether personality preference can be utilised to predict transformational leadership is therefore answered. From the findings of this study it seems as if personality preferences cannot be utilised to predict transformational leadership in for instance a selection process in a company.

As this research group was highly selected and not representative of the general population, it is not possible to generalise the findings of this study. Although the research group was not representative, the findings of this study matched with those of other studies, and the deduction is therefore made that if this study was to be repeated, similar results would be found.

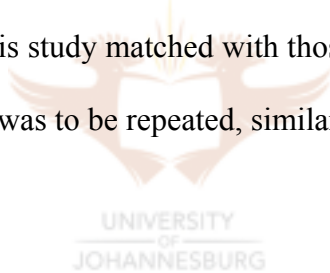


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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This short dissertation deals with transformational leadership and the relationship with personality preferences as investigated among leaders in organisations.

The research is seen as actual, as South African leaders have experienced ongoing and wide-ranging changes. New leadership challenges have emerged and transformational leaders are needed who can manage organisational transformational change effectively. Transformational leaders are mostly described in terms of their behavioural traits and actions (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992; Burns, 1978) but there is little consensus on the specific personality traits such as leaders embody (Van Rensburg & Crous, 2000:39).

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

South African organisations' ability to survive in the 21st century is directly related to their ability to constantly adapt to technological, political, economical and social environmental changes (Pretorius, 2001:5; Van Rensburg & Crous, 2000:39; Van Staden, Schepers & Rieger, 2000:8). The biggest challenge set to the organisation of tomorrow is to proactively identify the challenges and the forces that will impact on their success. Globalisation and international competitiveness compels companies to keep abreast of changes in the global environment and with their foreign business trade partners (Ayres, 2003:141).

For leaders to be effective in the organisation of the 21st Century, a proactive role in the strategic management of the organisation is required, as well as providing visionary leadership and having a shrewd understanding of the internal and external forces that are likely to create serious threats

or offer new opportunities (Coetzee, 2001:26). Chandler (2001:1) states that successful leaders do not only need a global mindset and skill, but together with this also an awareness of personal competencies and the lack thereof.

According to Pretorius (2001:5), transformational leadership is the way to business success as we are living in a new world with new approaches, new ideas and new people. The changes in the business environment and employee expectancies have led to a new found look at the relevancy of leadership theories. This period started in the eighties and led to the conceptualisation, research and development of transformational leadership (Van Staden, Schepers & Rieger, 2000:9). Avolio (1999:10) defines leadership as coming from who you are, what you do, and how it affects people's ability to achieve their full potential. Bennis (1994:143) wrote that leaders are innovators who should envision the desired state of the organisation and take the required action to enable the organisation to achieve that state.

Specifically transformational leadership can be described as leadership with actions that transform organisations (Johnson, 2002:243). In 1978 Burns conceptualised the construct of transformational leadership and differentiated between transactional and transformational leadership. According to Burns (1978:20), transformational leadership is the type of leadership that raises both leader and follower to higher levels of motivation and morality and that a leader is either transformational or transactional. Burns (1978:3) defines transactional leadership as "exchanging one thing for another" and that such transactions comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers. Bass (1985:11) elaborates by stating that the transactional leader exchanges rewards and promised of reward for their followers' efforts. On the other hand Bennis and Nanus (1985:17) defined transformational leadership as leadership that transforms intention into reality and then sustains it.

However research (Bass & Avolio, 1990:2.39; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000:113; Tremaine, 2000:247) indicates that transactional leadership principles need to be applied and then transformational leadership principles need to be adopted in order for a leader to be successful in the current business environment. Bass and Avolio (1990:2.39) state that the highly effective transformational leader also makes use of some transactional leadership behaviour. Avolio (1999:36) explains transactional leadership as "walking-before-we-sprint", as leaders have to make sure that their expectations and target outcomes are clearly understood. Should a leader honour all their various transactions with people, over time they will come to trust the leader and it is higher levels of trust versus compliance that transformational leadership uses as its base for achieving exemplary performance (Avolio, 1999:37). Tremaine (2000:247) concurs with this point of view stating that there is nothing necessarily reprehensible about transactional leadership, but it is limited and limiting, because there is not always a suitable reward available or within the leader's power to give, nor a suitable punishment to impose.

Research in organisational behaviour has found that transformational leadership can engender improved employee outcomes in many types of organisations (Dubinsky, Yammarino & Jolson, 1995: 315). Burns (1978:4) explains that the transformational leader is one who looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher order needs and engages the full person of the follower. Transformational leaders behave in ways to achieve superior results by employing one or more of the four factors of transformational leadership as set out by Bass and Avolio (1994:3). Hinkin and Tracey (1999:107-110) also provide further descriptions of the components of transformational leadership.

The *four I's* of transformational leadership:

- *Idealised influence* is where transformational leaders are role models for their followers generating admiration, instilling pride, respect and trust. The leader provides vision and a sense of mission, increases optimism, excites and inspires followers. This factor is divided into idealised attributes (attributed to charisma) and idealised behaviours.
- *Inspirational motivation* entails the transformational leader motivating and challenging their followers' work, communicating a vision and by focusing on team spirit. This factor is a measure of the leader's ability to engender confidence in the leader's vision and values.
- *Intellectual stimulation* is where the leader stimulates their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways, thereby encouraging creativity. Followers are provided with interesting and challenging tasks and encouraged to solve problems in their own way, while reassessing their old values and beliefs.
- Finally in the *individualised consideration* factor, attention is given to the individual employee and their needs rather than treating all followers alike and as having the same needs. The leader coaches and mentors, provides continuous feedback and links organisational members' needs to the organisation's mission. This factor is a measure of the extent to which the leader cares about the individual follower's concerns and developmental needs.

The construct of personality preferences will be discussed next. The meaning will be defined and scrutinised as well as attention given to the link with the MBTI®.

Personality preferences are defined as reflections of habitual choices between the rival alternatives in the ways information is being received and decisions are made (Myers, McCaulley, Quenck and Hammer (1998:23). The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI®) is often utilised to conceptualise personality preferences rather than traits. Type theories involve the sorting of data into categories, it is not normally distributed, behaviour is an expression of type, and scores show confidence in the sorting procedures rather than showing the amount of the trait possessed (Quenck, 1993:12). The stated purpose of the MBTI® is to make the theory of psychological types as described by C.G. Jung (1875-1961) "understandable and useful" in the lives of people (Van Rooyen, De Beer & Proctor, 2001:7). The MBTI® limits its focus specifically to identify Jungian preferences (attitudes and functions) and does not concern itself directly with variables such as ego-strength, anxiety or psychopathology (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:30). In essence it is an indicator of preferences and it is a way to sort; not to measure - using discrete data to sort preferred behaviour into sixteen types. The insight gained can assist in personal development, dealing with and improving on interpersonal issues like decision-making, conflict handling, communication and team functioning (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:7). Bass (1990:871) reports that the MBTI® results are sorted into different categories and then this mechanically obtained information can be utilised in order to make judgements about the potential or performance of leaders. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:7) furthermore states that the MBTI® can be of particular value when dealing with change and diversity as is found in the South African context.

Personality preferences refer to the way people prefer to relate to each other (either Extraversion or Introversion), the way people prefer to attend to and gather data (either Sensing or Intuition) and the way they prefer to process data and make decisions (either Thinking or Feeling). Furthermore also the way they prefer to organise themselves (either Judgement or Perception)

(Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:43). A short description will follow as explanation of each of the two attitudes and four functions.

TABLE 1.1: THE ATTITUDES AND FUNCTIONS OF PERSONALITY PREFERENCES

Attitudes:

<p><i>Extraversion</i></p> <p>Awareness and reliance on the environment for stimulation and guidance, action-orientated, sometimes impulsive, ease of communication, frankness, sociability.</p>	<p><i>Introversion</i></p> <p>Interest in the clarity of concepts and ideas, reliance on enduring concepts, thoughtful, contemplative detachment, enjoyment of solitude and privacy.</p>
<p><i>Judgement</i></p> <p>Concerned with making decisions, seeking closure, planning operations or organising activities. Seek systems and closure, bringing issues to order and to a resolution</p>	<p><i>Perception</i></p> <p>Is attuned to incoming information, spontaneous and adaptable, open to new events and changes, curious about what is happening around them</p>

Functions:

<p><i>Sensing</i></p> <p>Establishes what exists and reflects a preference to focus on immediate experiences, on facts, details and practicalities, without referring back to rational formulations</p>	<p><i>Intuition</i></p> <p>A preference to perceive possibilities, means and relationships by way of insight, it allows perception beyond what is visible, tends to focus on the future, the abstract and the potential</p>
<p><i>Thinking</i></p> <p>Links ideas, insights and details together by making logical connections. Relies on principles of cause and effect and experienced as impersonal, analytical with a concern for justice and fairness</p>	<p><i>Feeling</i></p> <p>Imparts a definitive value in the sense of acceptance or rejection, human needs and values are important aspects of deciding and reflects human concern, warmth and preserves values</p>

Source: Adapted from Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:45-52).

Myers, McCaulley, Quenck and Hammer (1998:38) recommend that research should not only focus on personality preferences, but that the effect of interactions between these preferences should be studied. For the purposes of this research it was decided to include a study on the effect of preference interactions from the framework of temperament. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:49) refer to the work of Keirsey, a modern Psychologist, who noted that human behaviour

tends to sort itself into four basic temperaments. Temperament determines behaviour and has recurring themes and core values. Keirsey also proposed that the concept of four temperaments could be reflected in the sixteen MBTI® Types. Themes and dimensions of the four temperaments are characterised by unique sets of wants, abilities, motivators, interactional patterns of behaviour and potential (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:49). The four temperaments are furthermore defined in Table 1.2 as:

TABLE 1.2: THE FOUR TEMPERAMENTS OF BEHAVIOUR

<p><i>The Idealist</i></p> <p>(Intuitive-Feeling temperament): They have a need for growth, meaning and significance, to guide others, creating a better world, self-realisation, playing a catalytic role and "becoming" is most important to them</p>	<p><i>The Rational</i></p> <p>(Intuition-Thinking temperament): They have a need to know more, they are focused on competence and knowledge, having power over nature, they are seen as intellectual, visionary and "knowing" is most important to them</p>
<p><i>The Guardian</i></p> <p>(Sensing-Judging temperament): These individuals have a need to belong, to obtain membership, are responsible, can be held accountable, are duty conscious, traditionalists and "serving" is most important to them</p>	<p><i>The Artisan</i></p> <p>(Sensing-Perception temperament): They want spontaneity, freedom to choose the next act, excitement, action, but are graceful, negotiators and "doing" is most important to them</p>

Source: Adapted from Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:50).

One of the most important outcomes of the transformational leadership style is an increase in motivation of subordinates/followers (Kane & Tremble, 2000:148). Basson, Rothmann, Steyn and Rothmann (2001:27) in a study conducted with pharmacy students and lecturers, at a South African university found that differences in temperaments may contribute to misunderstandings and result in poor motivation. Therefore one of the assumptions of this research that needs to be tested, is that once transformational leaders have insight into their own and their followers' temperaments, they will increase their own and their organisations' effectiveness.

Based on the above-mentioned discussion it is concluded that research on the relationship between transformational leadership and personality preferences would be beneficial for South

African organisations. The research results could be used to identify and develop transformational leaders who are able to manage and drive organisational transformation, for example in the merger between RAU and Wits Technikon. Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly and Marks (2000:155) state that leadership is studied for the purposes of improved training, identifying alternative selection and assessment procedures for assessing leaders' strengths and weaknesses and increasing understanding of how executive decisions shape the behaviour of organisations as a whole.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The general purpose of this study is to investigate and identify the relationship between transformational leadership and personality preferences. The aim of the study is therefore to establish an empirical link between transformational leadership and certain aspects of personality preferences in order to verify if these leaders can be distinguished from others by means of personality preference.

Given the research literature an expectation exists that a statistically significant difference will be found between aspects of personality preferences of transformational and non-transformational leaders. Therefore transformational leaders will be identifiable from non-transformational leaders by their personality preferences. The hypotheses is specifically put non-directional, as this explorative study's purpose is to, against the background of extensive descriptions of transformational behaviour, identify those personality preferences that distinguish transformational from non-transformational leaders.

Specific objectives in gaining theoretical knowledge are:

- To determine how the leadership styles of transformational and non-transformational leaders are conceptualised in literature.

- To determine how personality preferences are conceptualised in literature.

Specific empirical objectives that follow from the theoretical knowledge are:

- To identify transformational leaders in the selected South African organisations.
- To determine the personality preferences of the identified transformational leaders and establish any possible links between the transformational leadership style and chosen personality preferences.
- To determine whether personality preference can therefore be utilised to predict transformational leadership.

1.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology followed to fulfil the objectives of this study incorporates the following aspects: a literature study (to gain theoretical knowledge), an empirical study (to obtain experiential knowledge) and an integration of the literature and empirical results to obtain an enriched view of the research subject. A brief outline of each of these aspects follows:

1.3.1 Literature study

To become familiar with the context of the research problem, a literature study on what constitutes transformational leadership and personality preferences will be performed.

In the literature study attention will be given to:

- A description of transformational leadership.
- A description of personality preferences.
- An analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the theories that underpin it.

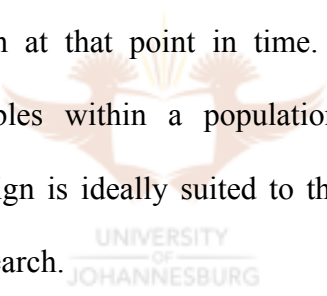
- An analysis of the Myers-Briggs Indicator® and the theories that underpin it.
- Conceptualisation of the relationship between personality preference and transformational leadership.

1.3.2 Empirical study

The following aspects regarding the empirical study is highlighted:

1.3.2.1 Research design

A survey study is utilised to test the research hypotheses by means of two standardised questionnaires. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby a sample is drawn from a population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997:34). Information collected is used to describe the population at that point in time. This design can be used to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:37), this design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational research.

The logo of the University of Johannesburg is centered in the background of the text. It features a stylized sun with rays at the top, two hands holding a book in the middle, and the text 'UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG' below.

1.3.2.2 Sample

The researcher made use of convenience sampling where willing respondents were chosen within certain clusters as formed within the approached organisations. By making use of this method, some loss in sampling accuracy may occur, but there is a considerable saving in time and money (Huysamen, 1994:45). The researcher elected to make use of this method due to practical constraints and the agreeableness of certain organisations.

Various organisations were approached for this research and two organisations in the entertainment and financial industries agreed to take part in the study. In total 66 respondents completed and returned the two questionnaires.

For the purposes of this survey a leader will be defined as a person in a managerial position of Team Leader and at a supervisory level.

1.3.2.3 Measuring instruments

The following measuring instruments are utilised for the purpose of this study. The researcher obtained permission from both South African test distributors for utilising their tests. A special four-day workshop was attended and accreditation for the MBTI® was obtained.

- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ of Bass and Avolio (1995) was developed because there was no reliable nor valid method for differentiating between non-transactional (non-leaders), transactional and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990: 4.10). This questionnaire will be made use of to measure the different leadership styles of the participants, as they themselves perceive their style. The questionnaire measures the extent to which leaders exhibit transformational leadership behaviour with a five-point scale that range from 0 (not at all), 1 (once in a while), 2 (sometimes), 3 (fairly often) and 4 (frequently if not always) (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The leadership constructs were determined factor analytical (Bass, 1985:207) and the questionnaire is statistically reliable and valid and has been normed and validated in many different settings, as well as cultures. The items are consistently or reliably related to the factors/scales (Bass & Avolio, 1990:4.11). The Spearman-Brown formula delivers alpha coefficients for the MLQ scales that ranges from 0.81 to 0.96, while the test-retesting reliabilities range from 0.44 to 0.74 (Bass & Avolio, 1997:41).

