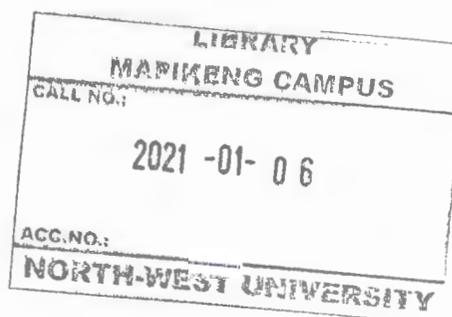


**The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment in  
Randfontein Health Sub-District at Gauteng Province in Johannesburg**

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**A mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment for the Degree Masters of  
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## DECLARATION

I Enos. E. Mungai declare that the mini-dissertation submitted is my original research work. This mini-dissertation has not been submitted to any academic institution.

Mungai

12/4/2014

Signature

Date

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## **ABSTRACT**

The Effective leaders are enablers, which leads to competent and committed employees. Studies in the literature of organisational psychology and organisational behavior have shown that leadership styles and employee commitment are of major factors to the organisational success or failure.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between leadership styles (transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire) and employee commitments (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) in the Randfontein Health Sub-district (RHSD) in, Gauteng Province. There were 115 participants in the research, including 95 academic staff 20 leaders and 95 academic staff/supervisors who were asked to give their perceptions of leadership styles. There was a non-response rate of 27.7% from 12 (RHSD). Two separate instruments, namely multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) and organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), were used to measure leadership styles and employees' organisational commitment respectively. The findings of the study revealed that transformational leadership style has significant and positive correlations with affective and continuance employee commitments while transactional leadership style has significant and positive correlation with normative commitment only. A laissez-faire leadership style is found to be significantly and negatively associated with employees' affective commitment.

**Keywords: Leadership styles, Employee commitment, RHSD, Academic staff/supervisors**

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Background of study**

Leadership is one of the qualities that you know when you see it, but is difficult to describe. There are almost as many definitions as there are commentators. Many associate leadership with single person leadership. Four things stand out in this respect. Firstly, to lead involves influencing others. Secondly, where there are leaders there are followers. Thirdly, leaders seem to come to the fore when there is a crisis or special problem. In other words they often become visible when an innovative response is needed. Fourthly, Leaders are people who have a clear idea of what they want to achieve and why. Thus, leaders are people who are able to think and act creatively in non routine situations and who set out to influence the actions, beliefs and feelings of others. In this sense being a “leader” is personal. It flows from an individual’s management of expectations. Here there can be a lot of confusion. Not all managers, for example, are leaders and not all leaders are managers.

Leaders need a new mix of competencies to properly shape their board and develop their subordinates to meet 21st-century challenges. Shifting cultures, rapidly changing technology and other factors will require new patterns of leadership. Leaders of the 21st-century will need greater awareness of diverse factors and new sets of competencies - characteristics that lead to success on the job - to help them make relevant, correct and timely decisions in the leadership of change and leadership of people.

An important factor in the leadership process is the relationship that a leader has with individual followers. Previous researches have shown that successful interaction between leaders and their followers is central to the overall functioning of a company. Noormala and Syed, (2009); Graen and Uhl-Bien, (1995). High-quality leader-follower relationships have been found to have impact on employee performance, organisational commitment, delegation, empowerment, and job satisfaction. Noormala and Syed, (2009), Gerstner and Day, (1997). One rationale for this study is that good leader-follower relationships are vital to ensure the effective functioning of any company.

The workplace is changing dramatically and demands for the highest quality of product and service is increasing. To remain competitive in the face of these pressures, employee commitment is crucial. This reality is applicable to all organisations but it is of particular importance to small and medium sized businesses. Much has been written recently about the need for improving the education, training and development of the organisational workforce. As important as this is, Hersey & Blanchard (1984) argue that, “at least equal emphasis must be given to improving the quality of leadership if business is to succeed in achieving greater employee commitment and thereby its profitability”.

Researchers recognize that employee commitment (Brockner et al.,1992; Meyer et al., 2004; Allen & Meyer, 1990) and leadership styles (Bass, 1997; Bass et al., 2003; Trottier et al., 2008) are major factors in the organisational success or failure. Allen & Myer (1990) also suggest that the continued interest in commitment is a result of the belief that if properly managed, employee commitment can result in benefits such as leadership effectiveness, improved employee performance, reduced turnover and absenteeism. This attempt to exploit the potential organisational benefits has resulted in the large number of studies that focus on the nature of employee commitment.

Leadership is one of the most pressing issues and one of the least understood concepts in the corporate world. The history of leadership encompasses several paradigm shifts and a voluminous body of knowledge. As a universal activity, leadership is fundamental for effective organisational and social functioning. The very nature of leadership is its influencing process and its resultant outcomes. Such a process is determined by the leaders' and follower's characteristics, dispositions, behavior perceptions, attributions and the context wherein the process of influencing occurs. The moral purpose of leadership is to create an empowered follower that leads to moral outcomes that are achieved through moral means”. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1984).

According to Bass & Avolio (1993), leadership styles are behaviours or processes that leaders conduct or participate in that enable extraordinary things to be done in or by the organization. Therefore, leadership in the organisational context in this study is related to

the person who is appointed by the organisation or owner to follow up the whole or sub activities of the organization as well as the subordinate's report in the context of a work place relationship.

The term employee commitment is mainly defined as a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization. In many organizations there is a growing commitment gap – a widening split between the expectations of employers and what workers are prepared to do. There are a number of reasons for this erosion of employee commitment; the most common one being a failure of management in some way or another. To be effective, the skills of committed employee management must be installed in an organisation so they become part of its culture. “In this way there will be consistency and equity with respect to how people are managed from the top down to the most junior employee”.(Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Businesses need skilled, competent and committed employees as effective team members to succeed. Failure to ensure this by managers or supervisors can lead to the loss of valued employees who place a premium on the success of organisation. Employee behaviour on the job is influenced by his or her immediate supervisor. Positive influences are essential to strengthening employee commitment. Therefore, the first step in building commitment is to improve the quality of management (Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Meyer et al., 2004).

What is now apparent is that employee commitment will be largely influenced by the interactions that occur between colleagues and with their immediate and senior managers. Commitment is complex and continuous, and requires employers or managers to discover ways of enhancing the work life of their employees (Meyer *et al.*, 2004; Avolio et al. 2004). Thus, the commitment of competent employees is critical to the success of the organization.

## **1.2 Statement of Problem**

The interest in the influence of leadership on worker's performance represents an alternative to the traditional focus on the leader as the centre of attention and power, as with the sun in the "solar system." Although the qualities of leaders are obviously important, especially in teamwork, leaders need the skills to engage followers in productive and satisfying mutual pursuits. This is a departure from the usual way of seeing leadership qualities as possessions, rather than interpersonal links to others involved in shared activities.

Because not all those in leadership roles wish to be participative, understanding and overcoming such reluctance to involve followers becomes important. Not least as a source of resistance is the problem of some in leadership roles don't want to share responsibility and be accountable. It is against this background that this research work aims to assess the extent to which leadership impacts on the productivity of workers, e.g. the workers in this particular workplace.



In any given discipline, the success of a venture can nearly always be traced directly back to the vision and will of the leadership. Therefore, having effective leadership styles for the organization to retain competent employees is crucial to its survival. Brockner *et al.* (1992) suggested that the ability of an organisation, to successfully implement business strategies, to gain a competitive advantage and optimise human capital, largely depends, among other factors, on the leadership styles that "encourage employee commitment".

James & Collins (2008) suggest that employees already develop global beliefs of perceived organisational and perceived supervisor support. Due to the norm of mutual relationship, this support makes the employee feel obligated to exhibit beneficial organisational attitudes (commitment). Awan & Mahmood (2009) also claim that employee commitment reflects the quality of the leadership in the organisation. Therefore, it is logical to assume that leadership behaviour would have a significant relationship to the development of employee commitment.

Many of the previous researchers have also suggested a positive direct relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment. Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008)

identified a positive relationship between leadership styles and employees commitment. Ponnu and Tennakoon (2009) also indicated that ethical leadership behaviour has a positively associated with employees' organizational commitment. In addition, Avolio *et al.* (2004) discovered that transformational leadership is generally associated with employee commitment, although it is limited to only one variable of leadership styles excluding others (transactional & laissez-faire leadership).

Therefore, this study is considered important to determine the relationship between leadership styles of educational institutions administrators within (i.e. transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership) and employee commitment of instructors (i.e. affective, normative and continuance) in Randfontein Health Sub-district, Gauteng.