- The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI®)

The MBTI® will be utilised to measure the leaders' personality preferences. Form G of the MBTI® consists of 126 items measuring the four bipolar personality dimensions. The internal

consistencies of the MBTI® sub-scales vary between 0.84 and 0.86 (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:83). The writers furthermore report that few or no differences in internal consistency reliabilities across age, gender and ethnic groups in the USA were found. Furthermore the test-retest reliabilities of the MBTI® continuous scores are satisfactory and vary between 0.59 and 0.63 after a nine month interval (Myers *et al.*, 1998:71). Several large international samples, using exploratory techniques, supported the postulated factor structure of the MBTI® (Rytting & Ware, 1993).

The data gathering process was performed by means of the respondents in the identified companies being assisted by a qualified professional, to complete the standardised questionnaires.

1.3.2.4 Statistical analysis

- Statistical analysis is performed by making use of the services of Statkon at RAU.
- Correlations are drawn between the MBTI and MLQ data and findings with special attention to:
 - Personality preferences, whole type (the combinations of the basic preferences)
 - Pairings of temperaments as well as key pairings as indicated by the MBTI manual
- Statistically significant correlations will be those at a level $> 0,9$.

Inferential statistics are used to interpret available data and to determine relevant characteristics thereof. It often involves comparing results from different data sources to test hypotheses and to determine the correlation between characteristics. Correlations are reflected on a scattergraph indicating the nature of relationship or correlation between variables (correlation coefficient or r). The closer a decimal between 0 (no correlation) and 1 (perfect correlation) is the more or less

stronger the relationship between two variables can be expected to be. Correlations indicate how different variables tend to move in relationship to each other (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:61).

1.4 RESTRICTIONS TO WHICH THE STUDY IS SUBJECTED

Both the measuring instruments are in a self-report format, which could pose to be problematic in so far as the accuracy of the self-reports. The questions have however been carefully constructed to elicit true self-reports even although the respondents do not have any knowledge of the ideas underlying the questions (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001: 6).

The use of convenience sampling may have a negative influence on the study, but this was discussed with the Research Representative of Jopie van Rooyen & Partners, Mr Jan van Rooyen.

The sample size is an area of concern, as it is usually difficult to obtain commitment from participants who are usually extremely busy with their managerial tasks. However senior management buy-in was sought and meetings took place to ensure the necessary commitment. Feedback will be provided to the participating organisations and individuals on a consulting basis.

CHAPTER 2.0. DIVISION OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 has served as introduction, sketching the problem and setting the scene for the rest of the study. The rest of the study will consist of five more chapters where attention will first be given to a theoretical framework for the research whereafter the empirical research with its results is scrutinised. The dissertation is ended with conclusions and recommendations being made for future research. Below a more detailed outlay follows:

Chapter 2: A theoretical overview and a discussion of the background of transformational leadership will be provided.

- Chapter 3: A theoretical overview and a discussion on psychological type and personality preferences will be provided.
- Chapter 4: Empirical Research - This chapter will focus on the design and methodology of the empirical study. A discussion of the analysis tools, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the MBTI® will be included.
- Chapter 5: Results of the empirical study - In this chapter the results of the empirical study will be discussed in relation to the literature study. This will help in gaining an enriched view of the personality preferences related to transformational leadership with the possible lending application of screening and selection processes.
- Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations - This chapter will focus on the implications of the results gained through the integration of the empirical and literature studies.



CHAPTER 2

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1 it was discussed that for leaders to be effective in the 21st century organisation, a proactive role in the strategic management of the organisation, providing visionary leadership and having an understanding of the internal and external forces creating threats or offering new opportunities, is required.

The answer to the leadership required in the 21st century organisation is probably locked up in the concept transformational leadership. This concept is perceived to be the way to business success, as we are living in a new world with new approaches, new ideas and new people with new requirements. Walck (1997:83, 84) explains that the demand for transformational leaders can be viewed as a response to a world that is increasingly complex, rapidly changing and the extent of the global scope of business. In the days of stable environments and financial prosperity, organisations were thought to need managers who steadfastly guided the organisation - referred to as transactional leaders. However in today's rapidly changing and complex environment, organisations are thought to need leaders who can respond to change by developing new visions and renewing their organisations - transformational leaders. Top management, and increasingly top teams' tasks are to envision creative strategies that integrate complexity and build teams to enact those strategies.

In this chapter a deliberate attempt will be made to provide clarity emanating from the literature study regarding the concepts of leadership and transformational leadership. Thereafter the characteristics of transformational leaders and the model of transformational leadership will be

discussed. Lastly attention will be given to some conceptual weaknesses in the transformational leadership theory.

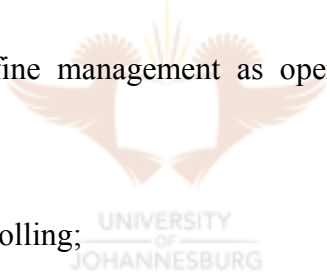
2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION

A discussion of the concepts leadership and transformational leadership will follow next.

2.2.1 Leadership

Van Fleet (1991:157) as well as Dubrin and Ireland (1993:270) contend that the concept of leadership is often confused with the concept of management. According to Boehnke, Bontis, DiStefano and DiStefano (2003:5) a distinction is required to emphasise the unique characteristics of each.

Bass and Avolio (1990:iii) define management as operational in nature with the following characteristics:

- 
- Planning, directing and controlling;
 - Providing predictability and order to meet the current requirements for products and services; and
 - Organising and structuring its facilities to properly carry out its plans.

Other researchers stand in agreement stating that management entails:

- Getting things done by others through the traditional activities of planning, organising, monitoring, controlling, as well as procedures and regulations without paying much attention to the people component (Chandler, 2001:18; Nicholls, 1987:21);
- Handling the complexity of organisations that requires order and consistency (Dubrin & Ireland, 1993:269; Nicholls, 1994:9; Stott & Walker, 1994:19); and

- Doing things right by focusing on control mechanisms and the "how-to" (Warren Bennis in Dess, Picken & Lyon, 1998:722).

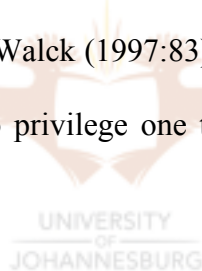
On the other hand according to researchers leadership can be defined as:

- The reciprocal process of mobilising, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political and other resources in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realise goals (Burns, 1978:425);
- Promoting change to meet the rapid advances in new markets and technology (Bass & Avolio, 1990:iii);
- Envisioning new directions and motivating others to move in these new directions (Bass & Avolio, 1990:iii; Pawar & Eastman, 1997:82);
- Inspiring commitment, loyalty and involvement to accomplish a mission articulated by the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1990:iii; Nicholls, 1994:12; Popper & Zakkai, 1994:3);
- Altering moods, evoking images and expectations and in establishing specific desires and objectives in the organisation (Zaleznik, 1977:71);
- Being vitally concerned with what people are thinking and feeling and how they are to be linked to the environment, to the entity and to the workplace (Nicholls, 1987:21);
- People who are genuinely committed to deep change in themselves and in their organisations (Senge, 1996:36);
- Attempting to deal with change in a competitive, fast changing world (Dubrin & Ireland, 1993:269; Nicholls, 1994:9; Stott & Walker, 1994:19);
- Asking the "what" and "why" questions (Johnson, 2002:243; Lawn, 2001:8);
- Focusing on empowerment rather than control and thereby not unduly taking responsibility away from people (Johnson, 2002:243; Lawn, 2001:8);

- Doing the right things, focusing on the future, dreams, missions, visions, strategic intent and purpose (Warren Bennis in Dess *et al.*, 1998:722); and
- A process and not a position involving relationships between leaders and their followers and furthermore risk taking, creativity, change and vision (Chandler, 2001:18).

It is also important to note that for leaders to be effective, they need to be able to manage themselves, to increase the effectiveness and productivity of the people in their organisations, to manage complex business relationships and to be able to shape an organisation so that it is geared to meet the demands of the future business world (Avolio & Berson, 2000:7; Ayers, 2003:53).

Bennis and Nanus (1997:2) reiterate the need for leadership stating that the pervasive incapacity of organisations to cope with the expectations of their constituents has brought about a chronic crisis for governance. According to Walck (1997:83), contemporary leadership studies and post-modern management theory seem to privilege one type of leadership for this leadership need, namely transformational leadership.



From the above it is evident that management is related to functions of organising, planning, directing and controlling. Management is applicable in a predictable, hierarchical environment where little emphasis is placed on the people functions and preferential attention is given to aspects such as procedures, monitoring and regulations.

From the foregoing selective descriptions of leadership it is clear that leadership on the contrary consists of a wide variety of elements and competencies and to purely list these competencies may not be satisfactory. However for the purpose of this study leadership, within context of transformational leadership, is defined as a process of envisioning new directions, inspiring commitment, loyalty and involvement to accomplish the organisation's mission in a fast-changing and competitive environment. Leadership focuses on the influential empowerment of employees,

which involves satisfactory relationships between leaders and their followers.

When considering the discussion under 2.2.2 below, it will become clear that the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership have also been utilised by Bass and Avolio (1990) to distinguish between management and leadership.

2.2.2 Transformational Leadership

Various writers (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001:2; House & Aditya, 1997:439; Paul, Costly, Howell & Dorfman, 2002:193; Walck, 1997:78) explain that a major paradigm shift in leadership occurred from the mid 1970's to the early 1980's, resulting in the establishment of the new leadership perspectives where charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, visionary leadership and value-based leadership are highly rated. These new leadership theories seem to have developed from Burns' (1978) study of political icons (McAreevey, Alimo-Metcalfe & Connelly, 2001:447). He defined transformational leadership as occurring when one or more persons engage in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. In other words, leaders and followers as well as the social system in which they function are transformed (Burns, 1978:20).

To be able to obtain an in depth understanding of transformational leadership it should be noted that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership. Therefore transactional leadership will first be elaborated on.

The transactional leadership perspective involves most of the perspectives where leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements (Gaughan, 2001:69; King, 1994:7; Walck, 1997:78). According to Boehnke *et al.* (2003:6), Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman (1997:20) and Steyn (1998:101), transactional

leadership is based on an exchange of services for various kinds of rewards such as for example salary and recognition. Consequently, leaders enter into a bargaining relationship with their followers. Grundstein-Adamo (1999:149) describes it as a kind of stimulus-response model of behaviour control and modification. Dess *et al.* (1998:723, 724) explain that the term transactional leadership derives from the behaviours that characterise the relationship between manager and employee - they initialise and organise work and penalise those who do not. Under these circumstances competent leadership is characterised by the successful transaction between manager and managed, however the writers warn that such transactional leadership can only lead to mediocrity.

Burns (1978:425, 426) defined transactional leadership as a bargaining process to aid the individual interests of persons or groups going their separate ways. In contrast the premise of transformational leadership is that whatever the separate interests persons might hold, they are presently or potentially united in the pursuit of "higher" goals, the realisation of which is tested by the achievement of significant change that represents the collective or pooled interests of leaders and followers. Johnson (2002:243) quotes the work of Tichy and Devanna (1986) as being the most detailed view of transformational leadership. Their definition of transformational leadership being leaders who revitalise organisations by recognising the need for change, creating the vision for change and enlisting the organisation in the change process.

Curphy (1992:177) as well as Judge and Bono (2000:751) explain that although a number of different charismatic leadership theories have been offered, none is as comprehensive or as thoroughly researched as Bass' (1985) theory of transformational and transactional leadership. Pawar and Eastman (1997:80) write that in response to the attention given to transformational leadership, researchers have addressed various issues associated with the emergence and implications of transformational leadership. The main focus has been on the processes of

organisational and individual transformation, specifically on the behavioural aspects and their effects on subordinates and organisations. Burns (1978:20) referred to the concept of transforming followers into leaders; thereby creating a sense of shared responsibility within the work group.

Bass (1985:20) maintained that transformational and transactional behaviours comprise two conceptually independent dimensions of leadership. However Bass (1997:130) and Bass and Avolio (1990b:22) subsequently postulated that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership, broadening the effects of the leader on effort and performance. Bass (1998:4) explains that leadership should furthermore address the follower's sense of self worth in order to engage the follower in true commitment and involvement. In other words this is what transformational leadership adds to the transactional exchange. Furthermore Van Eron and Burke (1992:151) as well as Walck (1997:78) state that whereas transactional leadership behaviour is most likely to be congruent with a stable environment and mechanistic structure, transformational leadership is more likely to be effective in a turbulent environment with an organismic structure.

Therefore considering the above transformational leadership paradigms it follows to note that transformational leadership has several characteristics. Firstly, it attempts to explain how leaders are able to improve organisations so that they achieve outstanding accomplishments. This includes the founding or growth of successful entrepreneurial firms and corporate turnarounds in the face of overwhelming competition (Boehnke *et al.*, 2003:11; Pounder, 2001:282). Secondly, there are those who maintain (Boehnke *et al.*, 2003:7; House & Aditya, 1997:439; Paul *et al.*, 2002:198; Pounder, 2001:283; Steyn, 1998:101) that the transformational leadership perspective attempts to explain how certain individuals are able to achieve extraordinary levels of follower motivation, admiration, respect, trust, commitment, dedication, loyalty and performance. Thirdly, Cacioppe (1997:336), Kent, Crofts and Azziz (2001:223), Pounder (2001:284) as well as

Russell and Stone (2002:146,147) report that this perspective stresses symbolic and emotionally appealing leadership behaviour and characteristics. Transformational leadership behaviour displays exceptional features such as being visionary, empowering, emotionally intelligent, self-confident, being able to engage in open communication, being prepared to take risks, having integrity, and practising role modelling and image building.

Researchers (Bass & Avolio, 1990b:21; Howell & Avolio, 1993:891; Walck 1997:78) postulate that transformational leadership consists of those behaviours that are typically associated with charismatic leaders such as having a vision of the future and causing subordinates to rethink the way in which they see the world. These behaviours are believed to result in heightened emotions, which in turn inspire followers to exert extra effort toward goal accomplishment. On the other hand, transactional leadership primarily consists of the administration of rewards and punishments contingents upon subordinates' performance. Transformational leaders furthermore create a new organisation in place of the old, while transactional leaders are caretakers of the *status quo* (Dess *et al.*, 1998:723).

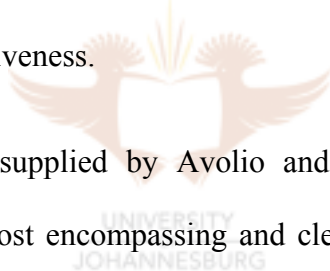
Transformational leadership emphasises the supportive role of leaders and their cognitively orientated behaviour such as adapting, conceptualising, showing versatility and providing intellectual stimulation. Manning and Robertson (2002:138) identify the leader effects as promoting follower self-esteem, while increasing motivation and commitment. Followers identify with the leader's vision, and values, resulting in collective as well as individual satisfaction and performance. These perspectives suggest that, in order for leaders to be effective, they need to understand and adapt to the needs and priorities of their followers (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001:2; Gaughan, 2001:69; Krishnan, 2001:126; Paul *et al.*, 2002:194; Van Velsor & Fleenor, 1997:138). According to Dess *et al.* (1998:724), the success of

the transformational leader can be measured in terms of employee commitment to the leader's vision for the future as opposed to commitment to the *status quo*.

Bettin, Macaulay and Murphy (1992:92) found that there is significant commonality associated between transformational and effective leadership that transcends cultural boundaries. It appears that the most effective leaders have developed an overarching philosophy of transformational leadership, while emphasising the importance of task performance and attending to the general group atmosphere and the interpersonal relationships between team members. This leads to followers transcending self-interests and committing themselves to excellence (Donohue & Wong, 1994:24). The way in which leaders behave, the priorities they establish for themselves as well as the work group, the activities and relationships they engage in with other team members are the most important factors in determining leadership effectiveness (Bettin *et al.*, 1992:93).