### **1.3 Objectives of Study**

The overall aim of this study is to explore the relationship between leadership styles of all leaders and employee commitment of Randfontein Health Sub-district, Gauteng. To achieve this aim, the specific objectives of this study are:

- To identify the employees' perceptions of leadership styles and different dimensions of employee commitment
- To examine the relationship between different leadership styles and employee commitment dimensions
- To make suggestions on leadership patterns with a view to improving employees' commitment.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

In view of the above objectives, the main and specific questions that are to be addressed in this study are:

- What is the nature of leadership styles and employee commitment in Randfontein Health Sub-district? (main research question)

Specific research questions are:

- What are the perceptions of academic staff concerning leadership styles and employee commitment at Randfontein Health Sub-district, Gauteng? What is the relationship between transformational leadership style and affective, continuance, and normative employee commitment?
- What is the relationship between transformational leadership style and affective, continuance, and normative employee commitment?
- What is the relationship between transactional leadership style and affective, continuance, and normative employee commitment?
- What is the relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and affective, continuance, and normative employee commitment?

### **1.5 Potential Ethical Issues**

The researcher addressed ethical considerations of confidentiality and privacy. I used a rigorous and conscious effort at all times to sustain this promise. A guarantee was given to the Randfontein Health Sub-district, Gauteng s' respondents that their names would not be revealed in the questionnaire and research report. In order to ensure the success of the research, leaders were linked to subordinates in such a manner that each subordinate's response remained anonymous apart from being linked to a particular leader. Informed consent was obtained before the survey, participants received a verbal and written description of the study, and informed consent was obtained before the survey. Participation in the study was voluntary, and all participant responses were confidential. Finally, a copy of the final report could be given to the organisation if necessary and information was stored in a safe place accessible only to me.

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

This study significant in this various ways; Firstly, it studies the association between leadership styles and employee commitment in the Randfontein Health Sub-district,

Gauteng because this particular type of study had not been previously conducted in academic staff and leaders in general. Therefore, its result is important to create awareness to leaders of mentioned organisations of the most determinant variables that can influence the commitment level of their employees.

Secondly, the findings of this study add to the wealth of knowledge in other leadership and employee commitment studies. It could also be helpful for individuals who want to conduct further studies in related topics and other organisations that face similar problems.

Inevitably, this study has contributed to the growing body of research on leadership styles and organisational commitment by examining the three important leadership styles and their impact on organisational commitment. It is believed that this study would have added value to the literatures on both academic staff and leaders in general's leadership styles, especially in the Randfontein settings since there was limited literatures previously, done in similar a setting.

### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

The main focus of this study is the examination of the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment in Randfontein Health Sub-district, Gauteng. The data for this study is delimited to the academic employees and their leaders of the Randfontein Health Sub-district in city of Johannesburg. This study also limited in the sampling frame, which only considered a particular group of public health service and therefore the results cannot be generalised to the whole health industry or to other types of organisations of the country. Therefore, any term found in this study should be interpreted in relation to the leadership styles and employee commitment of the academic staff in the Randfontein Health District in Johannesburg city.

### **1.8 Limitations of the Study**

Some constraints, such as time and lack of sufficient funds, prevented the inclusion of a large sample size that could nearly represent the total population of the study. In order to get a stronger picture of the issues in the different organisations, I would have liked to involve a larger number of respondents. However, due to the time frame limitations provided by our study program, this was not possible. The shortage of up to date reference materials and works, also narrowed the content of the study.

The leadership styles that were part of this study may not have been extremely important factors in determining employees' levels of organisational commitment. Instead, environmental factors may have been more important for these employees. In addition, results might be different for employees who were employed by public companies. A further consideration involves the demographics. Results might have been different if percentages for sex, age, time with institution, time with leader, and education were different.

Another barrier I came across in the process of data collection was refusal by management of some institutions to formally permit the distribution of the questionnaire for unconvincing reasons such as lack of time to fill it in, fear of sensitivity of the questionnaire's contents if its results were presented to public, etc. Although I had an enthusiastic group of participants who were willing to fill in the questionnaire, there were some employees who would not volunteer to be part of the study for unknown reasons. Unfortunately non returned questionnaires were also a limitation for this study.

## **1.9 Research Hypothesis**

H0: That leadership style or pattern does not impact on the performance of workers in an organisation.

H1: That leadership style or pattern impacts on the performance of workers in an organisation.

The concept and definition of leadership and style may differ from one person, or situation, to the other. The word, "leadership" has been used in various aspects of human

endeavor such as politics, businesses, academics, social works, etc. The quality of leadership could be seen as personal ability of academic staff and the leaders in the organisation. Messick and Kramer (2004) argued that the degree to which the individual exhibits leadership traits depends not only on his characteristics and personal abilities, but also on the characteristics of the situation and environment in which he finds himself. Since human beings could become members of an organisation in order to achieve certain personal objectives, the extent to which they are active members depends on how they are convinced that their membership will enable them to achieve their predetermined objectives. The successful leadership influence brings about behaviour and results intended by the leader. Therefore, an individual will support an organisation if he believes that through it his personal objectives and goals could be met; if not, the person's interest will decline. Leadership style in an organisation is one of the factors that play a significant role in enhancing or retarding the interest and commitment of the individuals in the organisation. Thus, Glantz (2002) emphasises the need for a manager to find his leadership style.



Among the objectives of Randfontein Health sub-district (RHSD) are non profit making and attainment of liquidity status. In the pursuit of these objectives, RHSD allocate resources to non competing ends, examples: procurement management, risk management and cost management). In the process they deliver health care services delivery to everyone. The effectiveness of this process is greatly determined by the availability of, and access, to personnel, equipment, finance, and services available to their immediate community and the nation at large.

The extent to which members of an organisation contribute in harnessing the resources of the organisation also depends on how well the managers (leaders) of the organisation understand and adopt appropriate leadership style in performing their roles as managers and leaders. Thus, efficiency in mobilization, allocation and utilization of resources and enhancement of organisational performance, depends, to a large extent, on leadership styles, among other factors.

## **1.10 Structure of the Study**

This thesis is organized into six chapters. Below Figure 1.1, shows the structure of the thesis.

**Chapter 1: Introduction:** presented in the current section; the contents of the following chapters are briefly mentioned here.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review:** provides an overview of the existing literature.

**Chapter 3: Research Methodology:** presents the methodology used in this thesis. The chapter includes the research approach and describes the data collecting and methods of analysis used.

**Chapter 4: Data analysis, Interpretations and Discussion:** analyses and presents the research findings obtained through the thesis methodology by showing how each of the research questions has been answered and how these findings together contribute to the main purpose of the study.

**Chapter 5: Conclusions and Suggestions:** ends the thesis with conclusions and a set of suggestions derived from the research findings and the conclusions of this work. At the end of the thesis document, references and a set of appendices are included that contain the questionnaires used to collect primary data for this work supplementary documents of the study are also included.

## **CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

These studies were generally conducted in the context of business organisations, yet there have been few researches conducted in Health organisations specifically in South Africa. Thus, the aim of this research is to determine the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment of Randfontein Health District in Gauteng Province.

In Chapter2, the researcher builds up a theoretical framework that addresses the major aspects of the study. The researcher aim to identify leadership style theories through a revision of trait, behavioral and situational leadership theories, starting with the difficulties facing each one. It arrives at the most contemporary theory-the full range leadership theory, developed by Avolio and Bass (1995 and 1997).

### **Section one: Concept of leadership**

Leadership can be defined as a complex social process, rooted in aspects of values, skills, knowledge as well as ways of thinking of both leaders and followers. Thus, it is all about the continuous process of establishing and maintaining a connection between who aspire to lead and those who are willing to follow (Hersey & Blanchard, 1984). Many academicians and researchers have made vital contributions in the different theories as well as practices of leadership, and after of extensive research, the subject of leadership has emerged as a legitimate discipline. However, there is still disagreement about what leadership actually is. Many scholars and researchers agreed that leadership is a combination of skills and behaviour (Bass et al., 2003; Bolden et al, 2003; James & Collins, 2008).

### **2.1 Introduction**

The shift towards recognising the importance of human capital as an asset in capital in industrial relations has led companies, and organisations, to change their paradigms about people management. Most organisations no longer see employees as a resource whose primary functions is to provide goods and services, but rather as critical to their capacity

in providing quality service (Farzad, 2006, p.12) “and their ability to grow and evolve continuously”.

The success of any organisation is dependent upon a collection in the company of individuals including leaders and subordinates, and the amount of effort each puts into it. To understand organisational effectiveness, many researchers and practitioners have developed various theories regarding leadership, organisational commitment and “job satisfaction”. (Cheng, 2003, p.1)

In their review of the literature, Wallace and Weese found ineffective leadership to be “the major cause of declining industrial productivity and a downward positioning of North American corporations on a global scale”, (Wallace and Weese, 1995,p 182)

One reason for examining the leadership style is because research can help identify critical skills needed by leaders in today’s world, where effective leadership can be the key success in many organisations. Leaders influence long term changes in attitude and ultimately on organisational commitment. For example, in a large manufacturing corporation in the Midwest, Dale and Fox (2008) found a positive link between leadership style and organisational commitment. They concluded that when subordinates perceive that the supervisor exhibits a high level of initiating structure, the supervisor is formalizing the work environment or providing formal rules and procedures for employees to follow. As a result employees feel more responsible and thus have higher affective commitment.

With the increased competition and organisational change, the issue of organisational commitment has become an increasingly common construct for inquiry. For Weber (1946) leadership rests in three possible sources (ideal types) of authority: charismatic authority, reflected personal characteristics; traditional authority, which resulted from “functional duty of office”. Weber, 1946, p 138. There is now new theoretical perspectives and concepts that emphasise personal relationships of a leader, rather than personal characteristics.

## **2.2 Definition of leadership**

Jago, 1982. Leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Northouse's (2007, p3) definition, "Leadership" is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership knowledge and skills.

Leaders are skilled communicators who can communicate their vision to others and inspire them to pursue a common goal, empowering them in the process. These types of leaders are adept at developing others' personal ownership of the vision, stimulating commitment, supporting people to work together and inspiring collective loyalty. The influence that leaders have over followers is constantly being negotiated and is a function of several variables, including the self-identity of the followers (Douglas, Brown and Freiberg, 1999).

Another type of leadership that has been described in the business literature is "transactional" leadership, which is managerial. Cooperation occurs through negotiations and loyalty is bought with reward to individuals. In these cases, some employees demonstrate little or no commitment to the organisation's mission or vision, and cooperation is the result of negotiations. "This model emphasises marginal improvements in performance based on exchange relationships with subordinates" (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Watson (2007) investigated the by specifically focusing on leader behavior and its impact on subordinate outcomes, such as commitment and satisfaction with supervision. Today, the geographical distance between workers is increasing and this study asks if the traditional core set of leadership behaviours is effective in distributed work environments, and how those behaviours impact followers "work results". Watson(2007), p123. Fundamental questions that were explored included: (a) essential management behaviours such as consideration and initiating structure; (b) the types of leadership that can have the

most positive impact on employee's perceptions of satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment.

The author reported that correlation data results did not support the hypothesis that face-to-face interaction scores were positively correlated with affective commitment or satisfaction with supervision. However, Face to face interaction was not negatively correlated with continuance commitment. There was also a stronger relationship between initiating structure and satisfaction with supervision when geographical distance was high; therefore, e.g. spatial distance seems to improve the relationship.

Porter, Steers, & Mowday (1982), define organisational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p.27). Meyer & Allen (1991) have offered the following definition of the three types of organizational commitment: (a) Affective commitment in to the salespeople’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organisation. Salespeople with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. (b) Continuance commitment was defined as an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Salespeople whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do. (c) Normative commitment represented a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Salespeople with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation.

Prior researches have claimed that work experiences and, personal and organisational factors serve as antecedents to organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1997). The significant personal and organisational factors have considered as a key effects to organisation commitment was leadership (Mowday et al., 1982). An effective leadership style would achieve a balance between transformational and transactional behaviours; which builds a suitable atmosphere in working and matches with the needs of salespeople. A leader could help salespeople to achieve more both individually and in the organisational.(Bass, 1998).

Leader has supported their salespeople by making them more self-confident and involves a sense of belonging, and a shared a sense of direction, which emerges as commitment and loyalty of salespeople to the organisation.

Transformational leadership has stimulated salespeople's to encouraged them get involved in the decision-making process and , inspiring loyalty, while recognising and appreciating the different needs of salespeople to develop their personal potential (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio.1994; Yammering Spangler & Bass. 1993). It has also envisioned an attractive future and inspired salespeople to be committed to achieving that future (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership have stimulated salespeople to seek new ways to approach problems and challenges, identifying salespeople's needs, leaders were able to motivate their salespeople to get more involved in their work, resulting in higher levels of organization commitment (Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003).

The existing leadership and management research suggests that the leadership style of managers can lead to higher measures of workers performance in their direct reports. As previously suggested, there is a significant body of literature that implies the relationship of leadership style to employees' organizational commitment.

Committed employees are more likely to develop patterns of punctuality or to be chronically present at work (Brockner *et al.*, 1992; Hunt & Morgan, 1994). Employees that are committed are also less likely to leave the organization to explore other opportunities (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment has also been shown to positively affect motivation, organizational citizenship, and job performance (Lok and Crawford, 1999; Meyer & Becker, 2004).

Leadership is a subject that has long excited interest people. The term connotes images of powerful, dynamic individual individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from top gleaming skyscrapers, and the course of nations. (Yurkl,202.p.1) Burns has written. " leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (Burns,1978, P.2), From the beginning of civilisation,

history has been concerned with the study of its leaders and leadership is still an area of active inquiry, “Indeed leadership is often regarded as the single most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions”(Burns,1990a)

The study of leadership began in the twentieth century and was initially concerned with leader effectiveness (Yurkl.202). Researchers have concluded that there almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.(Lok.2001)

Leadership has defined in terms of traits, behaviour, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2002.ps.2) Table 2.2 below some representative definitions

**Leadership Definition: Table 2.2a**

No	Leadership definition
1.	Leadership is “ the influence increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization”.(Katz and Kahn,1978,p.528)
2.	Leadership is exercised when persons mobilize institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers.( Buns,1978,p18)
3.	Leadership is the process of giving purpose ( meaningful direction ) to collective effort and causing willing effort to be expected to achieve purpose” ( Jacobs and Jaques 1990 p 281)
4.	Leadership is a process of influencing others to achieve organizational goals (Bartol and Martin, 1998, p.415)
5.	Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success the organizational(House et al 1999,p 184 )

6.	Leadership can be defined as the nature of the influencing process and its resultant outcomes that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the 's dispositional characteristics and behaviour, followers perceptions and contributions of the Leader and the context in which the influencing process occurs.(Antonakis ,et al 2004.p5)
7.	Leadership is a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader or mange wants to be done. (Schermerhorn, 2000 ,p 287)
8.	Leadership is a dynamic process, where leaders mobilize others to get extraordinary things done. To do so, leaders engage five practices: model the way inspire a shared vision, challenge the process enable others to act and encourage the heart.( Kouses and Posner, 2007 p14)

Despite numerous definitions of leadership, a frequently cited component is the concept of “influence”.Tannebaum and Massarik support the notion of influence when defining leadership as” interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward that attainment of a specialised goal or goal”. (Stumpf 2003)

Burns explains that leadership is more difficult than power, noting that “to control things tools, mineral resources, money, energy is an act of power not leadership, for things have no motives. Power wielders may treat people as things: leaders may not” (Burns.1978.p.18)

Barol and Martin, 1998 and House *et al.*(1999) explained of the importance of influence factor; while (Burns, 1978) emphasised the need to arouse, engage and stratify the motives of the followers.(Antonakis, *et al* (2004) added to the influencing process of the relationship between leaders and followers, The process is explained by the leader’s

characteristics and behaviours. (Kouzes and Posner, 2007) included the dynamic process, mobilizing others to get extraordinary things done.

Leadership has many facets and they differ in effectiveness in terms of consequences of their actions towards internal and external stakeholders. Since organizations today are faced with many challenges, especially with the constant changes in technology, economic, social, political and legal conditions and internal processes, flexibility is required in resource utilization and in the promotion of continuous learning (James & Collins, 2008; Leavy and Mckiernan, 2009).

Gardner (1990:1) defined leadership as process of persuasion or example by which an individual induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers. Gardner emphasises that leadership is an interaction among leaders and constituents, which he called “the heart of the matter”, Gardner (1990, p 122) Bolman and Deal (1991) introduced the notion of reframing leadership using four different frames (lenses): structural, human resources, political and symbolic. An integrated definition did not emerge, but the authors left little doubt that the traditional understanding of leadership was inadequate and leadership had to be reframed sooner rather than later.

Rost (1991) has argued for constructing a definition of leadership which distinguishes leadership from management and other forms of governing or controlling people in social setting. In later published works, he modified his postindustrial. According to him leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend significant changes that reflect their mutual purposes (Rost 1991: 102). This definition has four essential elements, all of which to have to be present to label a series of activities leadership. They are: (1) influence relationship, (2) involving both leaders and collaborators, (3) intending significant changes and (4) mutual purposes

Heifetz (1994) had develop a prescriptive concept of leadership is about doing adaptive work, which consist of the learning required to address conflicts in the values people hold, or to diminish the gap between the values people stand for the reality they face.

Thus leadership is (1) mobilizing activities (2) that bring about substantive changes (3) through adaptive work.