Transformational leadership therefore refers to a class of theories that describe effective leaders as those able to inspire their followers to perform at higher levels than they would under normal circumstances (Bettin *et al.*, 1992:83; Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997:20). Various researchers (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001:14; Boehnke *et al.*, 2003:6; Cacioppe, 1997:335; House & Aditya, 1997:440; Krishnan, 2001:127; Ristow, Amos & Staude, 1999:1; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002:199) agree that transformational leadership results in a high level of follower motivation and commitment and above-average organisational performance, especially under conditions of crisis or uncertainty. Walck (1997:83) maintains that transformational leaders furthermore influence their followers to transcend their own self-interests for the benefit of the group. The ability of these leaders to communicate goals and values to the group increases the motivation and commitment to the group.

Pawar and Eastman (1997:83, 84) argue that transformational leaders create a dynamic organisational vision that often necessitates a metamorphosis in cultural values to reflect greater innovation. To achieve the vision, leaders attempt to secure greater effort and commitment from employees by bonding individual and collective interests. They continue to point out that they perceive the scope of transformational leadership to include leadership that spells out a vision that is in the interest of the followers and gets followers to accept it by raising them to a higher level in their need hierarchy (Kane & Tremble, 2000:137). Hereby a positive transformation of both the organisation and the organisational members occurs, moving away from dysfunctional phenomena such as "groupthink" often arising from charismatic leadership. Khurana (2002:68) warns against the dangers of a widespread belief in the powers of, for example, charismatic leadership, at the expense of other leadership characteristics such as strategic thinking, industry knowledge and political persuasiveness.



To summarise, the definition supplied by Avolio and Bass (1990:4.3) of transformational leadership is accepted as the most encompassing and clear description of this leadership style. Therefore building on their explanation the following definition is suggested for the purposes of this study:

Transformational leadership is a process in which the leader takes action to ensure organisational and individual transformation by raising the followers' and colleagues' motivational maturity and to move them to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group, the organisation or society. Such leaders provide their followers with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided while becoming aware of what is morally right.

A discussion of particular characteristics of transformational leaders will follow in order to clarify and come to a better understanding regarding transformational leadership as a concept.

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS

According to Burns (1978:10), a transformational leader has specific personality traits that leads to the effective management of change. As discussed in paragraph 2.2.1 (p. 16), researchers are of the opinion that transformational leaders have special interpersonal relationship abilities that becomes evident through the positive influence of the leaders' behaviour on the followers' work performance and satisfaction. To create a further understanding of the functioning of transformational leaders, the following characteristics were identified during the literature study.

Transformational leaders:

- Arouse and satisfy higher level needs while engaging the full person of the follower (Bass, 1990:19);
- Influence others through emotional appeals and increasing followers' devotions to duty (Bettin, Macaulay, Murphy, 1992:83; Kane & Tremble, 2000:138; Trofino, 2000:238);
- Do not only respond to change positively, but also actively create change (Bass & Avolio, 1990b:21), which ties in with research findings of "openness to experience" being significantly correlated with transformational leadership (Judge & Bono, 2000:761);
- Are competent; understanding; assertive; determined; industrious; dedicated; caring; decisive; trustworthy; responsible; flexible; persuasive; goal-orientated; disciplined; cooperative; open-minded; believable; informed; fair; concerned and loyal (Bass & Avolio, 1990a:1.4);
- Develop and communicate both a vision and a plan in unambiguous ways (Cacioppe, 1997:336; Dess *et al.*, 1998:724; Donohue & Wong, 1994:27,28; Johnson, 2002:243; Harvard Business Review, 2001:62; Sarros & Santoro, 2001:387; Tremaine, 2000:247; Trofino, 2000:238);

- Communicate high expectations and confidence in the followers (Donohue & Wong, 1994:27,28) and align people and systems so there is integrity throughout the organisation towards the vision (Cacioppe, 1997:336);
- Support uncensored communication with employees, even during the uncertain times (Trofino, 2000:238);
- Show individualised concern toward followers (Donohue & Wong, 1994:27,28);
- Show self-sacrifice in achieving the vision (Donohue & Wong, 1994:27,28);
- Move quickly and decisively (Dess *et al.*, 1998:724; Harvard Business Review, 2001:62);
- Create a sense of urgency (Dess *et al.*, 1998:724);
- Set stretch goals and empower others to act (Dess *et al.*, 1998:724);
- Consolidate the gains by institutionalising change (Dess *et al.*, 1998:724);
- Have a need for power but not necessarily for achievement (Krishnan, 2001:127, 130) but Van Rensburg and Crous (2000:44) however found that transformational leaders in the South African context were positively related to achievement;
- Are self-confident, display pragmatism and nurturance, but are not critical nor aggressive (Krishnan, 2001:127, 130; Trofino, 2000:238);
- Are highly verbal (Bass & Avolio, 1990a:1.4) or extraverted (Judge & Bono, 2000:761);
- Display feminine attributes, therefore women are more likely to be transforming leaders than men (Burns, 1978:50; Krishnan, 2001:130; Tremaine, 2000:247);
- Are negative toward bribery and favouritism (Krishnan, 2001:127, 130) and display moral conduct (Grundstein-Amado, 1999:154; Tremaine, 2000:247; Trofino, 2000:238);
- Rate themselves high on purpose-in-life, personal efficacy and interpersonal control (Krishnan, 2001:127,130);

- Display greater value for collective welfare than for personal welfare (Krishnan, 2001:127, 130; Trofino, 2000:238);
- Allow themselves to be guided by broader values such as equality and change-oriented values like an exciting life (Krishnan, 2001:127,130);
- Rank "responsible" higher than "cheerful" and "intellectual", therefore preference is given to moral values over competence values (Krishnan, 2001:127,130);
- Identify themselves as change agents and take responsibility for change (Johnson, 2002:243; Nixon, 2001:93);
- Are courageous and take risks (Burke & Litwin, 1989:282; Johnson, 2002:243; McAreavey, Alimo-Metcalfe & Connelly, 2001:448);
- Believe in and trust people (Johnson, 2002:243);
- Have clear values and are value-driven (Johnson, 2002:243; Nixon, 2001:93);
- Are lifelong learners (Johnson, 2002:243);
- Can deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty (Johnson, 2002:243);
- Have vision, creativity, flexibility and the ability to integrate complexity, which enables them to generate substantial organisational commitment from followers in order to transform organisations and thus manage change (Walck, 1997:83);
- Provide, demonstrate and capture commitment for a vision (Burke & Litwin, 1989:282);
- Provide high standards of performance and the inspiration to meet such goals (Bass, 1985:20; Bass & Avolio, 1990b:22; Bettin *et al.*, 1992:83; Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997:20; Tremaine, 2000:247);
- Attempt to minimise mistakes proactively through anticipation and ongoing diagnosis but when they occur, they try to turn them into learning experiences rather than simply punishing, or criticising the follower for making a mistake (Bass & Avolio, 1990b:22);

- Turn threats associated with mistakes and/or failure into opportunities to learn, to develop and to grow to their full potential (Bass & Avolio, 1990b:22); and
- "Agreeableness" including charisma, individualised consideration, trust, compassion and empathy was found to be strongly correlated to transformational leadership (Judge & Bono; 2000:761). The researchers and Bass (1997:131) explain that as leadership takes place in a social context, social traits are important.

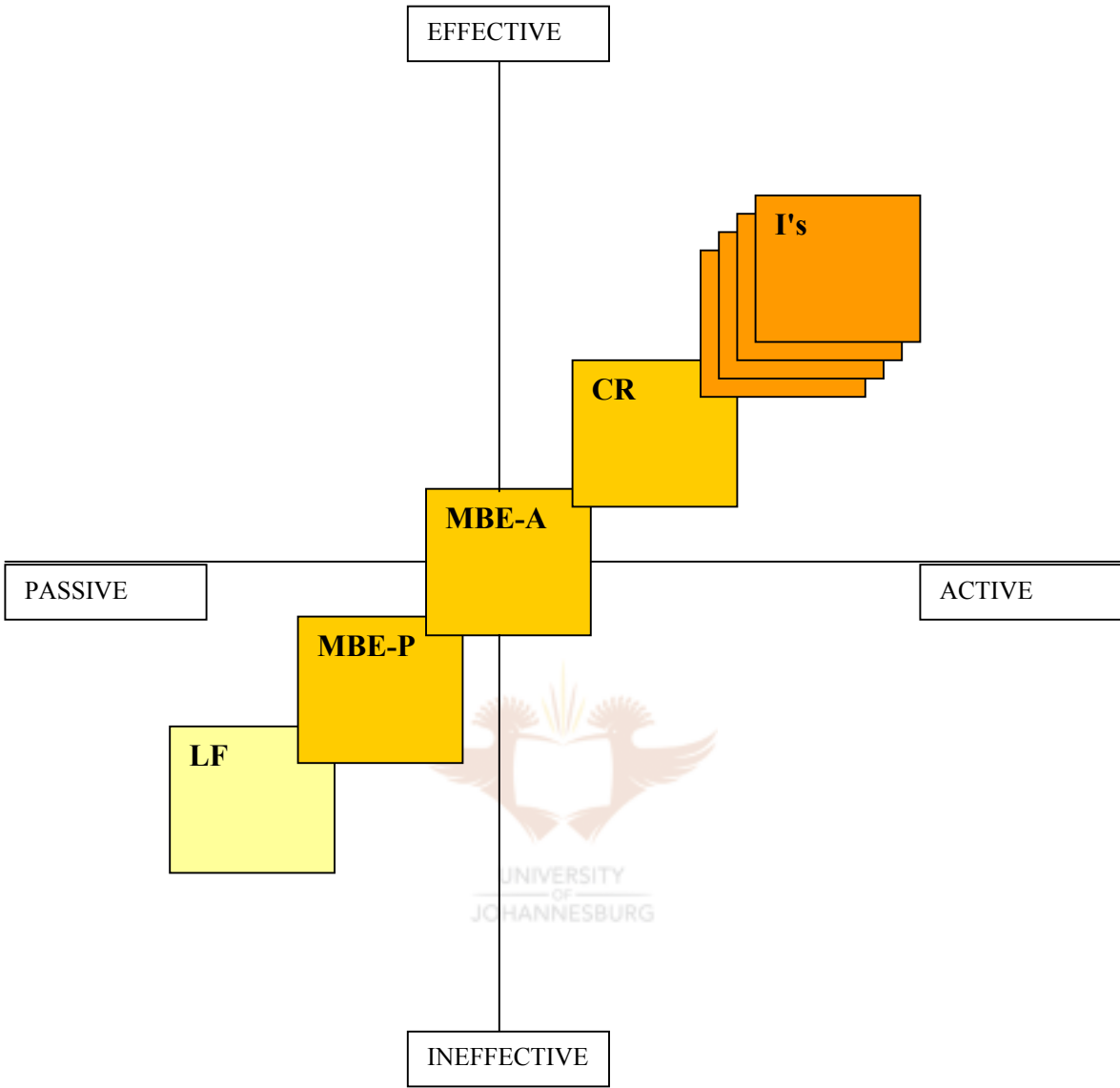
The above list of characteristics of transformational leaders was elicited from the available literature. More characteristics could be listed, but the above were the most frequently mentioned by the various authors. It is evident that they include a wide variety of behaviours, traits and attitudes typical of transformational leaders. Personality preferences of transformational leaders will be discussed in Chapter 3 (p. 36).

2.4 THE MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP



Although various contributions have been made on a theoretical level, Bass has been the only researcher who has developed a formal theory, model and measurement instrument regarding transformational leadership (Shamir, 1999:286; Van Rensburg & Crous, 2000:40). Bass's theory of transformational leadership as developed in the 1980's is derived from Burns's (1978) qualitative classification of transactional and transformational leaders. The theory has been refined to the eventual development of the Full Range of Leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 1990:2.2), which has been validated around the globe and has been applied in a number of cultures (Maritz, 2000:16). This model (Fig. 2.1, p. 29) describes three types of leadership, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership and the absence of leadership or laissez-faire.

FIGURE 2.1: THE FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP MODEL



LF	Laissez-Faire
MBE-P	Management by Exception (Passive)
MBE-A	Management by Exception (Active)
CR	Contingent Reward
I's	The Four Components/I's (Transformational Leadership)

Source: Adapted from Avolio and Bass (1990:2.2).

Each of the above symbols in the blocks represents a leadership style. The following short descriptions of each of the above symbols will be provided (Avolio & Bass, 1990:2.3-2.13; Bass, 1998:6,7; Maritz, 2000:16,17; Paul *et al.*, 2002:196):

Laissez-Faire (LF): The lowest left end of the model represents the avoidance/laissez-faire leadership. Such leaders are passive and not typically engaged in the work process. They delay decisions and do not set any clear direction with the result being ineffective leadership behaviour. For example in practice this type of leader would abdicate from their responsibilities and would show a lack of interest in what is going on. They often talk about getting down to work, but never really do.

The transactional leadership style constitutes the middle of the range and consists of three components, namely *Management By Exception (Passive)*, *Management By Exception (Active)* and *Constructive Transactions/Contingent Reward*. The three blocks in the middle of figure 2.1 (p. 29) represent these components.

Management By Exception (Passive) - (MP): A passive form of management by exception characterises leaders who intervene only when necessary to correct deviations after they have occurred, usually when performance problems become serious or chronic. Such transactional leaders usually intervene after mistakes are made in order to correct them and move performance back to previously specified levels. The distinction between active and passive management by exception is primarily based on the timing of the leader's intervention. As explained, these leaders only intervene after mistakes are made and tasks are completed (Howell & Avolio, 1993:891). They are typically not good inspectors of work systems, processes or outcomes. For example these leaders will only intervene when necessary on how to make improvements and avoid unnecessary changes. In other words they take no action unless a problem arises.

Management By Exception (Active) - (MA): These leaders establish rules and regulations which they monitor closely for any deviations. They attend to exceptions and focus on the extreme to prevent problems. Active management by exception is an active process of monitoring followers' performance and intervention to correct mistakes. These leaders typically spend significant time inspecting work systems, processes and performance. Managers who firmly believe in the *status quo* and do not take proactive organisational roles are likely to manifest a variety of management by exception behaviours (Curphy, 1992:177).

In both types of management-by-exception leadership styles the mode of reinforcement is negative contingent reinforcement or punishment rather than the positive reinforcement associated with contingent reward leader behaviour.

Constructive Transactions/Contingent Reward - (CR): Leaders who are transactional enter into agreements with their followers, colleagues or supervisors to complete tasks. Leaders use positive reinforcement upon desired followers' behaviours. Should agreements be established and fully understood, then the performance levels of the followers should be as both parties expect. Contingent reward behaviours can be effective, particularly when leaders have a high level of authority and subordinates' performance is due to skill or effort. However due to time pressures and a general disbelief in the efficacy of contingent reward behaviours many managers are content to intervene only when problems occur. A behavioural example would be a leader discussing in specific terms what must be accomplished, who will be responsible, while obtaining agreements and clarifying the outcomes for reaching the stated objectives. This leadership style is both effective and active, but not optimal particularly in a changing environment.

The four overlapping blocks on the right upper side of figure 2.1 (p. 29) represent the transformational leadership style.

The Four Components/I's (Transformational Leadership) - The four I's represent the higher end of the model where the greatest potential gains in commitment, motivation and performance are expected. These components of transformational leadership include the following types of leaders:

- **Idealised influence (II)** leaders set high standards for ethical and moral conduct. Followers are encouraged to use their leaders as role models and the term is also described as charisma. These leaders are admired, respected and trusted. At the core of idealised influence is the creation of values which inspire, provide meaning for and instil a sense of purpose in people (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:15; Bass, 1998:5; Maritz, 2000:17, Popper & Druyan, 2001:550; Sarros & Santora, 2001:388).
- **Inspirational motivation (IM)** leaders energise followers by examples they set, visions they espouse and the optimism they demonstrate for a better future. Raising the consciousness of workers about the organisation's mission and vision, and encouraging others in understanding and committing to the vision is a key facet of inspirational motivation. It furthermore addresses the principle of organisational existence rather than the personality of the leader (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:14; Bass, 1998:5; Maritz, 2000:17, Popper & Druyan, 2001:550; Sarros & Santora, 2001:387).
- **Intellectual stimulation (IS)** leaders challenge followers to think differently and explore new models and methods, which challenge the leader's preferred way of thinking. These leaders encourage creativity and accept challenges as part of their job. They stay calm while working out ways to deal with problems in a rational way and cultivate the same skill in their followers. The intellectual stimulation leadership approach together with individualised consideration build character and organisational skills through caring leadership behaviours

that coach and challenge (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:14; Bass, 1998:5, 6; Maritz, 2000:17, Popper & Druyan, 2001:551; Sarros & Santora, 2001:387, 388).