Kevin and Freiberg (1996:298) stated that the leadership is a dynamic relationship based on the mutual influence and common purpose between leaders and collaborators in which both move to higher levels of motivation and moral development as they affect real, intended change.

Hersey & Blanchard (1984) define leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. Similarly, Bass (1997) defines leadership in different terms from earlier to the recent times. The earlier definitions identified leadership as a focus of group process and movement, personality in action. The next type considered it as the art of inducing compliance. The more recent definitions conceive leadership in terms of influence relationships, power differentials, persuasion, influence on goal achievement, role differentiation, reinforcement, initiation of structure, and perceived attributions of behaviour that are consistent with what the perceivers believe leadership to be. Finally, he concluded that leadership may involve all these things. Therefore, leadership in the organisational context in this study is related to the person who is appointed by the organization or owner to follow up or sub activities of the organisation.

Lee and Chuang (2009), explain that the excellent leader not only inspires a subordinate's potential to enhance efficiency but also meets their requirements in the process of achieving organisational goals. Stogdill (1957) defined leadership as the individual behaviour to guide a group to achieve the common target. Fry (2003) explains leadership as use of leading strategy to offer inspiring motives and to enhance the staff's potential for growth and development.

There is a relationship between leadership style and organizational performance. Today's intensive and dynamic markets feature innovation-based competition, price/performance rivalry, decreasing returns, and the creative destruction of existing competencies (Santora

et al., 1999; Venkataraman, 1997). Studies have suggested that effective leadership behaviours can facilitate the improvement of performance when organisations face these new challenges.

Organisational performance can also be used to view how an enterprise is doing in terms of level of profit, market share and product quality in relation to other enterprises in the same industry. Consequently, it is a reflection of productivity of members of an enterprise measured in terms of revenue, profit, growth, development and expansion of the organisation. On the other hand, organisational performance refers to ability of an enterprise to achieve such objectives as high profit, quality product, large market share, good financial results, and survival at pre-determined time using relevant strategy for action (Koontz and Donnell, 1993). Organisational performance can also be used to view how an enterprise is doing in terms of level of profit, market share and product quality in relation to other enterprises in the same industry. Consequently, "it is a reflection of productivity of members of an enterprise measured in terms of revenue, profit, growth, development and expansion of the organisation". (Koontz and Donnell), 1993, p 143.

Transactional leadership helps organizations achieve their current objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and by ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done (Zhu, Chew and Spengler, 2005). Visionary leaders create a strategic vision of some future state, communicate that vision, model the vision by acting consistently, and build commitment towards the vision (Avolio, 1999; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000). Some scholars like Zhu et al. (2005), suggest that visionary leadership will result in high levels of cohesion, commitment, trust, motivation, and hence performance in the new organisational environments.

Mehra, Smith, Dixon and Robertson (2006) argue that when some organisations seek efficient ways to enable them outperform others, a longstanding approach is to focus on the effects of leadership. Team leaders are believed to play a pivotal role in shaping collective norms, helping teams cope with their environments, and coordinating collective action. This leader-centred perspective has provided valuable insights into the relationship between leadership and team performance (Guzzo and Dickson, 1996). Some

studies have explored the strategic role of leadership to investigate how to employ leadership paradigms and use leadership behaviour to improve organizational performance (Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt, 2002; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Keller, 2006; McGrath and MacMillan, 2000; Meyer and Heppard, 2000; Purcell, Kinnie, Hutchinson and Dickson, 2004; Yukl, 2002). This is because “intangible assets such as leadership styles, culture, skill and competence, and motivation are seen increasingly as key sources of strength in those firms that can combine people and processes and organisational performance” (Purcell et al., 2004).

Previous studies led the expectation that leadership paradigms will have direct effects on customer satisfaction, staff satisfaction, and financial performance. In general, however, the effects of leadership on organizational performance have not been well studied.

Another problem with existing studies on leadership is that the results depend on the level of analysis. House and Aditya (1997), distinguished between micro-level research that focuses on the leader in relation to the subordinates and immediate superiors, and macro-level research that focuses on the total organization and its environment.

From this review of related literature, it is evident that although some scholars believe that leadership enhances organizational performance while others contradict this, Different concepts of leadership have been employed in different studies, making direct comparisons virtually impossible. Gaps and unanswered questions remain. Consequently, the current study is intended to re-examine the proposed leadership-performance relationship and, thus, contribute meaningfully to the body of growing literature and knowledge in this area of study.

### **A Manager versus a Leader**

Controversy has arisen over whether leaders are different from managers or they are the same; one opinion argues that the role of management is to promote stability or to enable the organisation to run smoothly, whereas the role of leadership is to promote adaptive or usage changes. (Schhermerhorn. et al. 2000, p 286). Leadership is regarded as the most

critical factor in the success or failure of an institution (Bass, 1990a). Leaders must understand their impact on employees, and ultimately the organisation.

Antokias et al. consider leadership to be “purpose driven, resulting in change based on values, ideas, vision, symbol and emotional exchanges” and management is objectives driven, resulting in stability based on rationality, bureaucratic means the fulfillment of contractual obligations”(2004, p.5). This an interesting contrasts: Leadership is arguably based on purpose, change and emotion in contrast, management is based on objectives, stability and rationality. Specifically, what kind of change are they referring to? If their notion of Leadership driven change is defined as managerial change, then it may be a kind of change that is objective and guided towards social stability. If the notion of leadership driven change is defined as change, then it may be a kind change that is subjective and guided towards social change. The table below defines some differences between the two concepts.

**Comparison between Leaders and Managers: Table 2.2 b**



**Leaders**

**Managers**

Motivate, encourage, and work with people	Establish system
Create a vision and set a direction and sharing with followers	Create rules and operational procedures
Align people based on their knowledge, abilities and personal	Are a task oriented and often no people oriented
Ask how and when	Ask what and why
Take you to a new place	Think that that a successful solution to management problem can be used again
They write business plans, set budgets and monitor progress	They get organizations and people to change
Leaders are the heart of the Organization	Managers are the brain of the Organization

Source; (Colvard,2009 and Adayana,2009)

How do leadership and management occur in practice? We can, conclude from the table above that turn vision action, while managers complete tasks.

The management function can include problem solving and facilitating meetings as well as the traditional tasks; however, it is not necessary for the same person in a group to exercise all these tasks. Different people can take on parts of the management function. Some of them can do the planning; another person can do budgeting, while a team member can monitor quality. The team as a whole can share responsibility for meeting performance targets (Maccoby, 2000, p.57).

Nevertheless, the question may come up: are leaders and managers both essential for an organization's prosperity? While leaders develop the vision, managers carry out the vision, Managers should therefore acknowledge the importance of the leadership component of their work and be developed to become leaders who achieve goals.(Raubenheimer, 2004)

Colvard (2009) stated that "it is worth noting, however, that manager provides leadership and leaders perform management function, but managers typically don't perform the unique functions of leaders", (p.98).

## **Section two: Back ground of leadership theories**

### **Introduction**

Leadership research in the twentieth century developed mainly under the following school; trait schools, which focused on leaders' dispositions; behavioural school, concerned with leaders' behaviours; contingency school, which focused on leadership contingencies, relational school, considered leader follower relations; and the neo charismatic or transformational school which, in contrast with all previous schools, is not concerned in transaction but in transformations, with transforming the interests of the followers from being self- centred to being group centred (Antonakis et al..2004 P 6-11). In addition, contemporary leadership studies are also interested in issues reflecting broader societal and context issues such as hierarchy, gender, organisational

characteristics, ethics, cognition and intelligence and even suggesting the (hybridization) of leadership theories (Antonakis et al.,2004)

## **Trait Theory**

Early studies analysed leadership based on hereditary attributes (Bass,1990a) and compared traits of leaders with those of followers. Traits approach emphasises attributes of leaders such as personality, motives, values and skills. By identifying specific traits or characteristics of leaders, one could distinguish a leader from a follower (Hughes, 2005, p.25).

Research concerning trait theory concentrated on the following factors: (a) physical factors such as age, height, weight, physique, health, and appearance; (b) ability factors such as fluency of speech, tone of voice, academic performance, intelligence, judgement and decision, insight, and initiative and (c) personality features such as integrity, emotional control, self confidence, and popularity ( Bass 1990a; Bryman,1986). According to this theory, an individual must possess these traits or characteristics in order to assume leadership.

Seeking to ascertain if trait theory accurately predicted leadership potential, Mann(1959) reviewed trait studies and reported that the foundation of trait theory lacked validity. Traits reported as being crucial to effective leadership in one study were not validated in others (Hughes, 2005, p26).

Stogdill (1974) completed a second review of trait leadership research that included an additional 163 studies that were conducted from 1949 to 1970. This review identified factors associated with energy, age status, mobility, education and intelligence as being able to separate leaders from ineffective leaders. According to Stoghill (1974), improved measurement techniques and methodology lead to the identification of these traits. However, Stoghil(1974) surmised that traits research produced confusing results because a combination of traits theory proved effective in some groups of leaders, while they

were ineffective in others. Therefore, Stogdhill concluded that leadership requires more than just the study of people, but also the study of situations. (Hughes, 2005 p26)

Many other researchers have also realised also that no trait would guarantee leadership success; and the attributes are related to leadership behaviour and effectiveness. (Yukle, 2002)

Mullins (2008) added two further limitations to trait approach:

- There is bound to be some subjective judgement in determining who is regarded as a good or successful leader
- The list of possible traits tends would be very long and there is not always agreement on the most important

Even if it were possible to identify an agreed list of more specific qualities, this would provide little explanation of the nature of leadership. It would do little to help in the development and training of future leaders (Mullins, 2008, p.310).

### **Behavioural Theories**

Failure of the trait theory led to further research that focused on behavioural styles of leadership. Behavioural theories emerged during World War II because trait research had failed to explained leader effectiveness (Bryn, 1986).

Behavioural leadership proposed that behaviour of the leader impacted work and follower effectiveness. This era of research focused on leadership behaviour as a mean of identifying the best way to lead. Under this approach, many studies were carried out to support this theory.

### **Iowa State University Studies**

Studies conducted during the 1930s at Iowa State University identified three leadership styles: Autocratic, Democratic, and Laissez Fair (Brymann,1986). According to Daft (1999) an autocratic leader is one who tends to centralise authority and derive power from position, control of rewards and coercions.

A democratic leader delegates authority to others, encourages participation, relies on subordinates' knowledge for completion of tasks, and "depends on subordinate respect for influence" (Daft, 1999, p. 69). Laissez Faire is the absence or avoidance of leadership and has been labelled the most ineffective style (Bass, 1990a)

### **Ohio State Leadership Studies**

The Ohio State studies were viewed as influential because the research focused on activities of leaders, instead of traits (Bryman 1986). Through this research, the leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire was developed. Result of the Ohio State studies indicated two major dimensions of leadership behaviour, labelled "Consideration" and "initiation structure", (Mullins, 2008, p.312) that could be defined as follows:

1. Consideration reflects the extent to which the leader establishes trust, mutual respect and rapport with the group. This dimension is associated with two way communication, participation and human relations approach to leadership.
2. Initiating structure reflects the extent to which the leader defines and consolidates group interactions towards attainment of formal goals and organises group activities. This dimension is associated with to achieve organisational goals,

The two dimensions of leadership were mutually inclusive and together created four types of leadership:

- Quadrant I: High consideration and high initiating structure
- Quadrant II: Low consideration and high initiating structure
- Quadrant III: Low consideration and Low initiating structure
- Quadrant IV: High consideration and Low initiating structure (Mullins, 2008)

Quadrant (1) became the focus of researchers as the combination of high consideration and structural qualities were thought to be the most advantageous (Dale and Fox, 2008).

However, these pursuits soon proved disappointing as the contingency aspect of the model cancels success of the style; and subsequent development of a universal leadership style (Hughes, 2005, p. 28).

### **University of Michigan studies**

Leadership research during the 1940s conducted at the University of Michigan compared the behaviour of effective leaders with ineffective leaders (Leftwich, 2001). These studies resulted in the development of two types of leadership behaviour (Bryman, 1986). Employee-centred leaders focus on the individual needs of followers, while job-centred leaders direct activities towards efficiency by focusing on reaching task goals and facilitating the structure of task (Leftwich, 2001)

Although the employee-centred and job styles of leadership correspond to the Ohio State studies concepts of consideration and initiating structure, the Michigan studies concluded that leaders used their own type of leadership and did not change styles depending on employee competency. (Hughes, 2004p. 29)

The two dimension approach led to the interesting possibility that a leader might be able to place high emphasis on task issues and still promote high levels of subordinate satisfaction by simultaneous consideration behaviour. While initial studies supported the idea that a leader exhibiting both high initiating structure and high consideration would produce the best result, the notion of great high-high leader was later pronounced a myth: it was too simplistic (Bartol and Martin 1998. P.421)

### **Managerial Grid**

“One popularised outgrowth of the emphasis on leader behaviour aimed at both task and people issues” is the Managerial Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (Blake and Mouton, 1995, p.10-11)

The foundation of the theory is a contrast between two approaches to the managerial role: (a) concern for production and (b) concern for people (Bryman, 1986). Blake and Mouton believed that both concerns are essential ingredients of effective eighty-one possible combinations of managerial behaviour.

The following scale plots the managerial grid on a scale from one to nine and divides them into quadrants. The grid is composed of five categories that are based on concern for production and concern for people (Bryman, 1986). The categories are:

1. Impoverished management is characterised by low scores on dimensions production and people, a context in which conflict is likely. The leader maintains low involvement with people and minimal communication.
2. Country club management has a high concern for people and a low concern for production. Emphasis is on maintaining friendly relationships within a harmonious work environment.
3. Middle of the road management is concerned with both people and production, it is possible to balance work and moral.
4. Team management promotes a high degree of concern for both people and production. Followers are involved in the planning and execution of work
5. Task management is concerned with production and views employees as supplies of labour who must be controlled and directed

Bloisi, *et al*, criticized the Grid model and concluded that most of the research that supports the Grid model has been based largely on the interpretation of case studies. Leadership is superior, as the situation, group members and task all impact on styles of leadership. (Bloisi, et al, 200, p657). They further added that “although useful [Grid theory] for identifying and classifying managerial styles, it does not tell us why a manager fails, for this we would need to look at the underlying causes, such as the personality of leader and followers, and the situation. (Bloisi, *et al*, 2007, p. 658).

### **Contingency Theory**

As other theories couldn't fully explain leadership, a new paradigm was needed (Chemers, 1997, p.28). It became increasingly clear to those who were studying leadership that the predicting of leadership success was more complex than isolating a few traits or preferable behaviours. This led to a focus on situational influences. (Robbins, 1997, p. 419)

Contingency theories tried to predict which types of leadership style will be most effective in different types of situations (Holda, 1995). Contingency approaches hypothesise that there are no universally acceptable styles of leadership. A particular leadership style may prove valid in one situation, yet ineffective in another.

Therefore, different factors in the situation influence leadership. "Leadership must change with the situation or situation must change to accommodate the kind of leadership exercised" (Fairholm, 1998,p.53 cited in Hughes, 2005).

Many studies have attempted to isolate critical situational factors that affect leadership effectiveness including the degree of structure in the task being performed, the quality of leader-member relations, the leader's position regarding power and, subordinate maturity (Howell, Dorfman and Kerr, 1986 pp. 88-102).

The models of contingency theory discussed include Fiedler's Contingency Model, House and Michel's Path Goal theory, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership theory and Vroom and Yetton's Contingency Model.

### **Fiedler's Contingency Model**



The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fiedler, he proposed that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with his/her subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence the leader (Robbins, 1997, p .421).

Fiedler developed a personality measure, the last preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, as a measure of leader personality. The measure is based upon a series of a person with whom one has worked in the past and is completed by the leader not by the subordinate (Lawrence, 2000, p 20). The premise is that a leader's description of the person with whom he/she has worked experienced the greatest difficulty working is reflective of a basic leadership style. Friendly's second premise is that the leader's personality

orientation or behavioural style influences group performance and varies according to “situation favourability”. Robbins (1997) summarised situations: (p.422)

- a) Leadership-member relations: The degree of confidence, trust and respect subordinates have in their leader;
- b) Task structure: The degree to which the job assignments are structured/unstructured); and
- c) Position of power: the degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases.

Results from Fiedler’s research indicated that task oriented leaders are more effective in high control and low control situations, and that relationship oriented leaders are more effective in moderate control situations. Task oriented leaders perform better in favourable situations “because everyone gets along, the task is clear and the leader has power; all that is needed is for someone to take charge and provide direction” (Draft, 1999, p.960)

Conditions unfavourable to the task oriented leader require high levels of structure and task direction. The relationship oriented leader performs better in favourable situations because human relations skills are important in achieving high group performance in these situations.

### **Fiedler’s Model Limitation**

Reviewers of Fiedler’s research have found that there is nothing automatic or good in either the task oriented or people satisfaction oriented style (Bloisi, et al, 2007, p 660). Research by Yukl (1981) has also questioned the meaning of the “least preferred co worker” score, while others stated that LPC scores are not stable (Knenedy, et al, 1987, p 807-14).