- **Individualised consideration (IC)** focused leaders learn how to identify the best possible ways to develop followers, colleagues and supervisors to their full potential. It deals with the fundamental transformational leadership behaviours of treating individuals as important contributors to the workplace. These leaders show consideration for their workers' needs and are prepared to encourage and coach the development of appropriate work place behaviour (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:13; Bass, 1998:6; Maritz, 2000:17, Popper & Druyan, 2001:551; Sarros & Santora, 2001:385).

Transformational leadership has therefore been described as the composite of idealised influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), individualised consideration (IC) and intellectual stimulation (IS) as reflected above in figure 2.1 (p. 29). Bass (1997:134) notes that the components' order on the second dimension, namely effectiveness, furthermore places the three leadership styles on a continuum of effectiveness. Transformational leadership tends to be the most effective leadership style, followed in order of effectiveness by Contingent Reward, Active Management by Exception, Passive Management by Exception and Laissez-faire leadership being the least effective.

2.5 CONCEPTUAL WEAKNESSES IN THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

According to Shamir (1999:296), it is evident that transformational leadership theories provide important insights, but some serious conceptual weaknesses need to be addressed to make these theories more useful. Shamir states that the concept transformational leadership does not describe the underlying influence processes clearly, nor do they specify how the leader

behaviours are related to these processes.

A further concern is regarding the apparent neglect of situational variables by the researchers of transformational leadership. This means that the components of transformational leadership do not take the specific situation or setting, within which the leader is leading, into account. Too much focus is given to individual characteristics of leaders while neglecting adaptations that need to be made by the leader due to specific situational challenges. Shamir (1999:289) however concedes and recognises the work of Bass (1985) as well as Pavar and Eastman (1997) who proposed specific conditions for transformational leadership such as an unstable environment, an organic structure, an entrepreneurial culture and dominance of boundary-spanning units over the technical core. It is suggested that more studies need to test these propositions and apply alternative measures of leader behaviours, like observations and field experiments, instead of relying purely on behavioural questionnaires. Followers can furthermore be transformed to such a high degree of emotional involvement in the workplace that over time they become "burnt out" by the prolonged stress and even exploited by individual leaders (Shamir, 1999:290).

Friedman (2001:8) raises the concern that even when a great, personable leader lives and functions in concordance with transformational leadership principles, the loyalty of the staff, the honour of the organisation and the reliability of the values are all invested in a person rather than the organisation. Should something happen to the leader, albeit death, disability, a new job, retirement or resignation, then the organisation suffers and in extreme cases could even be destabilised.

Lastly, given the framework of this research study, where the focus is on transformational leadership, problems with the distinction made between passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire leadership are noted, but not seen as significant (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997:23; Hater &

Bass, 1988:697).

3.1 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 provides a theoretical framework of how transformational leadership is conceptualised and of what constitutes such leadership. After a distinction is made between management and leadership, transformational leadership was defined and a comprehensive list of the distinguishing characteristics was provided. Subsequently a model describing transformational leadership, transactional leadership and the absence of leadership or laissez-faire was discussed. Transformational leadership is described as the composite of idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Transformational leadership is furthermore put forward as tending to be the most effective form of leadership. Note is taken of criticism of transformational leadership however the theory of Bass and Avolio is accepted as the most thoroughly researched and accepted model explaining the full range of leadership.



In the light of the above, the first specific objective, as set out in Chapter 1, has been achieved.

In Chapter 3 a literature study embarked upon to provide theoretical knowledge on the concepts of psychological type and personality preferences is presented.

CHAPTER 3

PSYCHOLOGICAL TYPE AND PERSONALITY PREFERENCES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapters 1 and 2 the focus has been on the explanation of the concepts leadership and transformational leadership as well as the context of the changing business environment businesses are currently functioning in.

After research on personal characteristics of leaders diminished in the fifties, Stogdill (1974:72) indicated that many researchers had misinterpreted his earlier conclusions and had consequently overemphasised the situational nature and underemphasised the situational in conjunction with the personal nature of leadership. Subsequently the study of psychological characteristics of leaders has been advocated afresh. Van Eron and Burke (1992:152) reports that there has furthermore been an increasing interest in the view that transformational and transactional leaders may have fundamental individual differences.

Van Rensburg and Crous (2000:41) is of the opinion that personality is a dual construct consisting of manifested (overt) behaviour and underlying (covert) characteristics which are similar to the transformational leadership theory of Burns (1978). However they postulate that the overt behaviour (transformational leadership behaviour) is being influenced by the covert characteristics (personality characteristics) of a leader. Therefore in order to obtain the full picture regarding transformational leadership, it is necessary to not only research leaders' behaviour but also the underlying personality characteristics that influence this behaviour.

In this chapter, by means of a literature study, a theoretical framework for understanding

psychological type and personality preferences is provided.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION

A discussion of the concepts psychological type and personality preferences follows.

3.2.1 Personality type

Briggs Myers (1998:6) explain that psychological type is a theory of personality developed by the psychiatrist Jung (1875-1961) who endeavoured to explain the normal differences between healthy people. Based on his observations, Jung concluded that differences in behaviour result from people's inborn tendencies to use their minds in different ways. As people act on these tendencies, they develop patterns of behaviour. Jung's psychological type theory defines eight different patterns of normal behaviour, or types and gives an explanation of how types develop. Personality type is therefore the combination of the different patterns of normal behaviour determined by the eight personality preferences that will be elaborated on below. Briggs Myers (1998:8) points out that people tend to develop behaviours, skills and attitudes associated with their type and individuals with different types will likely be opposite to each other in many ways.

3.2.2 The differences between type and trait theories

In order to aid the reader with a better understanding of type theories it is important to consider the fundamental differences between type and trait theories. Kirby (1997:14) states that most instruments used in leadership development are trait measures in which it is assumed that everyone possesses a particular trait or traits, and the instrument reveals how much. Kirby as well as Quenck (1993:12) report the following differences between type and trait theories:

Type theories of personality differ from trait theories by:

- Distinguishing qualitatively between inborn differences rather than focusing on concepts that differ only in the amount the person possesses thereof;
- Sorting people into presumed pre-existing categories (types) rather than measuring how much or how little of a particular human characteristic a person possesses or uses;
- Showing a bi-modal/skewed distribution rather than a normal distribution, which reveals the average amount of the trait possessed by people that in turn has an evaluative aspect;
- Midpoints separating categories are seen as important for discrimination rather than considering extreme scores;
- Obtained scores showing confidence in the sorting procedures rather than showing the amount of the trait the person possesses;
- viewing behaviour as an expression of type rather than seeing behaviour as caused by traits;
- and
- Too much or too little of a phenomenon is irrelevant rather than seeing it as negative or diagnostic.



Kirby (1997:14) explains that an instrument assessing dominant trait will show a normal range, a high range and a low range. These results tend to be used to help leaders identify and develop new attitudes and behaviours that will move them into the normal range of behaviour with subsequent ratings on the same instrument being used to evaluate change. In contrast, type theory is used to indicate categories - natural preferences for one or the other of two opposite modes or dichotomies. Leaders will normally have developed skills and behaviour related to both of the opposites, but the intention is to clarify the behaviour a person preferably displays and feels comfortable with.

3.2.3 Personality preferences

Myers *et al.* (1998:23) contends that personality preferences are a reflection of habitual choices people make between rival alternatives in the ways they receive information and make decisions. Kirby (1997:4) states that personality preferences are inborn, natural ways of using a particular mental tool that shape a person's perspective and development. Briggs Myers (1998:8) reiterates the latter explanation when comparing personality preferences to a preference for right- or left-handedness and the way this use of the preferred hand shapes the ways in which people learn and become skilful in performing physical tasks. To aid in understanding the concept of personality preference, Briggs Myers explains that a person can use either of their hands when they have to, and can use both hands regularly; but for writing, one hand is natural and competent, while the other requires effort and feels awkward.

According to Kirby (1997:4, 5), Briggs Myers (1998:8) and Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:43), personality preferences in the Jungian/Myers Briggs context indicate the differences in people that result from:

- The way people prefer to relate to each other, their orientation or where they prefer to focus their attention and get energy (either **Extraversion** or **Introversion**);
- The way people prefer to take in information and gather data (either **Sensing** or **Intuition**);
- The way they prefer to process data and make decisions (either **Thinking** or **Feeling**); and
- The way they prefer to organise themselves and how they orient themselves to the external world, either with a judging or a perceiving process (either **Judging** or **Perceiving**)

Briggs Myers (1998:8) states that everyone has a natural preference for one of the two opposites on each of the above-mentioned four dichotomies. People use both poles at different times, but not both at once and not with equal confidence. When people use their preferred methods, they

are generally at their best and feel most competent, natural and energetic. Through the use of preferences people develop psychological types: an underlying personality pattern resulting from the dynamic interaction of their four preferences, environmental influences and people's own choices. It is important to note that Briggs Myers (1998:8) maintains that there are no right or wrong to these preferences. Each preference identifies normal and valuable human behaviours.

3.3 THE ANALYTICAL THEORY OF CAREL GUSTAV JUNG (1875-1961)

Jung's book *The Psychology of Type, A Theory of Individuation* was first published in 1921. His book was an effort to deal with the relationship of a normal individual to the world, to people and things. He believed that his theory described the structure of human consciousness, which he regarded as essential to study the polarity and dynamics of the psyche (Jung, 1983:179; Kirby, 1997:3). Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:12) notes that the book was the first serious empirical examination of the history of the phenomenon of consciousness. According to Kirby (1997:3) and Briggs Myers (1998:6), Jung believed that human beings are born with certain mental and emotional possibilities. He identified the primary ones as the ability to gather, store and retrieve information as well as being able to reflect upon that information, organise it and coming to conclusions. These mental tools are what humans need to pursue their natural impulses to relate meaningfully to the world and people through productive work and significant relationships and to develop personally.

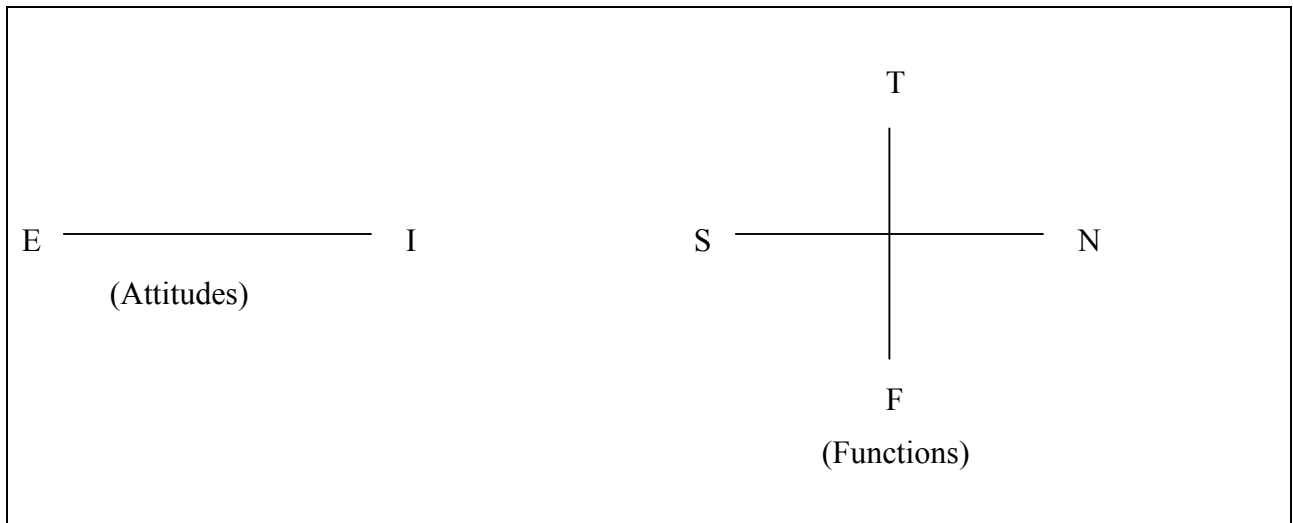
Jung believed that although all humans have these capacities to observe and to organise, there are natural inborn differences in the ways people prefer to use these capacities. Kirby (1997:4) explains that these differences lead to different structures of consciousness in normal human beings. Jung was of the opinion that assigning individual human behaviour to certain types is done to aid in understanding such behaviour and not in any way to deny the uniqueness of each

person.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:14) reports that Jung saw the psyche as a dynamic system that is in constant movement. Much of the energy in the psyche is created by the power of opposing poles, which tend to be mutually exclusive. The polarities that Jung identified in his typology are the attitudes of introversion and extraversion, perceiving functions (sensation and intuition) and judging functions (thinking and feeling). A type preference implies a person's habitual and conscious preference for one pole rather than the other. As preferences occur from early in life, Jung believed that people do not typically use both with equal ease or facility. Instead, one of the opposites will be used more often, developed more completely and will remain more comfortable for an individual. In the same way the non-preferred mental tool will be less developed, less comfortable and take more energy to use (Kirby, 1997:5). Van Eron and Burke (1992:152) points out that although individuals use all eight processes, the theory proposes that one of each pair is favoured over the other. It is expected that some of the different preferences on the bipolar scales will relate to an individual's disposition for transformational or transactional leadership.

In summary Jung therefore established Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I) as attitudes, as a basis for his theory of behaviour. He also identified four function types, namely Thinking (T), Feeling (F), Sensing (S) and Intuition (N), which he perceived as four points on a compass of human behaviour. Figure 3.1 (p. 42) provides a visual presentation of the compass Jung envisaged.

FIGURE 3.1: JUNG'S COMPASS



Source: Adapted from Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:19)

3.3.1 The attitudes and functions of the psyche

As explained in the previous paragraph it was not Jung's intention to label people but rather views typology as a framework with which individuals can be distinguished psychologically, as they channel their psychological energy differently, namely attitudes and functions (Jung, 1971:414; Landman, 1999:32).

3.3.1.1 The attitudes (Extraversion or Introversion)

Jung (1971:415) describes an attitude as a readiness of the psyche to act in a certain way. The term attitude refers to orientation of a person's energy or the person's orientation to the external world. Briggs Myers (1998:6) points out that Jung also observed that individuals tend to focus their energy and were energised more by the external world of people, experience and activity or more by the internal world of ideas, memories and emotions. Jung respectively called these two orientations of energy extraversion and introversion. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:15), Martin (1995:2) as well as Briggs Myers (1998:9) indicate that people may direct their energy and

attention primarily to the external world (extraversion); or primarily to their inner world of ideas, values and experience (introversion). People with a preference for extraversion receive energy from interacting with people and from taking action while introverts receive energy from reflecting on their thoughts, memories and feelings. Kirby (1997:7) reports that those leaders preferring extraversion tend to initiate contact and seek out others, tend to be action oriented and to like processing their thoughts out loud. They are often gregarious, enthusiastic and expressive leaders. Introverted leaders tend to like receiving information in written form and then to have time to process it internally before arriving at decisions. Briggs Myers (1998:9) indicate that these leaders typically prefer one-on-one interactions and may be contained and reserved.

Kirby (1997:7, 8) explains that each of these orientations make contributions to leadership and has some potential weaknesses for leaders. Leaders preferring extraversion may take quick action before giving enough reflection time, their external processing of ideas could be confusing and they may not provide Introverts sufficient time for internal processing. Leaders preferring introversion may continue to reflect when it is time for action, they may exclude others from participating, their eventual announcement may come as a surprise and they may come across as aloof and judgmental.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:16) mentions that after identifying the above-mentioned attitudes, Jung realised that he would have to design his own criteria for further refinement of his typological theory, which took him the best part of a decade. The perceptive and judging functions or mental functions were subsequently established. Kirby (1997:4) and Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:18) report that Jung believed that every individual instinctively uses his most developed behavioural function, which through use becomes the criterion of a habitual mode of reaction. In other words, as explained at paragraph 3.2.1 (p. 37), through regular use of the preferred function, this

function becomes better developed and the person becomes more skilful at it and the person furthermore habitually makes use of the preferred function.