Chemers (1997) noted the weakness of Fiedler's model is its failure to describe or directly analyse the process by which a leader's motivational orientation affects group processes and outcomes. While the model does predict leadership effectiveness, it does not delineate the processes that produce effective leader performance (Hughes, 2005, p.35)

Kennedy, et al (1987) further, suggested that additional variables are needed as contingency factors and that more reliable measures of a leader's style are needed.

### **House and Mitchell Path Goal Theory**

The Path Goal theory developed by House in 1971 and refined in 1974 by House and Mitchell, "argued that motivation to engage in behaviour was a function of the product of the person's perception of the probability that the behaviour would lead to a goal and the perceived importance of the goal"(Chemers, 1997, p. 44). The model is based on the belief that the individual's motivation is dependent upon expectations that increased effort to achieve an improved level of performance will be successful, and expectations that improvement will be instrumental in obtaining positive rewards and avoiding negative outcomes. (Mullins, 2008, p 22). The leader can influence subordinates' perceptions of work and paths to attaining stated goal (Holda, 1995).

Bartol and Martin summarised the Path Goal theory's four major leader behaviours into four groups (Bartol and Martin, 1998 p 431-432)

- a) Directive leadership: involves letting subordinates know what is expected of them, providing guidance about work methods, developing work schedules, indentifying work, evaluating standards and indicating the basics for outcomes or rewards. It is similar to task orientation.
- b) Supportive leader behaviour entails showing concern for the status, well -being, and needs of subordinates, doing small things to make the work more pleasant, and being friendly and approachable. This behaviour is similar to relationship oriented or consideration behaviour.

- c) Participative leadership is characterised by consulting with subordinates, encouraging their ideas when making decisions.
- d) Achievement oriented leadership involves setting challenging goals, and a high degree of confidence in subordinates

Path Goal theory proposes two classes of situational or contingency variables that moderate the leadership behaviour outcome relationship: those in the environment that are outside the control of the subordinate (factors including task structure, the formal authority system and work group) and those that are part of the personal characteristics of the subordinate (position of power, experience, and perceived ability). Environmental factors determine that type of leader behaviour required if subordinate outcomes are to be maximised. Personal characteristics of the subordinates determined how the environment and leader behaviour are interpreted. (Robbins and Coulter, 1999, p 525)

### **Path Goal Limitation**

Yurk has defined the major deficiencies of the Path-Goal theory (Yurk, 2002, p.216) as follows:

- (a) The main weakness is the use of expectancy theory as primary basis for explaining leader influence. It is an unrealistic description of human behaviour. Expectancy theory does not take into account emotional reactions to decision dilemmas, such as denial or distortion of relevant information about expectancies and valences.
- (b) Its reliance on broad categories of leader behaviour does not correspond closely to the mediating processes.

Robbins (1997) added, that employee performance and satisfaction are likely to be positively influenced when the leader compensates for things lacking in either the employee or the work settings. However, the leader who spends time explaining tasks when those tasks are already clear or when the employee has the ability and experience to

handle them without interference is likely to be ineffective because the employee will see such directive behaviour as patronising or even insulting. (Robbins, 1997 p 428-429)

### **Vroom and Yetton (Leader- Participation Model)**

Vroom and Yetton (1978) focused their research on decision making rather than styles of leadership (Holda, 1995). This model seeks to enhance the decision making ability of the leader and follower's acceptance of those decisions. (Robbins, 1997, p. 429)

Vroom and Yetton's model was normative; it provided a sequential set of rules that should be followed for determining the form and amount of participation desirable in decision making, as dictated by different types of situations ( Robbins,1997, p. 429).

The model presents three basic styles: (Bloisi, et al, 2007 p 665-666)

- a) Autocratic: where the leader unilaterally makes decisions.
- b) Consultative where the leader solicits member inputs before deciding.
- c) Group: where the leader collaborates with member to arrive at a joint decision.

Chemers (1997) explains the leader must evaluate each of these choices and select the appropriate approach for a current situation. Bass (1990a) suggests the following variables may influence the leader's choice of leadership style: (a) quality requirement of the solution (b) sufficient information to allow the leader to make an informed decision, (c) structure of the problem, (d) follower acceptable important to implementation, (e) follower support of independent decision, (f) follower support of organisation goals and (g) the probability of conflict among followers.

### **Vroom and Yettorn Limitations of Leader-Participation model**

Yurk had criticised this model, conceptually and way it works, (Yukle,2002, p 91-96)

1. The model fails to capture some differences among situations by requiring a definite yes-no answers to the situational questions.
2. Decision processes are treated as a single, discrete episode that occurs at once point in time, but most important decision are not made in this way. Decisions

typically involve multiple meetings with a variety of different people at different times.

3. The theory is not economical. The distinction between autocratic, contractive, and joint decision procedures adequate. More detail is not needed.

4. Leaders assumed to have the skills necessary to use the decisions procedures.

### **Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model**

Situational Leadership theory as prescribed by Hersey and Blanchard developed from the work of J.W. Redding's 3-Dimensional Management Style Theory, which hypothesises the importance of a manager's relationship to achieve organisational goals through people that work within a structured organisation with prescribed roles (Redding, 1997, p8). This model focuses on leader behaviours that are to the initiating structure and consideration behaviours pioneered by the Ohio State researchers (Bartol and Martin, 1998, 429)

The propositions were: (a) leadership styles vary among individuals; (b) some leaders initiate structure to accomplish tasks, others maintain personal relationship, while still others do nothing; (c) Effective leadership style depends on the situation. (d) The best attitudinal style is high task oriented. (e) The tasks and maturity level of the follower will dictate the most effective leadership style; and (f) maturity of the follower is a product of the individual's level of education, prior training, or age (Hughes, 2005, P. 37)

Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, attempted to match four leadership patterns (a) task oriented, (b) dynamic, (c) relations oriented and (d) delegated, with four levels of maturity Low; moderately low; moderately high and high (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, 2001). Mullins, described these specific leadership behaviours, and followers' readiness as follows (Mullins, 2008, P 325-326)

### **Task relationship behaviour**

S1 Telling/Directing: (high task low relationship). Leaders define the roles and tasks of the followers and supervise them closely. Decisions are made by the leader and

announced, so communication is largely one way. People who lack competence but are enthusiastic and committed, need direction and supervision to get them started.

S2 Selling/ Coaching. (High task-high relationship). Leaders still defines roles and tasks, but seek ideas and suggestions from the followers. Decisions remain the leader's prerogative, but communication is much more two way. For people who have some competence but lack commitment, need esteem, and involvement in decision making to restore their commitment.

S3 Participating/ Supporting (Low task high relationship). Leaders focus on day to day decisions, such as task allocation and process. The leader facilitates and takes part in decisions, but control is with the followers. People, who are competent, but lack confidence or motivation, normally do not need much direction because of their skills, but support is necessary to bolster their confidence and motivation.

S4-Delegating(Low task low relationship). Leaders are still involved in decisions and problem solving but control is with the followers. The followers, who have both competence and commitment, decide when and how the leader will be involved. They are able and willing to work on a project by project by themselves with supervision or support.

#### Readiness of followers

Readiness is the extent to which followers are willing and able to accomplish a specific task. It is not about personal characteristics of the individual, but how ready the individual is to perform a particular task (Hersey and Blanchard,1993)

Readiness (Maturity) was identified as the most significant variable in determining leadership style. Follower maturity is responsible for the relationship between leader behaviour and leader effectiveness. (Hughes, 2005, P.39). It can be divided into a continuum of four levels: D1 (Low), D2 and D3 (High), and they are defined as follow (Mullins, 2008, P. 323)

**D1-** Low follower readiness: refers to followers who are unable and unwilling and who lack commitment and motivation: or who are unable and insecure.

**D2-**Low to moderate follower readiness: refers to followers who are unable but willing, and who lack ability but are motivated to make an effort; or who are unable but confident.

**D3-Moderate to high follower readiness:** refers to followers who are able but unwilling and who have the ability to perform but are unwilling to apply their ability; or who are able but insecure.

**D4- High follower readiness:** refers to followers who are both able and willing and who have the ability and commitment to perform; or who are able and confident

Therefore, to apply Hersey and Blanchard's theory, leaders need to determine what tasks areas they would like to influence, assess the readiness level of the individual, and select the leadership style that corresponds to that level. The theory, however, promotes the notion that leaders must help increase the task related readiness of followers as quickly as possible by adjusting their own leadership styles to move through the cycle from telling to delegating (Bloisi, et al, 2007, P.431).

### **Hersey and Blanchard model's limitations**

Though widely known and used, important questions have been asked about Situational Leadership Theory. There are people who possess the appropriate knowledge and skills and appear to be the most suitable leaders in a given situation, but who do not emerge as effective leaders (Mullins, 2008, P. 318).

Hersey and Blanchard model was seriously criticised in various ways regarding the theory and evidence that it works.

#### **(a)Theoretical Component**

Vecchio questioned whether Situational Leadership added a new concept that differs from the previous theories. He points out that Hersey and his colleagues are not offering anything with their theory; it just a revised copy of Ridded (Vecchio, 1987).

Graeff argues that this model may have come from a 1996 article by A.K.Korman who suggested the probability of a curvilinear relationship between dimensions of leader behaviour and other variables (Graeff, 1983, P.285)

Robbins goes further stating that it is too similar to Managerial Grid the Hersey and Blachard leadership styles and the four extreme corners in the Managerial Grid. The telling equates to level (9.1) leader; selling equates to level (9,9); participating is

equivalent to level (1,9); and delegating is the same as the level (1,1) leader (Robbins, 1997, p.425).

Graeff also pointed out the theory’s tendency to overemphasize the ability dimension, and how this overemphasis can severely limit the usefulness of the theory. (Graeff 1983, P287); if an employee has a low self-esteem that results in a low level of self confidence (D1), his willingness will be virtually nonexistent and his performance will be poor, while according to the theory this low level of maturity calls for high task, low relationship leadership.

The literature concludes that the analysis’s of Situational leadership conflict with each other. In summary, empirical evidence provides only partial support for the principles of Situational Leadership Theory.

### 2.3 The emergence of leadership theories

The earliest theories of leadership focused on the performance of great men. For instance, “without Moses, the Jews would have remained in Egypt and without Winston Churchill the British would have given up in 1940”, (James & Burgoyne, 2001, p. 132). Analysis of such heroic tributes gave rise to the Great Man Theory of Leadership, which contends that leaders are born, not made. This theory posits that certain individuals are endowed with leadership traits that cannot be “learned” (Perren& Burgoyne, 2001).

A review of the leadership literature shows the development of 'schools of thought' from “Great Man” and “Trait” theories to “Transformational” leadership (see table below). Although early theories tend to focus on the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, later theories begin to consider the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership.

**Table 2.2 c, Table of theories**

Great ManTheories	Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the
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	<p>twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories.</p>
<p>Trait Theories</p> <p><b>NWU LIBRARY</b></p>	<p>Trait theory is all about the types of personality tendencies and behaviours linked to effective leadership. Many theorists argued that key leadership traits include motivation; desire to seek power, self-confidence so on. The biggest problem with this theory is that it implies that leadership personality is already inherited because one is born with this trait.</p> <p>There are many lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership.</p>
<p>Behaviourist Theories</p>	<p>Theorists have stated that, leadership is not a set of traits, but a pattern of motives. The Behavioural Leadership grid model by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton is based on concern for people and concern for productivity which are the basis of five different leadership styles.</p> <p>These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than who are. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has attracted a great deal of attention from managers.</p>
<p>Situational Leadership</p>	<p>This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, while some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organization.</p>
<p>Contingency Theory</p>	<p>This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to</p>

	<p>fit the particular circumstances.</p> <p>Therefore, discrete factors in the situation influence leadership.” leadership must change with the situation or the situation must change to accommodate the kind of leadership exercised” (Fairholm,1998,p53,cited in Hughes,2005)</p> <p>Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr (1986 p 88-102) many studies have attempted to isolate critical situational factors that affect leadership effectiveness including the degree of structure in the task being performed, the quality of leader member relations, the leader’s position of power, subordinate’s role clarity, group norms, information availability , subordinate acceptance of leaders’ decisions, and subordinate maturity .</p>
Transactional Theory	<p>This theory presumes that different styles of leaderships are better in different situations.</p> <p>This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.</p>
Transformational Theory	<p>The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in vision and implementation to transformation of organisational performance.</p>

Source: Bolden et al. (2003)

Each of these theories takes a rather individualistic perspective of the leader; however the concept “dispersed” leadership is gaining increasing recognition. This approach, based on sociology, psychology and politics rather than management science. It views leadership

as a process that is dispersed or spread throughout an organisation, rather than with the official 'leader' alone. The organisation itself, rather than the leader, is emphasized. The aim is to develop 'leaderful' organisations with a collective responsibility for leadership (Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Leaders who want the best results should not rely on a single leadership style.

Mitchell (2000) suggests that several factors account for generational differences in the attitudes and behaviour of workers. The level of education and age were identified as important determinants. He suggests that the level of education influences people's values, wants and needs and makes them think and behave differently. Age, can lead to more or less confidence; but the younger generations seem to feel more comfortable showing individualistic behaviours.

Collecting their data from American and Canadian managers in a variety of organisations, Kabacoff & Stoffey (2001) carried out a large sample survey on age differences in organisational leadership. Their basic findings are summarised into two lists (Kabacoff, 2002). On leadership styles and behaviour, the researchers found that younger workers feel more comfortable in fast changing environments and more willing to take risks and consider new approaches. They also operate with more energy and intensity, and have a greater capacity to generate enthusiasm in others. In addition, they are more likely to seek out opportunities to take charge and push vigorously and competitively to achieve a high level of results.

Compared with older workers, younger workers also tend to work to develop and promote themselves. However, the researchers found that older workers study problems in the light of past practices in order to ensure predictability, and minimise risk. They tend to be calmer and more stable. Older workers tend to maintain an in-depth knowledge of their field and use this knowledge to approach problems. They cooperate and delegate more, and show a greater degree of concern for other "workers". Kabacoff, (2002), p. 143. Managers must have a mutual understanding of the skills and responsibilities necessary for other managers across similar and different organisational levels and functions (Kraut

et al., 1989). If these skills and responsibilities are not clearly understood, managers will not be able to coordinate work effectively, communicate expectations, deliver feedback, or be prepared for job transitions or other training and career development activities (Kraut et al., 1989). Managers must fully understand their roles and responsibilities and become adept at a variety of skills to perform their job effectively (Ahearn et al., 2004; Halbesleben et al., 2003; Stockdale and Crosby, 2004; Wallace, 2004; Zaccaro et al., 2004).

Management development specialists are interested in the impact of synergistic elements (organisational commitment, managerial effectiveness, team communication and job satisfaction.) The type of structure, manager's personal features and the leadership styles are relevant well.

## **2.4 Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)**

### **Introduction**

Admitting the difficulties faced the situation leadership approach; researchers have moved from a scientific management perspective to of human relations and organizational behaviour. The pioneer of this paradigm was Burns (1978) who recognized the transactional leadership style, which focused on motivating followers by exchanging rewards for services rendered. (Stumpf, 2003).

Bass (1985) expanded on Burns work, arguing that existing theories of leadership focused on followers' goal and role clarification and ways leaders rewarded.

While Burns viewed transactional and transformational leadership as opposites, Bass viewed them as complementary. He saw it was possible, in fact almost necessary, for a leader to engage in both leadership behaviours (Dum Dum, Lowe, and Avolio, 2002). Transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership, but rather tends to add to its effectiveness (Bass, 1997). In other words, transformational leadership

is an extension of the traditional transactional leadership, and leaders are most effective when they exhibit both styles.

Transformational leadership theory has undergone several revisions and expansions (e.g. Bass, 1990b; Avolio and Bass, 1991; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Hatter and Bass, 1998; Avolio, 2003 and 2004). In that sequence, Avolio and Bass (1995) developed the Full Range Leadership Theory which evolved from Bass's transactional/transformational theory (Antokias and House, 2002), and is considered the most contemporary model in that has the potential to explain leadership and its multidimensional nature and to measure behaviours that can be used to predict leadership outcomes (Antokias *et al.*, 2003). The Full Range Theory is regarded as more successful in determining effective leadership because it (a) has been widely accepted in leadership literatures, (b) is supported by empirical research, and (c) is integrative (Huges, 2005, pp 43-44). The researcher has adopted this style in Randfontein Health Sub-district.

The FRLM describes a full range of influencing styles from 'non-leadership' to powerful transformational leadership behaviours. The model captures different kinds of behaviours which make a difference to outcomes for associates of the leader. In other words, the range of behaviours starts with transformational leader behaviours to transformational leader behaviours reaching to the lowest leader interaction of laissez-faire leader behaviours (MLQ, undated; Bass *et al.*, 2003).

As we can describe an ideal or "pure" transactional leadership style and a "pure" transformational one, it is clear that organisations are likely to have cultures that are characterised by both styles of leadership. A leader may employ both styles at different times or in differing amounts at the same time. Considerable recent research provides evidence that shows transformational leadership as eliciting extra effort and performance from followers, over and above that expected in an exchange relationship with a purely transactional leader. The authors' argument is that organisations should move in the direction of more transformational qualities in their cultures while also maintaining a base of effective transactional qualities (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass *et al.*, (2003), p. 123.