3.3.1.2 The perceptive functions (Sensing or Intuition)

Briggs Myers (1998:6) reports that Jung identified two opposite ways of perceiving or gathering information, namely sensation and intuition and each individual will have a natural preference and developed facility in one of these opposites.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:16), Martin (1995:3) as well as Briggs Myers (1998:9) indicate that people who prefer to gather information through sensing focus on what is actual in the present, on data available to the senses and establish actuality and reality by directly using and exploring the information gained from the senses. On the other hand people who prefer intuitive perceiving focus on the connections between sensing data. They are drawn to the overall patterns and meanings or theoretical explanations that will put specific data into context and are especially attuned to seeing new possibilities. Their perceiving is indirect and they observe through the unconscious, incorporating ideas or associations.

Kirby (1997:5-6) states that leaders who prefer sensing tend to be realistic and pragmatic, have a good grasp of what is actually happening in their organisation and like to use factual data in forecasting the future and making decisions. These leaders may have difficulty in dealing with quickly changing environments that require radical rethinking of present procedures. They typically want to collect a lot of data before accepting that an issue is real and needs to be acted upon. In this way they can miss important global connections in their focus on their more immediate environment. Kirby (1997:6) is of the opinion that leaders with an intuitive preference tend to be visionary and imaginative, have an accurate feel for what is going on and like to make decisions based on a theoretical projection of future possibilities that they foresee. They may

however be so persuaded of their perceptions of underlying patterns and future possibilities that they fail to give proper weight to current realities.

3.3.1.3 The judging functions (Thinking or Feeling)

Jung identified two different ways in which people organise and structure information and make decisions. Those preferring thinking like to apply logical principles to make objective decisions. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:17), Martin (1995:4) as well as Briggs Myers (1998:10) indicate that people who prefer to use thinking in decision making like to look at the logical consequences of a choice or action. They prefer to give weight to facts and analysis when making decisions and analysing the world and adapting to it. Kirby (1997:6, 7) reports that as leaders, they tend to take a detached, analytical approach to problem solving, to value clarity and accuracy and to ask tough questions. They believe that problems have correct solutions that can be found through analysis and that these analyses form the best bases for decisions. Thinking leaders may however focus so much energy on logical analysis and tasks that they do not give enough weight to the impact of their decisions on people. They may be overly competitive, seeing it as less important to find common ground.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:17), Martin (1995:4) and Briggs Myers (1998:10) states that people who prefer to use feeling in decision making enjoy to consider what is important to them and to others involved. They prefer to make decisions by means of a process of valuing or directing their thinking in favour of human factors. It is important to note that feeling judgemental is a rational process for deciding what information to use in decision making and how much weight to give to different kinds of information. These people filter situations through their own values, the values of those important to them and the values of the organisation to which they are committed. Kirby (1997:6-7) maintains that as leaders, people who prefer feeling judgement tend to encourage

participation and consensus in decision making; to value the contributions of others; while being empathetic throughout the process. However, they can focus so much energy on including others and empathising with their positions that they lose track of some of the tough decisions they may need to make.

3.4 DEVELOPMENTS ON JUNG'S THEORY

Briggs Myers (1998:5) reports that Isabel Briggs Myers (1897-1980) and Katharine Cook Briggs (1875-1968) studied and applied Jung's theories to their understanding of individuals for 18 years from the publication of Jung's psychological types. In 1941 they began developing and testing questions that they hoped would assist people in identifying their own Jungian type preferences. Their goal was the construction of an instrument that would assist people in developing self-understanding and increasing their understanding and appreciation of other (Kirby, 1997:4). A particular contribution made to the theory of Jung by the mother and daughter team was the development of the Judging-Perceiving scale. Although Jung had mentioned that he observed differences between individuals relating to this preferred attitude to life, the Myers-Briggs team formulated and developed a scale measuring this attitude (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:21).

3.4.1 The Judging or Perceiving attitudes

This final set of opposites refers to how people like to organise their external environment. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:47), Martin (1995:5) as well as Briggs Myers (1998:10) indicate that in the judging attitude a person is concerned with making decisions, seeking closure, planning operations or organising activities. They use their judging to organise and structure the world around them, preferring that their environment be orderly, clear, planned and scheduled - the outcome being that they are energised by getting things done. Kirby (1997:8-9) explains that as leaders, people who prefer a judging attitude tend to be uncomfortable with ambiguity and

impatient with processes. Leaders who prefer to use their judging preference in the outer world, focus on achieving the desired results as quickly as possible and then moving on. They like to plan and keep to plans and schedules and trust their ability to acquire what they need. However judging leaders may press for closure and decisions before enough information has been gathered, keep to plans when they need to be re-evaluated and changed and oversimplify complex situations for the sake of clarity. These leaders may cause perceiving followers to be ineffective and furthermore come across as controlling to others.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:48), Martin (1995:5) and Briggs Myers (1998:10) report that in the perceptive attitude a person is attuned to incoming information, being spontaneous and adaptable, open to new events and changes and curious about what happens around them. They prefer to keep their environment as open and unstructured as possible and Kirby (1997:8, 9) explains that as leaders, these people typically require a great deal of information before making decisions. Goals are seen as moving targets, temporary and changeable as new information arises. They enjoy flexibility and spontaneity in their environment and they trust their ability to respond quickly to changing circumstances. Perceiving leaders may continue to gather information when decisions need to be made, waiting too long for the decisions to emerge. They can trust their ability to respond quickly to crises to such an extent that they actually encourage crises, and their spontaneity and flexibility may place undue stress on others.

In Table 3.1 (p. 48) a summary of examples of the four scales are set out, as adapted from the work of Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:45-52), Fitzgerald (1997:39), Martin (1995:2-5) as well as Briggs Myers (1998:9-10, 31), to elaborate further on the characteristics associated with each of the eight personality preferences.

TABLE 3.1: CHARACTERISTICS ASSOCIATED WITH THE EIGHT PERSONALITY PREFERENCES

Attitudes:	
<i>Extraversion</i> ----- <i>Introversion</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness and reliance on the environment for stimulation and guidance, enjoy variety, action-orientated, sometimes impulsive • Prefer to communicate by talking, tend to speak first, reflect later • Sociable, take initiative in work and relationships • Develop their ideas through discussion • Learn new tasks by talking and doing • Interested in how other people do their work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interest in the clarity of concepts and ideas, reliance on enduring concepts • Thoughtful, contemplative detachment, enjoyment of solitude, quietness and privacy for concentration • Prefer to communicate by writing, tend to reflect before acting or speaking • Develop their ideas internally • Learn new tasks by reading and reflecting • Enjoy working alone with no interruptions
<i>Judging</i> ----- <i>Perceiving</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concerned with making decisions, planning operations or organising activities • Seek systems and closure, bringing issues to order and to a resolution • Avoid last minute stresses • Feel supported by structure and schedules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is attuned to incoming information, spontaneous, flexible and adaptable • Curious about what is happening around them • Feel energised by last minute stresses • Feel restricted by structure and schedules • Leave things open as long as possible • Focus on enjoying the process
Functions:	
<i>Sensing</i> ----- <i>iNtuition</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on what is real and actual • Establishes what exists and reflects a preference to focus on immediate issues, on facts, details and practicalities, without referring back to rational formulations • Observe and remember sequentially • Want information step-by-step • Trust experience, draw on their own and others' experience • Like to perfect standard ways to do things by fine tuning • Build to conclusions by collecting facts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the big picture - start with the big picture, fill in the facts • Perceive possibilities, means and relationships by way of insight, allowing perception beyond what is visible • Tends to focus on the future, the abstract and the potential • Jump around, leap in anywhere • Trust inspiration • Like to solve new, complex problems • Prefer change, new ways of doing things
<i>Thinking</i> ----- <i>Feeling</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the task • Analytical, linking ideas, insights and details together by making logical connections • Use cause and effect reasoning • Concerned for mutual respect, justice and fairness • Can give criticism when appropriate, firm-minded • Apply principles consistently 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on people's interactions • Empathetic, consistently apply values to understand and decide • Reflects human concern, warmth, compassionate and accepting • Assess impact on people • Strive for harmony and individual validation

Source: Adapted from Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:45-52), Fitzgerald (1997:39), Martin (1995:2-5) and Briggs Myers (1998:9-10, 31).

According to Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:53), together, the different attitudes and functions influence how a person perceives a situation and decides on a course of action. Each of these choices is compared to a fork in the road of human development, offering different paths that lead toward different kinds of behaviour. According to type theory, people create their "type" by the exercise of their preferences. Kirby (1997:9) elaborates by explaining that the four sets of opposites result in 16 possible combinations, which are identified by the letters E (Extraversion) or I (Introversion), S (Sensing) or N (Intuition), T (Thinking) or F (Feeling) and J (Judging) or P (Perceiving). Below will follow a description of the combinations of the above four letters or preferences, which combined, translates into a person's type.

3.5 TYPE: COMBINATIONS OF PERSONALITY PREFERENCES

Briggs Myers (1998:7) maintains that each preference is a multifaceted aspect of personality and enhances understanding of oneself and others. At the introductory level, it is customary to focus on defining each preference. However, according to Briggs Myers, it is important to remember that it is the combination of the four preferences that provides the fullest and richest picture of psychological types - the total result of the preferences being greater than the sum of the individual parts. Psychological type can be obtained by combining the letters representing the preferences. The four-letter type is therefore much more than the simple addition of the four preferences - it is the interaction of the preferences with one another (Briggs Myers, 1998:42).

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:53) furthermore explains that people who have the same preferences tend to have in common whatever qualities result from the exercise of those preferences. The interests, values, needs and habits of mind that naturally result tend to produce a recognisable kind of person. Individuals can therefore partly be described by stating their preferences as for instance ENTP, ESFJ, INFP or whatever the choice may be. It is important to note that although

it can be expected that for example ENTPs would be similar in their behavioural preferences, some differences will remain, as all people are individuals even when belonging to a specific type.

Briggs Myers (1998:11), Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:55) and Kirby (1997:9) explain the following example of psychological type:

ISTJ = people who ...

- I** Draw energy from and pay attention to their inner world. A calm, reserved and contained manner, with a desire for quiet processing time.
- S** Prefer information that is real and factual, with emphasis on experience and on what is practical and doable
- T** Use of logical analysis and rational criteria for decision making
- J** Prefer a structured and planned life and environment

ISTJs can also be described as focusing on sequential, structured order to ensure results. They attend to details, focus on logistics and are practical and realistic. Together, these preferences result in leaders who probably emphasise the bottom line, take a realistic and organised approach to their work and require that of others, as well as insisting on a no-nonsense attitude. They approach new ideas with tough questions, tend to be sceptical of suggested changes that are not firmly grounded and require thorough exploration of initiatives before accepting them.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:54) and Kirby (1997:11) report that the various combinations of attitudes and functions result in 16 possible type profiles, which are usually displayed on a type table. There is a certain logical order in which the type table is arranged or presented in order that types with similar preferences are next to each other. Table 3.2 (p. 51) is an example of such a display.

TABLE 3.2: TYPE TABLE

	Sensing types	Sensing types	Intuitive types	Intuitive types	
Introverts	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ	Judging types
Introverts	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP	Perceiving types
Extraverts	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP	Perceiving types
Extraverts	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	Judging types
	Thinking types	Feeling types	Feeling types	Thinking types	

Source: Adapted from Briggs Myers (1998:13), Kirby (1997:11), Sundstrom and Busby (1997:234) and Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:55).

When looking at type within the leadership context, Kirby (1997:16) states that in her experience, all types can be effective leaders, which illustrates one of the basic principles of psychological type, that all types are valuable and have important contributions to make. However on an individual level, leaders' type preferences are useful for understanding likely strengths and potential weaknesses, which would be potential areas for development. Nevertheless, Kirby maintains that considering leader types, as a group remains important, as it provides information about leadership characteristics valued in an organisation.

A pattern that is reported on by Kirby is that thinking and judging types (ISTJ, INTJ, ESTJ and ENTJ) are in the majority in management and leadership position across a variety of cultures and types of organisations. This overrepresentation of the thinking and judging combination remained consistent throughout extensive research findings that Kirby compared with each other. Fleenor (1997:117) refers to research conducted on 26 477 middle and upper-level management participants who attended a leadership development program between 1985 and 1993. The

distribution of the 16 MBTI types was as follows: the highest percentage was for ISTJs, then ESTJs followed by ENTJs. The percentages for ISFPs, ESFPs and INFJs were very low, being one percent. Briggs Myers (1998:34) describes the thinking and judging type as Logical Decision Makers who present themselves as analytical, decisive leaders. They make decisions based on principles and systems, overall impacts and the rational assessment of outcomes and can be tough-minded in implementing those decisions. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:133) add that Logical Decision-makers aim at bringing order to the environment through expressing thoughts and judgements directly and clearly. Their focus is on ensuring that what needs to be achieved is done correctly and quickly. These leaders may be experienced as analytical, tough-minded, confident and in control. Kirby (1997:18) argues that as the thinking and judging types are so prevalent in organisational leadership, it may be that thinking and judging behaviours have become the accepted definition of what it means to lead and therefore, people displaying these behaviours are seen as candidates for leadership positions. However the changing requirements and expectations of leaders, for instance by choosing a team member as a leader, may lead to increasing numbers of other type combinations in leadership.

Below will follow a discussion of the relationship between type and transformational leadership as found in research that has been undertaken in this field.

3.6 TYPE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

As explained in Chapter 2 (p. 15), Walck (1997:84) argues that an ever-increasing need for transformational leaders exists, as opposed to mere managers, who can envision creative strategies while integrating complexity and building teams to enact those strategies. When this shift from managers to leaders is framed in type terms, it emerges as a call for a shift from the ST (sensing-thinking) and SJ (sensing-judging) managers to NF (intuitive-feeling) and NP (intuitive-

perceiving) leaders who can develop a vision of the future and arouse the excitement of the organisational members to pursue it.

Walck (1997:84-88) continues to report on several research outcomes that found intuition (N) and perceiving (P) as the strongest related to various measures of transformational leadership. He also refers to research conducted by Roush and Atwater being the only where it was found that sensing (S) and feeling (F) preferences had a high association with transformational leadership. Walck furthermore refers to research done by McGhee where change leaders were found to be predominantly either NT or SJ. Furthermore intuition (N) and perceiving (P) were associated with the key aspects, creativity and ability to manage change, of transformational leadership in four studies, namely that of Carne and Kirton (1982), Fleenor (1997), Gyskiewicz and Tuller (1995) and Van Rooyen (1994).

Van Eron and Burke (1992:153) found that individuals who use intuitive perception (N) rather than sensing (S) are more likely to have a disposition for transformational leadership and individuals who are perceivers (P) are more likely to have a proficiency for transformational leadership.

In summary it can therefore be postulated that intuition (N) and perceiving (P) appear to be positively associated with creativity, managing change and in general transformational leadership.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 3 provides a theoretical framework for understanding psychological type and personality preferences. Attention is further given to research conducted and therefore expected personality preferences of transformational leaders.

In the light of the above, the second specific objective, as set out in Chapter 1, has been achieved.

In Chapter 4 the empirical study will be discussed. The aimed in this chapter is at gaining insight through quantitative research. The objectives of the research, the research group, and data collection is scrutinised, which is followed by an analysis of the data as obtained through the empirical research.



CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter contained a literature study on psychological type and personality preferences as well as research on and the subsequent expected personality preferences of transformational leaders. This provides the theoretical basis needed to construct an enriched view on the personality preferences of transformational leaders.

Chapter 4 focuses on the empirical aspects of the study, and is aimed at gaining insight through quantitative research. Attention is given to the objectives of the research, the research group, and data collection. An analysis of the data is provided as well as a consideration of how it will be applied, which will be discussed together with the results of the research in Chapter 5 (p. 76).

The empirical research forms the second phase of this study that is made up of the following steps:

- The compilation of the research group;
- the choice and implementation of the measuring instruments;
- the statistical analysis of the data;
- the formulation of hypotheses;
- reporting and a discussion of the findings; and
- conclusions and recommendations.

In this chapter the purpose of the research, the research group, the measuring instruments, the procedure, the research method, the statistical analysis and formulation of hypotheses are

discussed.

4.2 PURPOSE OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The general purpose of this study is to investigate and identify the relationship between transformational leadership and personality preferences. The aim of the study is therefore to establish an empirical link between transformational leadership and personality preferences in order to verify whether transformational leaders can be distinguished from other leaders by means of personality preferences.

4.3 THE RESEARCH GROUP

The total research group consisted of leaders from the financial and entertainment industries. The organisations selected and requested middle level managers to participate in the study. The researcher made use of convenience sampling where willing respondents were chosen within certain clusters as formed within the approached organisations. In total 66 usable sets of questionnaires were received and could be utilised for the purposes of this study. The compilation of the research group in terms of organisation is set out in Table 4.1:

TABLE 4.1: SIZE OF RESEARCH GROUP IN TERMS OF ORGANISATION

Organisation	Number of respondents	Total population	Percentage
Financial	51	59	86
Entertainment	15	50	30

In terms of gender the size of the research group can be set out as follows (Table 4.2, p. 57):

TABLE 4.2: SIZE OF RESEARCH GROUP IN TERMS OF GENDER

Organisation	Gender	Number of respondents	Total population	Percentage
Financial	Male	29	36	80.56
	Female	22	30	73.33
Entertainment	Male	7	36	19.44
	Female	8	30	26.67

In terms of age the size of the research group can be set out as follows:

TABLE 4.3: SIZE OF RESEARCH GROUP IN TERMS OF AGE

Organisation	Gender	Number of respondents	Total population	Percentage
Financial	21-30 years	9	15	60.00
	31-40 years	25	33	75.76
	41-50 years	14	15	93.33
	51-60 years	3	3	100.00
Entertainment	21-30 years	6	15	40.00
	31-40 years	8	33	24.24
	41-50 years	1	15	6.67
	51-60 years	0	3	0.00

4.4 THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS (TEST BATTERY)

In order to establish a possible connection between personality preferences and transformational leadership, a test battery was compiled. The different measuring instruments will consequently

be discussed with reference to the rationale, development, description, administration, scoring, interpretation as well as the reliability and validity thereof.

4.4.1 The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® (MBTI®)

The development and rationale, description, administration and scoring, interpretation, reliability and validity of the MBTI® will be discussed next.

4.4.1.1 The development and rationale of the MBTI®

Briggs Myers (1998:5) explain that the purpose of the MBTI® is to make the theory of psychological types as described by Jung (1875-1961) understandable and useful in people's lives. Briggs and her daughter Briggs Myers worked together to create the MBTI® in order to be able to identify the Jungian personality type and thereby understand people around them. Their vision being to enable individuals to grow through an understanding and appreciation of individual differences in healthy personalities and to enhance harmony and productivity among diverse groups. The authors report that Myers had been prompted by the waste of human potential in World War II and developed the Indicator to give a wide range of people access to the benefits she found in knowing psychological type and appreciating differences.

In 1929 Briggs became a Jung enthusiast after reading a review of Jung's Psychological Types and later shared her convictions with her daughter. Although neither of them were psychologists, they performed thorough research for many years, developing Indicator items and trying them out on friends and family and eventually on 15 000 nurses and 5 000 doctors. During the 1970's the Indicator became commercially available and has been published by Consulting Psychologists Press Inc. since 1975 (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:20, 21, 25).

Frazer (1994:73) furthermore states that the MBTI® limits its focus specifically to identify Jungian preferences (attitudes and functions) and does not concern itself directly with variables such as ego strength, anxiety or psychopathology. Therefore reiterating the fact that it is an Indicator and not a test.

According to Fitzgerald (1997:33) and Kirby (1997:3), the Myers Briggs Type Indicator® personality inventory is one of the most popular self-report instruments in leadership and management development programs; in team building, communications training and career enhancement programs; and in other organisational development training around the world. It is designed to provide information about respondents' Jungian psychological type preferences.

Briggs Myers (1998:5) notes that after 50 years of research and development, the current MBTI® is the most widely used instrument for understanding normal personality differences. It can also be of particular value when dealing with change and diversity as is found in the Southern African context. Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:7, 25) continue to explain that the Indicator is used world-wide to assist in people gaining self-insight and awareness of how their preferred behaviour may complement or differ from the behaviour of others. Such insight can assist amongst others in personal development; dealing with and improving on interpersonal issues like decision-making, conflict handling, communication, team functioning and leadership training.

4.4.1.2 A description of the MBTI®

Continuing research with the MBTI® has resulted in new developments and different versions are available. According to Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:30, 31), the following versions are available:

- Form F consists of 166 items and is the final version of the original research done by Briggs

and Myers. The Form F is used for research purposes with additional questions purely used for research purposes. Scoring is done by using masks.

- Form G (Step I) consists of 126 items with 94 items scored to determine a client's behavioural preferences and a further 32 questions used for research. It was developed for speedier completion where time restrictions are experienced. The Form G is also scored by using a mask.
- Form G Self-scorable (Step I) consists of 94 items and all of the items are scored. It is particularly useful in workshops where there is less opportunity to score the MBTI® ahead of time.
- Form K – Expanded Interpretive Report (EIR) (Step II) consists of 131 items. There are 20 subscales allowing further exploration of how respondents compare to others of his or her type, age and gender. This form also provides a polarity index and can only be scored with the appropriate software.
- Form J – Type Differentiation Indicator (TDI) (Step III) consists of 290 items and complements the EAR by providing an analysis on 7 comfort scales. It is still in research format and can also only be scored with the appropriate software.
- Form M - Latest version: (Step I) is the most recent development of the Indicator and has been available since 1998. It particularly aims at clarifying slight preference scores obtained for any profile. Scoring can be done using a mask or using the appropriate software.

The essence of Jung's comprehensive theory, as interpreted by the MBTI®, is the belief that preferred behaviour relates to two sets of attitudes (I-E; J-P) and four basic functions or processes (S-N; T-F). When a person answers the MBTI®, preferences are made for extraversion (E) or

introversion (I), sensing (S) or intuition (N), thinking (T) or feeling (F) and judgement (J) or perception (P). The letters for the chosen preference appear in the type formula in this order:

<u>E</u> xtraversion -----	<u>I</u> ntroversion	(Focus for energy)
<u>S</u> ensing -----	<u>i</u> Ntuition	(What a person pays attention to)
<u>T</u> hinking -----	<u>F</u> eeling	(How a person decides)
<u>J</u> udgement -----	<u>P</u> erception	(The lifestyle a person adopts)

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:44) notes that it is important to keep in mind that in making a preference choice the individual does not exclude the possibility of also at times behaving in a less preferred way. Individuals develop along the lines of their own choosing and show their uniqueness in this way.

As explained at paragraph 3.4 (p. 46), Briggs Myers (1998:7) points out that at the introductory level, it is customary to focus on defining each preference. However, it is the combination of the four preferences that provides the fullest and richest picture of psychological types. Psychological type can subsequently be obtained by combining the letters representing the preferences. Kirby (1997:11) reports that the various combinations of attitudes and functions result in 16 possible type profiles as set out in Table 3.2 (p. 51).

4.4.1.3 The administration and scoring of the MBTI®

Frazer (1994:75) and Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:32) explain that the MBTI® is virtually self-administering and all the necessary instructions are given on the cover of the question booklets and response sheets. Landman (1999:55) reports that the MBTI® can be administered either in a group or individually. Although no time limit is set for the completion of the answer sheet, it should take the respondent approximately 40 minutes to complete the questions put to them. The

respondent answers the 126 items by choosing which of the alternatives best suits their feelings and behaviour in general. It is important that the test administrator may not elaborate on words or answer questions put to them by respondents, neither allow group discussions whilst completing the Indicator.

Van Rooyen *et al.* (2001:35) indicates that the MBTI® is marked with the use of five templates and a score is then obtained for each of the eight preferences. Letter and numerical values are given to each of the preferences and a personality type code is then put together with the strength scores being linked to each of the preference letters, for example E(15) S(29) F(9) J(15).

4.4.1.4 The interpretation of the MBTI® symbols

When interpreting the scores obtained on the MBTI® it should once again be kept in mind that the MBTI® is an Indicator and not a test. Briggs Myers (1998:42) states that there are no correct or incorrect answers and therefore no good, bad, abnormal or sick MBTI® types exist (see paragraph 3.2.1.1 p. 37). Landman (1999:56) explains that the responses given on the Indicator are marked in such a way that the scores that are obtained, can be interpreted according to a letter value which indicates the preference type as well as a numerical value indicating the clarity of choice of the preference. These dichotomous preference scores need to be converted into continuous scores for the purposes of correlational research. Frazer (1994:77) mentions that correlation formulas require continuous scores and Isabel Myers devised a way in which MBTI® scores can be converted into continuous scores for research purposes. The midpoint of a preference dimension is assigned a number of 100. The preference score for E, S, T or J is subtracted from 100 and the preference score for I, N, F or P is added to 100. The reason given for this formula is based on the reality that there are less I, N, F and P's than there are E, S, T and J's.

4.4.1.5 The reliability of the MBTI®

According to the MBTI® Training Manual (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:82) the MBTI® results need to be consistent for it to be a trusted instrument. The statistical method for inferring the relative reliability or unreliability of a test is correlation. According to Myers *et al.* (1998:170), few or no differences in internal consistency reliabilities across age, gender and ethnic groups in the United States of America were found. Furthermore, higher reliabilities were found in groups with higher average intelligence compared with lower average intelligence.

Myers *et al.* (1998:171) reports that test-retest reliabilities of the MBTI® show consistency over time. Where change in type is reported, it is likely to occur in one preference and in scales where the original preference was low. Kirby (1997:14) reports that the reliability coefficients are consistently +0.80, indicating excellent reliability. Landman (1999:57) refers to research conducted by Zietsman where 1 943 South African respondents were compared with American respondents, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha coefficient) for each scale was successfully calculated. An internal consistency of 0.80 and higher was found for each of the scales. He continues to report on research performed by Van Rooyen where 81.4 percent of 435 South African respondents agreed with their type as shown by the MBTI®. Of the 18.6 percent of respondents who changed their profiles, 14.9 percent changed one of the preferences, 3.2 percent changed two and 0.5 percent changed three of their preferences.

Harvey (1996:21) reports as follows on a decade (1985-1995) of research findings with regard to the MBTI®. The results indicate:

- 0.84 and 0.86 for internal consistency measures;
- 0.76 for temporal stability;
- four scales compare favourably with well-established and respected trait-based instruments;

and

- individuals with clear preferences have relatively stable type assignments over time (92 percent of strong preferences retest as the same type; with 81 percent of medium preferences classifying identically).

However satisfactory reliability is not sufficient to indicate good validity of any psychometric instrument. Below a discussion will follow on the validity of the MBTI®.

4.4.1.6 The validity of the MBTI®

According to the MBTI® Training Manual (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:82) the validity of the MBTI® results presents information on the level of confidence that can be placed in the results obtained. The writers explain that there are different ways in which validity can be measured, namely:

- *Face validity*: Can the respondent identify with the results obtained by the questionnaire?
- *Content validity*: Does the MBTI® cover the domain of Jung's theory of psychological types; are the items included appropriate and relevant?
- *Construct validity*: This concerns the psychological meaningfulness of a questionnaire and how the MBTI® relates to measures of behaviour in situations where the construct is thought to be an important variable. Does the MBTI® measure the construct or theory it is intended to measure? Most of the validity evidence reported for the MBTI® falls under the category of construct validity.
- *Criterion-related validity*: This deals with the ability of results to estimate or predict behaviour.

Myers *et al.* (1998:178) found satisfactory construct validity between the MBTI® and other

recognised instruments:

- Extraversion (0.40 to 0.77) and Introversion (0.40 to 0.75)
- Sensing - Perceiving (0.40 to 0.67) and Intuition - Perceiving (0.40 to 0.62)
- Thinking - Judging (0.40 to 0.57) and Feeling - Judging (0.40 to 0.55)
- Judging (0.40 to 0.59) and Perceiving (0.40 to 0.57)

Frazer (1994:231) provides evidence that the MBTI® correlates significantly with other recognised instruments. Frazer made use of the 16 PF to test the MBTI®'s validity. She concludes her findings stating that the MBTI® is undoubtedly one of the best validated and most thoroughly evaluated instruments in the world. Landman (1999:59) refers to research conducted by Zietsman where 1 943 South African respondents were compared with American respondents, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha coefficient) for each scale was successfully calculated. An internal consistency of 0.80 and higher was found for each of the scales. He continues to report on research performed by Van Rooyen where 81.4 percent of 435 South African respondents agreed with their type as shown by the MBTI®. Of the 18.6 percent of respondents who changed their profiles, 14.9 percent changed one of the preferences, 3.2 percent changed two and 0.5 percent changed three of their preferences.

Harvey (1996:24) reports as follows on a decade (1985-1995) of research findings with regard to the MBTI®. The results indicate:

- good convergent, discriminant and predictive validity;
- very strong support for validity of the predicted four-factor structure of the MBTI®;
- construct validity supported by factor analysis; and
- substantial convergent validity between the MBTI® and the Five Factor model

4.4.2 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The second instrument that was administered was chosen to measure transformational leadership. The development and rationale, description, administration and scoring, interpretation, reliability and validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) will be discussed next.

4.4.2.1 The development and rationale of the MLQ

Burns's seminal work on political leaders appeared in 1978 and emphasised some of the key differences in the ways both great and ordinary political leaders motivate their associates (Bass & Avolio, 1997:3). Bass and Avolio subsequently began to collect and analyse data and a new model of leadership began to take shape. This new model incorporated a broader continuum of behaviours, from the least effective (*laissez-faire* leadership) to the most effective (idealised leadership). Their goal became to expand the range of leadership styles assessed by the raters and their associates to what many people had described as "exemplary" leadership. (Bass & Avolio, 1997:1) explain that they did not see research on transformational leadership as an implication that past leadership models should be abandoned. Their aim was rather one of building on previous models to broaden their understanding of leadership and its full development.

Avolio and Bass (1990:4.10) states that the MLQ was developed because there had been no reliable nor valid method for differentiating between non-transactional (non-leaders), transactional (passive, active) and transformational leadership. Leadership researchers and practitioners had long known the key factors that differentiate truly exceptional leadership from the ordinary. However, no systematic means had been available to measure those key factors. The MLQ offers one means by which one can systematically measure, explain and demonstrate to individuals, in behavioural terms, what has been commonly thought of as exceptional

leadership behaviour (Bass & Avolio, 1997:5). The range of leadership behaviours comprising the MLQ provides direct feedback to participants regarding their transformational, transactional and non-leadership behaviours.

4.4.2.2 A description of the MLQ

The current questionnaire contains 45 items that identify and measure key leadership and effectiveness behaviours shown in prior research to be strongly linked with both individual and organisational success. Each of the nine leadership components along a full range of leadership styles, is measured by four highly intercorrelated items that are as low in correlation as possible with items of the other eight components (Bass & Avolio, 1997:11).

The MLQ (5X) (Revised-63) adds two items per component that tend to load on more than one component, i.e. transformational items within scales also correlate with other transformational scales. Bass and Avolio (1997:11) explain that although the MLQ is very useful for training and coaching purposes. The MLQ has been completed by all managerial levels of Fortune 500 and 1000 firms; a variety of government and other non-profit companies and smaller firms in manufacturing, service and high-technology industries throughout the United States, as well as in many other countries around the world and in numerous languages. Bass and Avolio (1997:12) report that the pattern of results has been consistently the same. The researchers furthermore note that the MLQ has undergone numerous revisions as they learnt more about behaviours constituting transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Items have also been edited for clarity for the final published version.

In summary, the MLQ measures three categories of leadership factors (Bass & Avolio, 1995:2):

- Transformational

- Transactional
- Non-transactional leadership

The MLQ also measures three outcomes of leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995:2):

- Extra effort
- Effectiveness
- Satisfaction

4.4.2.3 The administration and scoring of the MLQ

Bass and Avolio (1997:14) explain that raters completing the MLQ evaluate how frequently, or to what degree, they have observed the focal leader engage in 32 specific leadership behaviours, while additional leadership items are attribute ratings. The target leaders complete the MLQ as a self-rating. A five-point scale for rating the frequency of observed leader behaviours is used.

The anchors used to evaluate the MLQ factors are presented as follows:

Rating scale for leadership items

- 0 = not at all
- 1 = once in a while
- 2 = sometimes
- 3 = fairly often
- 4 = frequently, if not always


The MLQ can be administered to individuals or groups, depending on the needs of the participants, the researcher or the trainer. Simple, clear instructions and sample items allow respondents to complete the questionnaire without direct supervision. Since the questionnaire is self-explanatory, the primary issue in its administration is the maintenance of privacy and anonymity (Bass & Avolio, 1997:15).

On average, it takes approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Respondents mark their ratings directly on a computer-scorable answer sheet, which is forwarded for computer scoring. The answer sheets are then reviewed and entered into a database and the MLQ reports generated for each individual leader. For research purposes, the data are compiled with the current normative database on file for the MLQ.

4.4.2.4 The interpretation of the MLQ

In the feedback report that is provided to each individual leader, average ratings are provided with each of the leadership styles names showing how frequently the leader displays that leadership style. In Table 4.4 an example of this layout is set out:

TABLE 4.4: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MLQ SCALES, LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EFFECTIVENESS



Transformational leadership	
Idealised attributes	<i>fairly often (3.2)</i>
Idealised behaviours	<i>sometimes (2.3)</i>
Inspirational motivation	<i>fairly often (3.1)</i>
Intellectual stimulation	<i>sometimes (2.4)</i>
Individualised consideration	<i>sometimes (2.4)</i>
Transactional leadership	
Contingent reward	<i>fairly often (3.0)</i>
Management-by-exception (active)	<i>once in a while (1.2)</i>
Management-by-exception (passive)	<i>sometimes (1.6)</i>
Non-transactional leadership	
Laissez-faire	<i>once in a while (0.7)</i>

Source: Adapted from (Bass & Avolio, 1995:10).

Table 4.4 shows the relationship between the MLQ leadership style ratings, indicating the effectiveness of a leader's performance. Bass and Avolio (1995:11-15) provide the following guiding scores with which the leader's scores should be compared:

- The most effective leaders display transformational leadership behaviours at least *fairly often* (3.0)
- The most effective leaders display idealised attributes behaviours at least *fairly often* (3.0)
- The most effective leaders display idealised behaviours at least *fairly often* (3.0)
- The most effective leaders display inspirational motivation behaviours at least *fairly often* (3.0)
- The most effective leaders display intellectual stimulation behaviours at least *fairly often* (3.0)
- The most effective leaders display individualised consideration behaviours at least *fairly often* (3.0)
- Effective leaders display contingent reward at least *sometimes* (2.0)
- Management-by-exception (active) can be between *sometimes* (2.0) and *once in a while* (1.0)
- Management-by-exception (passive) should be between *once in a while* and *not at all* (0.0)
- Laissez-faire should be between *once in a while* and *not at all* (0.0)

According to Bass and Avolio (1990:4.10-4.11), the optimal leader is one who integrates both transactional and transformational leadership approaches, as demonstrated by the guiding scores above. The key focus for the leader when using the feedback for developing purposes would be on balancing the styles measured by the MLQ with a greater emphasis on transformational leadership.

4.4.2.5 The reliability of the MLQ

Howell and Avolio (1993:896) found that all MLQ items had factor loadings on their respective constructs that were greater than 0.7, except for one measure or item for each of the following constructs: intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, active management by exception, and passive management by exception. The researchers explain that accepting factor loadings exceeding 0.7 is a stricter criterion than the 0.3 or more researchers traditionally accept. Furthermore in exploratory research even these guidelines are frequently relaxed. Internal consistency reliabilities of all constructs were greater than 0.7 and the average variance was greater than 0.5 for all constructs, with the exception of passive management by exception (Howell & Avolio, 1993:897).

Gardner and Stough (2002:73) reports that reliabilities for the total items of the MLQ (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and outcomes) and for each subscale range from $\alpha = 0.74$ to 0.94. According to Van Rensburg and Crous (2000:41), the questionnaire complies with the research requisites for reliability with Spearman-Brown formula alpha coefficients, for the MLQ scales, of between 0.81 and 0.96.

4.4.2.6 The validity of the MLQ

Howell and Avolio (1993:897) explain that the examination of discriminant validity is especially important in leadership studies as the constructs are typically highly interrelated. The factors composing transformational leadership are often highly correlated with each other, as well as with contingent reward leadership. This has led some critics to question the construct validity of the MLQ questionnaire. They were however able to conclusively find that the factor and cross-factor loadings of all the items, loaded more highly on the construct they purported to measure than on other constructs, indicating adequate discriminant validity. Furthermore a comparison of the variance shared by a construct and its measures to the variance shared between constructs

revealed adequate discriminant validity among the respective leadership constructs.

According to Van Rensburg and Crous (2000:41), the questionnaire complies with the research requisites for validity, with test re-testing validities of between 0.44 and 0.74.

4.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to establish a link between personality preferences and transformational leadership qualities, the following research methodology was followed.

Firstly the researcher negotiated and contracted with the management of each of the organisations for the execution of the research, whereby permission was obtained to perform the study.

A special four-day workshop was attended and accreditation for the MBTI® was obtained.

A survey study was utilised to test the research hypotheses by means of the two standardised questionnaires. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby a sample is drawn from a population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997:34). Information collected is used to describe the population at that point in time. This design can be used to assess interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997:37), this design is ideally suited to the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational research.


The researcher made use of convenience sampling where willing respondents were chosen within certain clusters as formed within the approached organisations. By making use of this method, some loss in sampling accuracy may occur, but there is a considerable saving in time and money (Huysamen, 1994:45) as well as practical limitations that had to be adhered to in the organisations.

The data gathering process was performed by means of the respondents in the identified companies being assisted by a qualified, trained and accredited person, to complete the standardised questionnaires.

The raw data scores obtained by the respondents on the questionnaires was analysed by the Statistical Consultation Services (Statkon) at the Rand Afrikaans University. After the interpretation and report writing was finalised, feedback was provided to the management of each the involved organisations.

4.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data gathered by this study was analysed by the Statistical Consultation Services at the Rands Afrikaans University by means of the SPSS 12 program (SPSS Inc, 2004).

- 
- Correlations are drawn between the MBTI and MLQ data and findings with special attention to:
 - Personality preferences, whole type (the combinations of the basic preferences)
 - Pairings of temperaments as well as key pairings as indicated by the MBTI manual
 - Statistically significant correlations will be those at a level $> 0,9$.

Inferential statistics are used to interpret available data and to determine relevant characteristics thereof. It often involves comparing results from different data sources to test hypotheses and to determine the correlation between characteristics. Correlations are reflected on a scatter graph indicating the nature of relationship or correlation between variables (correlation coefficient or r). The closer a decimal between 0 (no correlation) and 1 (perfect correlation) is the more or less stronger the relationship between two variables can be expected to be. Correlations indicate how different variables tend to move in relationship to each other (Van Rooyen *et al.*, 2001:61).

4.7 HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

Given the research literature an expectation exists that a statistically significant difference will be found between aspects of personality preferences of transformational and non-transformational leaders. Therefore transformational leaders will be identifiable from non-transformational leaders by their personality preferences. The hypotheses is specifically put non-directional, as this explorative study's purpose is to, against the background of extensive descriptions of transformational behaviour, identify those personality preferences that distinguish transformational from non-transformational leaders.

Specific objectives in gaining theoretical knowledge are:

- To determine how the leadership styles of transformational and non-transformational leaders are conceptualised in literature.
- To determine how personality preferences are conceptualised in literature.

Specific empirical objectives that follow from the theoretical knowledge are:

- To identify transformational leaders in the selected South African organisations.
- To determine the personality preferences of the identified transformational leaders and establish any possible links between the transformational leadership style and chosen personality preferences.
- To determine whether personality preference can be utilised to predict transformational leadership.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter a research methodology was set out in accordance with the purpose of the empirical research, the description of the research group and the rationale behind the measurement battery. The methodology and statistical analysis was explained and lastly the hypotheses were formulated.

In Chapter 5 the results of the empirical chapter are set out and elaborated on. Firstly the descriptive statistics will be discussed whereafter the results from the t-test comparisons between the MBTI® personality preferences and MLQ transformational leadership will be commented on. The cross tabulations between the personality preferences and transformational leadership behaviours are noted and scrutinised in conclusion.



CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the empirical data of this study will be reported. Descriptive statistics will be discussed firstly focusing on various frequency distributions of the scores and data gathered on the instruments used in this study. The results from the t-test comparisons between the MBTI® personality preferences and MLQ transformational leadership will then be discussed. Hereafter the cross tabulations between the personality preferences and transformational leadership behaviours as measured by the instruments used in the study, will be noted and discussed. The scores of the total group will be compared to norms and other studies in Chapter 6 (p. 91).

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

5.2.1 Frequency analysis of the data on the MBTI® and MLQ

In this section the frequency distributions of the MBTI® and MLQ scores are discussed.

5.2.1.1 Frequency distributions across the 16 MBTI® and 4 MBTI® scales

The frequency distributions of the 16 MBTI® types for the total group are reported in the MBTI® type table in Table 5.1 (p. 77). From this table it can be seen that not all the types were represented in the research group, with the ISTJ quadrant being more dominant than the other quadrants.

TABLE 5.1: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS ACROSS THE 16 MBTI® TYPES FOR THE TOTAL RESEARCH GROUP

INTJ 6 9%	INTP 6 9%	ENTP 3 4.5%	ENTJ 5 7.5%
INFJ 0 0%	INFP 1 1.5%	ENFP 0 0%	ENFJ 0 0%
ISFJ 2 3%	ISFP 0 0%	ESFP 1 1.5%	ESFJ 5 7.5%
ISTJ 21 32%	ISTP 1 1.5%	ESTP 2 3%	ESTJ 13 20%

The frequency distributions across the MBTI® scales are reported in Table 5.2 (p. 78). From this table it can be seen that on the extroversion/introversion dimension the difference for both the total research group as well as the female and male groups were quite similar. The frequency distribution indicated between 11 percent and 15 percent larger preference for introversion than extroversion in the research group. The division of the male scores between the extroversion and introversion concepts was 44.4 percent for extroversion and 55.6 percent for introversion, while 43.3 percent of the females preferred extroversion and 56.7 percent preferred introversion.

When compared to South African norms found by Van Rooyen and Partners (2003:2) in a meta-analysis involving 6 452 respondents, the ISTJ (19.9%) and ESTJ (23.2%) was also the most

frequently found whole type preference compared to this research of ISTJ (32%) and ESTJ (20%).

TABLE 5.2: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS ACROSS THE FOUR MBTI® SCALES

Scale		Frequency	%*	Scale		Frequency	%*	Total
E	T	29	43.9	I	T	37	56.1	66
	M	16	44.4		M	20	55.6	36
	F	13	43.3		F	17	56.7	30
T	T	57	86.4	F	T	9	13.6	66
	M	35	97.2		M	1	2.8	36
	F	22	73.3		F	8	26.7	30
S	T	45	68.2	N	T	21	31.8	66
	M	20	55.6		M	16	44.4	36
	F	25	83.3		F	5	16.7	30
J	T	52	78.8	P	T	14	21.2	66
	M	25	69.4		M	11	30.6	36
	F	27	90.0		F	4	10.0	30

T = Total research group

M = Males who completed that MBTI®

F = Females who completed the MBTI®

* Percentages for male and females are calculated as a percentage of the total male and female scores on that particular scale.

The biggest difference, nearly 73 percent, for the total group between two sides of a scale was found with the thinking/feeling dimension. The frequency distribution across this scale indicated that the total group included more thinking oriented than feeling oriented participants. The division of the male scores between the thinking and feeling concepts were 97.2 percent for thinking and only 2.8 percent for feeling, while 73.3 percent of the females preferred thinking

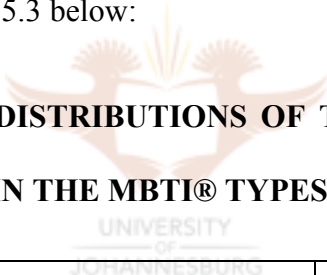
and 26.7 percent preferred feeling.

The frequency distribution across the sensing/intuitive dimension indicated that there were 36.4 percent more sensing types in the total research group than intuitive types. The division of scores on the SN scale indicated that 55.6 percent of the males preferred sensing, while 83.3 percent of the females preferred sensing.

The frequency distribution across the JP dimension indicated that there were 57.6 percent more judging types in the total research group than perceptive types. The division of scores on the JP scale indicated that 69.4 percent of the males and 90 percent of the females preferred judging.

The frequency distributions of the four temperaments as reflected in the 16 MBTI® types for the total group are reported in Table 5.3 below:

TABLE 5.3: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE FOUR TEMPERAMENTS AS REFLECTED IN THE MBTI® TYPES



Temperament	Frequency	Percentage
NF	1	1.5
NT	20	30.3
SJ	41	62.1
SP	4	6.1
Total	66	100

When considering the frequency distributions as set out in Table 5.3 a clear preference for the SJ temperament can be seen with 62.1 percent of the total group indicating a preference for this temperament.

Due to the unrepresentative nature of the NF and SP temperaments as well as the unbalanced sizes of the whole types as set out in Table 5.1 (p. 77), the statistical analysis of the data was severely curtailed for both temperaments and whole types. For the rest of the empirical analysis process it was only possible to utilise the data on the individual preferences of the leaders in the research group.

The frequency distributions of the research group on the MLQ scales will be discussed.

5.2.1.2 Frequency distributions of the MLQ

The frequency distributions as obtained by the research group are set out below in Table 5.4 and Table 5.5 (p. 81).

TABLE 5.4: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE MLQ LEADERSHIP STYLE RATINGS

Organisation		Non-transformational leaders (Transactional leaders)	Transformational leaders	Total
Financial	$\frac{n}{\%}$	40 78.4	11 21.6	51 77.3
Entertainment	$\frac{n}{\%}$	13 86.7	2 13.3	15 22.7
Total	$\frac{n}{\%}$	53 80.3	13 19.7	66 100.0

When considering the data as set out in Table 5.4 it is important to note that the categorisation of transformational and non-transformational leaders for this study was made on the grounds that a leader must have scored at least 3 on all five of the MLQ's subdivided leadership behaviours. Although this might be seen as a rather strict criterion by some, for the purposes of the

correctness of the rest of the statistical analyses, such a narrow definition was taken as a guideline.

The organisation in the financial industry presented with 11 (21.6 percent) transformational leaders out of the total group of 51 leaders from this organisation that participated in the study. The organisation in the entertainment industry presented with 2 (13.3 percent) transformational leaders out of the total group of 15 leaders from this organisation. The total research group of 66 leaders presented with 19.7 percent transformational leaders as identified by means of the MLQ.

In Table 5.5 the frequency distributions of the MLQ leadership style ratings are considered in greater detail. The descriptions as used in the MLQ and MLQ report are utilised indicating how frequently participants displayed a particular leadership style.

TABLE 5.5: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE MLQ LEADERSHIP STYLE RATINGS

Scales		Not at all 0	Once in a while 1	Sometimes 2	Fairly often 3	Frequently, if not always 4
Idealised attributes	$\frac{n}{\%}$	0 0	2 3.0	28 42.5	35 53.0	1 1.5
Idealised behaviours	$\frac{n}{\%}$	0 0	3 4.5	33 50.0	30 45.5	0 0
Inspirational Motivation	$\frac{n}{\%}$	0 0	1 1.5	25 37.9	40 60.6	0 0
Intellectual Stimulation	$\frac{n}{\%}$	0 0	0 0	27 40.9	38 57.6	1 1.5
Individualised Consideration	$\frac{n}{\%}$	0 0	5 7.6	32 48.5	27 40.9	2 3.0
Average scores	$\frac{n}{\%}$	0 0	1 1.5	34 51.5	31 47.0	0 0

From Table 5.5 it is clear that the highest frequency distributions for the total research group fell within the categories *Sometimes* and *Fairly often*. The Inspirational Motivation scale received a rating of *Fairly often* (rating of 3) for 60 percent of the participants, with the Intellectual Stimulation receiving the same rating for 57.6 percent of the participants. Idealised Attributes followed closely with a rating of 53 percent and the other two scales 45.5 percent and 40.9 percent; therefore the smallest group of participants of the total research group exhibited Individualised Consideration.

When only considering the leaders, who presented with average scores of 3 or higher, 47 percent of them were exhibiting transformation leadership behaviour. With this broader definition it is clear that the percentage leaders who fall into the transformational category is much higher than the 19.7 percent noted in Table 5.4 (p. 80).



5.3 T-TEST COMPARISONS BETWEEN MBTI® PERSONALITY PREFERENCES AND MLQ TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

The t-test is a test of significance in which there are only two groups or variables (Zikmund, 2003:524). In the current study the t-test was useful in comparing the five transformational leadership style behaviours and the averages thereof with each of the four MBTI® dichotomies.

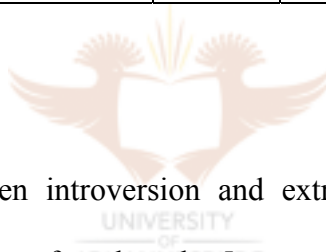
In Table 5.6 (p. 83) the t-test results with respect to the introversion and extroversion personality preferences as measured by the MBTI® will be discussed.

TABLE 5.6: T-TEST WITH RESPECT TO INTROVERSION/EXTROVERSION

Extrovert/Introvert		N	M	SD
Ave	Introvert	37	2.9811*	.42285
	Extrovert	29	2.7931*	.36148
IA	Introvert	37	3.0135	.61199
	Extrovert	29	2.9034	.42885
IB	Introvert	37	2.9162	.50690
	Extrovert	29	2.7276	.53445
IM	Introvert	37	3.1108*	.44956
	Extrovert	29	2.9103*	.44106
IS	Introvert	37	3.0351**	.42506
	Extrovert	29	2.7241**	.36903
IC	Introvert	37	2.8730	.61040
	Extrovert	29	2.7655	.56079

**p-value < 0.05

*p-value < 0.1



A significant difference between introversion and extroversion in terms of the Intellectual Stimulation rating on the MLQ was found on the 5 percent level of significance with a p-value of 0.003, which is < 0.05. A significant difference between introversion and extroversion in terms of the Average and Inspirational Motivation ratings as measured by the MLQ on the 10 percent level of significance was found, but not on the 5 percent level of significance. The p-values were respectively 0.061 and 0.075, which are both < 0.1.

The t-test results with respect to the intuition and sensing personality preferences as measured by the MBTI® will be discussed in Table 5.7 (p. 84).

TABLE 5.7: T-TEST WITH RESPECT TO INTUITION/SENSING

Sensing/Intuitive		N	M	SD
Ave	Intuitive	21	2.9048	.35139
	Sensing	45	2.8956	.43168
IA	Intuitive	21	3.0667	.41150
	Sensing	45	2.9178	.58632
IB	Intuitive	21	2.8571	.49656
	Sensing	45	2.8222	.54100
IM	Intuitive	21	3.1476	.39194
	Sensing	45	2.9644	.47250
IS	Intuitive	21	2.9190	.38421
	Sensing	45	2.8889	.45036
IC	Intuitive	21	2.6952	.56611
	Sensing	45	2.8867	.59299

No statistically significant difference was found between intuition and sensing in terms of any of the ratings on the MLQ on either the 1 percent or 5 percent level of significance.

TABLE 5.8: T-TEST WITH RESPECT TO FEELING/THINKING

Thinking/Feeling		N	M	SD
Ave	Feeling	9	2.7889	.31002
	Thinking	57	2.9158	.41781
IA	Feeling	9	2.9889	.41366
	Thinking	57	2.9614	.55830
IB	Feeling	9	2.6111	.54416
	Thinking	57	2.8684	.51657
IM	Feeling	9	2.8778	.38980
	Thinking	57	3.0456	.46178
IS	Feeling	9	2.7111	.36893
	Thinking	57	2.9281	.43167
IC	Feeling	9	2.7556	.44752
	Thinking	57	2.8368	.60876

No statistically significant difference was found between feeling and thinking in terms of any of the ratings on the MLQ on either the 1 percent or 5 percent level of significance.

TABLE 5.9: T-TEST WITH RESPECT TO JUDGING/PERCEPTION

Perceptive/Judging		N	M	SD
Ave	Judging	52	2.9038	.42976
	Perceptive	14	2.8786	.30929
IA	Judging	52	2.9519	.58393
	Perceptive	14	3.0143	.32783
IB	Judging	52	2.8481	.52748
	Perceptive	14	2.7786	.52503
IM	Judging	52	2.9981	.44961
	Perceptive	14	3.1143	.47370
IS	Judging	52	2.9019	.44699
	Perceptive	14	2.8857	.36132
IC	Judging	52	2.8442	.60437
	Perceptive	14	2.7571	.53308

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When considering the data as set out in Table 5.9 it is clear that no statistically significant difference was found between judging and perception in terms of any of the ratings on the MLQ on either the 1 percent or 5 percent level of significance.

5.4 CROSS TABULATIONS BETWEEN PERSONALITY PREFERENCES AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Cross tabulations of the four MBTI® and the MLQ scales will be reported on in the next paragraphs. The Pearson chi-square test was used to determine the statistical significance of the cross tabulations. A continuity correction was made, as the computation was only for a so-called 2 x 2 table.

TABLE 5.10: E/I * TRANSFORMATIONAL/TRANSACTIONAL CROSS TABULATION

			TFL_TSC		Total
			Transactional	Transformational	
EI	Introvert	Count	27	10	37
		% within EI	73.0%	27.0%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	50.9%	76.9%	56.1%
	Extrovert	Count	26	3	29
		% within EI	89.7%	10.3%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	49.1%	23.1%	43.9%
Total	Count	53	13	66	
	% within EI	80.3%	19.7%	100.0%	
	% within TFL_TSC	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The Pearson chi-square test with the continuity correction indicated that the EI cross tabulation data was not significant on either the 1 percent or the 5 percent level ($p = 0.168$). This means that the extroversion/introversion preference is independent from transformational leadership and can therefore not be utilised as a predictor of transformational leadership. The cross tabulations of the EI scale of the MBTI® and the MLQ indicated that 27 percent of the MBTI® introverts and 10.3 percent of the MBTI® extroverts were transformational in their leadership style.

The cross tabulation results with respect to the sensing and intuitive personality preferences as measured by the MBTI® and the identified transformational leaders as identified by the MLQ will be discussed in Table 5.11 (p. 87).

TABLE 5.11: S/N * TRANSFORMATIONAL/TRANSACTIONAL CROSS TABULATION

			TFL_TSC		Total
			Transactional	Transformational	
SN	Intuitive	Count	17	4	21
		% within SN	81.0%	19.0%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	32.1%	30.8%	31.8%
	Sensing	Count	36	9	45
		% within SN	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	67.9%	69.2%	68.2%
Total	Count	53	13	66	
	% within SN	80.3%	19.7%	100.0%	
	% within TFL_TSC	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The cross tabulations of the SN scale indicated that 20 percent of the MBTI® sensing types and 19 percent of the intuitive types were transformational in their leadership style. The Pearson chi-square test with the continuity correction indicated that the SN cross tabulation data was not significant on either the 1 percent or the 5 percent level ($p = 1.000$). This means that the sensing/intuitive preference is independent from transformational leadership.

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TABLE 5.12: T/F * TRANSFORMATIONAL/TRANSACTIONAL CROSS TABULATION

			TFL_TSC		Total
			Transactional	Transformational	
TF	Feeling	Count	9	0	9
		% within TF	100.0%	.0%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	17.0%	.0%	13.6%
	Thinking	Count	44	13	57
		% within TF	77.2%	22.8%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	83.0%	100.0%	86.4%
Total	Count	53	13	66	
	% within TF	80.3%	19.7%	100.0%	
	% within TFL_TSC	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The Pearson chi-square test with the continuity correction indicated that the TF cross tabulation data was not significant on either the 1 percent or the 5 percent level ($p = 0.251$). This indicates that the thinking/feeling preference is independent from transformational leadership. The cross tabulations of the TF scale indicated that 0 percent of the MBTI® feeling types and 22.8 percent of the thinkers were transformational in their leadership style.

TABLE 5.13: J/P * TRANSFORMATIONAL/TRANSACTIONAL CROSS TABULATION

			TFL_TSC		Total
			Transactional	Transformational	
PJ	Judging	Count	40	12	52
		% within PJ	76.9%	23.1%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	75.5%	92.3%	78.8%
	Perceptive	Count	13	1	14
		% within PJ	92.9%	7.1%	100.0%
		% within TFL_TSC	24.5%	7.7%	21.2%
Total	Count	53	13	66	
	% within PJ	80.3%	19.7%	100.0%	
	% within TFL_TSC	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The Pearson chi-square test with the continuity correction indicated that the PJ cross tabulation data was not significant on either the 1 percent or the 5 percent level ($p = 0.341$). This means that the judging/perceptive preference is independent from transformational leadership. The cross tabulations of the JP scale indicated that 23.1 percent of the MBTI® judging types and 7.1 percent of the perceptive types were transformational in their leadership style.

5.5 CONSOLIDATION OF FINDINGS

The various statistical analyses conducted with the data were for the three-fold purpose of firstly identifying transformational leaders in the selected organisations. Secondly, determining the

personality preferences of the identified transformational leaders and establishing any possible links between the transformational leadership style and chosen personality preferences. Thirdly, determining whether personality preference can be utilised to predict transformational leadership.

When considering the first objective, 47 percent (Table 5.4, p. 80) of the total research group presented with average scores of 3 or higher on the MLQ, therefore exhibiting transformational leadership behaviour. However when utilising a more stringent criterion of having to score 3 or higher on all five of the MLQ behaviours, only 19.7 percent (Table 5.5, p. 81) of the leaders fell into the transformational leadership category. For the purpose of this research the latter group was included in the statistical calculations.

As far as determining the personality preferences of the identified transformational leaders and establishing any possible links between the transformational leadership style and chosen personality preferences, the only significant difference was found between the introversion and extroversion preferences. A significant difference between introversion and extroversion in terms of the Intellectual Stimulation rating on the MLQ was found on the 5 percent level of significance. Furthermore a significant difference between introversion and extroversion in terms of the Average and Inspirational Motivation ratings was measured on the 10 percent level of significance, but not on the 5 percent level of significance. No other statistically significant differences or interdependencies were found between the personality preferences as identified by the MBTI® and any of the ratings on the MLQ on either the 1 percent or 5 percent level of significance.

The third objective of determining whether personality preference can be utilised to predict transformational leadership is therefore answered. From the findings of this study it seems as if personality preferences cannot be utilised to predict transformational leadership in for instance a

selection process in a company.

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the empirical data and findings were reported and discussed. These findings will be discussed and compared to norms and other studies in the next chapter.

In the light of the above, the three specific empirical objectives, as set out in Chapter 1, have been achieved.

In Chapter 6 the conclusions of the empirical study are provided whereafter the limitations of the research are presented and recommendations formulated.



CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the descriptive data and the statistical analysis of the data were reported. In this chapter these results will be considered in more depth. The limitations of this study will be reviewed thereafter and will be followed by both general recommendations as well as for future research.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions are formulated in relation to the specific objectives of this study.

Regarding the specific theoretical objectives, the following conclusions are made:

- **Transformational leadership** is a process in which the leader takes action to ensure organisational and individual transformation by raising the followers' and colleagues' motivational maturity and to move them to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group, the organisation or society. These leaders provide their followers with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided while becoming aware of what is morally right.
- **Personality types** are viewed as distinguishing elements of a general attitude that presents itself in various individual versions. A person can present themselves on any point between two extremes and can therefore be classified on a continuum. When an individual is classified as presenting a specific personality type, it gives no explanation of the reason for

their behaviour, but merely provides a description of their behaviour. Individuals are capable of deciding which personality type they feel comfortable with. This being the reason for referring to personality preferences. Differences in people result from:

- ~ The way people prefer to relate to each other, their orientation or where they prefer to focus their attention and obtain energy (**Extraversion** or **Introversion**);
- ~ The way people prefer to take in information and gather data (**Sensing** or **Intuition**);
- ~ The way they prefer to process data and make decisions (**Thinking** or **Feeling**); and
- ~ The way they prefer to organise themselves and how they orient themselves to the external world, either with a judging or a perceiving process (**Judging** or **Perceiving**)

In respect of the specific empirical objectives the following conclusions are made:

- The results on the MBTI TF scale of this study (p. 78) indicated that males preferred thinking and that females preferred feeling. These findings align with a study by Frazer (1994:141) involving 246 RAU students.
- When considering the frequency distributions as set out in Table 5.3 (p. 79) a clear preference for the SJ temperament can be seen with 62.1 percent of the total group indicating a preference for this temperament. As explained in Chapter 1 (p. 7) these individuals have a need to belong, to obtain membership, are responsible, can be held accountable, are duty conscious, traditionalists and serving is most important to them. These characteristics mentioned seem to be related to the description of management functions by various authors and researchers as set out in Chapter 2 (p. 16). The majority of the research group therefore may perceive themselves and are perceived by their followers, as managers as opposed to leaders. Another reason for this finding may be their managerial level and depth of their experience in the organisation.

- Only 19.7 percent of the respondents in this study fell into the transformational leadership category. Maritz (2000:17, 18) measured 7 562 South African leaders with the MLQ and compared the normative data with the ideal and international leadership profiles. He states that South African leaders still need to develop transformational leadership abilities. South African leaders however possess the potential leadership characteristics and behaviour to become more transformational and surpassed the international sample in exhibiting transformational leadership behaviours. The leaders still spend a lot of time actively correcting mistakes, controlling and practising crisis management instead of spending more time leading and developing their followers.
- A significant difference between introversion and extroversion in terms of the Average, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation ratings were found. Notwithstanding this finding, on the cross tabulations between personality preferences and transformational leadership introversion and extroversion were found to be independent from transformational leadership and can therefore not be utilised as a predictor of transformational leadership.
- In this study no links were found between the transformational leadership style of the leaders and their chosen personality preferences.
- From the findings of this study it is evident that personality preferences cannot be utilised to predict transformational leadership.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

The following limitations regarding this study are identified:

- The empirical research included only leaders from two organisations in different industries and candidates were selected by means of convenience sampling. Inferences made, as a

result of this study is best reserved to the research group and not generalised.

- The present study is limited by the small sample size that was used. At the same time, the small ratio of variables has reduced options for other factor analytic solutions to be used. Hence, subsequent research should seek to replicate the present findings with larger samples.
- A further limitation of this study is that the researcher was unable to observe the respondents interacting with their followers. Observational data to supplement the test battery would serve to enhance the understanding of these complex forms of leadership.
- The level of the respondents in the research was restricted to team leaders and did not include senior managers, which may have influenced the findings of this study.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

- The experiential knowledge gained through the empirical study results and the theoretical knowledge gained through the literature results, could be communicated to the participants and their organisations.
- The same research may be conducted utilising alternative measures of transformational leadership as well as personality preferences as well as duplicating the research but utilise qualitative research methods.
- The respondents involved in this study may be described as managers who have not yet developed leadership skills. Therefore a leadership development intervention focusing on developing transformational leadership skills in an ever-changing business environment is recommended. Leaders seem to be focused on non-transformational functions due to outdated organisational structures and reward systems as well as a lack of a global international outlook. Fostering an environment for transformational leadership in an organisation is as important as developing transformational leaders.

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