The Full Range Leadership Development Model, developed by Bass and Avolio (1994), is a combination of both transactional and transformational leadership. It includes five transformational factors: Idealized influence (attributed); Idealized influence (behavior); Inspirational motivation; Individualized consideration; Intellectual stimulation, and three transactional ones: Contingent reward; Management by exception (active); Management by exception (passive). In a study examining the effectiveness of transformational and transactional leaders and the degree of employee satisfaction with the leadership style in the public banking sector, Gharioeahangar and Alijanirooshan (2004) found that transformational and transactional leaderships were highly and positively correlated with extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. Contingent rewards were also positively related to the outcome measures but less than to the transformational scale ratings. However, Management by exception (Active and Passive) and Laissez Faire were strongly and negatively correlated with the outcome. Exploring the importance of leadership style in the Palestinian industrial sector, As-Sadeq and Khoury (2006). p. 167 showed that transactional leadership style was more frequent than transformational leadership and laissez-faire, Laissez fair is, considered as the least commonly occurring leadership style and more frequent among leaders with low educational background, and low previous managerial experience. Moreover, transformational leadership was found to encourage satisfaction, willingness to apply extra effort and effectiveness among employees.

Trottier, *et al.* (2008) suggest that Bass's Full Range Leadership theory is a strategic organisation development intervention, designed to increase the impact of leadership on employee commitment. The same authors emphasised that Bass's full range leadership model is an important part of the leadership research. It presents researchers with a theory that can be empirically tested and provides insight into the duality that leaders face in current organisational settings.

Although multifactor theory is probably the most widely cited and comprehensive theory, each leadership theory is often conceptualised separately (Bass and Avolio, 1993 as cited in Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008).

**Diagram 2.2 d: Three main concepts**

**Laissez-Faire leadership (LF)**

Acts non-involved, displays indifference, overlooks achievements, and ignores problems.



**Transactional Leadership Elements**

Management by exception, passive (MBE-P): Only intervenes when standards are not met.

Management by exception, active (MBE-A): Monitors follower performance and takes immediate action when deviations occur. Contingent reward (CR): Clarifies what needs to be done and exchanges psychic and material rewards for services rendered.



**Transformational leadership Elements**

Individualized consideration (IC): develops, coaches, and teaches each follower.

Idealized influence, attributed (II-A): instils pride and builds trust.

Idealized influence, behaviour (II-B): emphasises collective sense of mission, and talks about values and beliefs. Intellectual stimulation (IS): Stimulates followers to view the world from new perspectives; encourage problem solving, critical thinking, and creativity.

Inspirational motivation (IM): expresses enthusiasm, optimism, and confidence.

Bernard Bass's Revised Full Range I Leadership Mode

**2.4.1 Transformational Leadership**

Overall, transformational leadership provides deeper aspects of leadership than previous theories, such contingency (situational) theory. There, the situation leader acts according to the situation and maturity level of the subordinate with a term. The transformation leader influences the subordinates' deeper needs and has long term effects. Situational leadership theory is close to the transactional leadership model, where, the leader's behaviour is a tool to reward or punish. Transformation leadership has deeper and wider impacts. Even if the transformational leader takes into account the situation and the maturity level of the subordinate, he or she sees the individual differences and potential of each subordinate, and using this information, the leader will motivate subordinates. As

a result a more sustainable commitment and stronger effort have been gained (Hautala, 2005.p.73).

Burns, (1990b) sees transformational leadership as occurring when a leader and his or her followers are interested to “raise each other to higher levels of motivation and morality”, with the key being shared values and goals (Bass, 1990b.p 44). Transformational leaders care about their followers who are motivated by high internal values and consequently more attached to the leader’s mission (Avlio and Yammario, 2002). Chemers claims anointed that “true transformational leadership occurs when followers adopt institutional objectives as part of their own self concept and pursue their own personal fulfilment by achieving collective purpose” (Chemers, 1997, p.158).

Transformational leadership, which is an expansion of transactional leadership, does not place major emphasis on exchanges or rewards within the system. Instead, transformational leadership challenges followers to disregard self interest and encourages pursuit of institutional goals, interests of the group, and moves followers gradually from concerns for exchange to concerns for achievement and growth (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

Robbins views transformational leadership as built on top of transactional leadership (Robbins, 1997, p.439). The table below provides a comparison between transactional and transformational leadership.

**Transactional versus Transformational leadership**

<u>Transactional Leadership</u>	<u>Transformations Leadership</u>
Builds on need to get the job done	Builds on the need for meaning and vision
Pre-occupied with power and position, politics and perks	Pre-occupied with purposes, values, morals and ethics
Involved heavily in daily/ running affairs	Transcends daily /running affairs to the overall objectives
Oriented to short term goals and solid data	Oriented towards long term goals without compromising human values

Mixing causes and symptoms and is concerned with treatment.	Separates causes and symptoms and works at prevention.
Focuses on tactical issues to complete targets	Focuses more on missions and strategies for achieving them
Relies on human relations to oil human interactions, relies on bargaining	Makes full use of available resources, transcending to functioning beyond expectations, relies on empowerment
Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems	Designs and pre-designs jobs to make them meaningful and challenging; realises human potential
Reward formally	Reward informally, personally
Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line	Aligns internal structures and system to reinforce overarching values and goals

(Adopted from Birmingham Grid for learning, 2009 and Mathibe,2009)

Transformational leadership is the development of a relationship of mutual needs, aspirations, and values in which the leader looks for potential motives. Followers and leaders unite to achieve a common goal, which places emphasis on institutional goals and not personal agendas (Avolio and Yammarino, 2002).

Transforming leaders are known for their ability to motivate and energize followers into a common vision that identifies high goals for the organization (Hughes, 2005, 44). The relationship between a transformational leader and followers encourages performance that exceeds expectations of all parties. Transformational leaders are able to motivate followers to do more than originally planned and even more than they thought possible.

**Transformational leadership subscales (Five factors):**

- (a) Idealised influence (attributed), also referred to as attributed charisma, described as follower’s perception of the leader’s power, confidence and inspirational

ideas. This emotional aspect of leadership is credited with shifting followers self-interest to a global perspective that places the welfare of the organization first (Hughes,2005)

- (b) Idealized influence (behaviour), also behaviour charisma, includes leader behaviours that reveal the leader's values and beliefs, ethical and moral values, and vision. This type of leader models appropriate behaviour for followers. Powers is used only when necessary and never for personal gain (Hughes,2005).

Some researchers consider factors one and two, above, as one component forming "charisma", which is the ability to inspire pride, faith and respect to recognize what is really important; and to articulate effectively a sense of mission, or vision, that inspires followers. Leaders are admired, respected and trusted (Bass, *et al*, 2003, p.208). Confidence in the leader means that followers will be less likely to resist proposals for change (Hay, 2008).



With combining factor one and two, the transformational leadership style could be categorised as: charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Barton and martin, 1998,p. 434)

- (c) Inspirational motivation encourages followers to excel. Followers are motivated to achieve objectives that previously been thought unattainable. The leader raises expectations and communicates confidence in followers that encourages the achievement of ambitions goals; enthusiasm and optimism are results of this leadership behaviour (Hughes, 2005). According to (Hay, 2008), inspirational motivation is related to idealized influence, but whereas charisma is held to motivate individuals, inspirational leadership is about motivating the entire organisation to, for example, follow a new idea. Transformational leaders make clear an appealing view of the future, offer followers the opportunity to see meaning in their work, and challenge them with high standards. They encourage followers to become part of the overall organisational culture and environment (Hay, 2008). This might be achieved through motivational speeches and conversations and other displays of optimism and enthusiasm, highlighting positive outcomes, and stimulation team work. Through these sorts of means,

transformational leaders encourage their followers to imagine and contribute to the development of attractive futures (Bass, *et al*, 2003, p.208)

- (d) Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question assumptions, invites creative solutions to and challenges the status quo. Leaders encourage creative and innovative thinking and reframe problems in order to gain new perspectives. Furthermore, the leader does not publicly criticize follower's mistakes. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches and have the right to fail (Hughes, 2005). Lawrence (2000) compares intellectual stimulation to culture that encourages and rewards risks taking which facilitates the innovative process and reflects the value that top management places on employee ideas (Lawrence, 2000, p.29). Transformational leaders question assumptions and beliefs and encourage followers to creatively propose solutions, approaching old problems in new ways, through empowerment of followers (Hay, 2008).
- (e) Individual Consideration refers to leaders who act as mentors and pay attention to individual needs for growth and achievement. The leaders encourage followers to strive for higher levels of attainment by pursuing challenges. This leader listens, delegates' tasks as a means of developing followers, and offers direction or support as needed (Atoakis, *et al*, 2003). People are treated individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge with the intention of allowing them to reach higher levels of achievement than might otherwise have been achieved (Hay, 2008).

(f)

Yukle provides a set of guidelines, as systemised steps, for leaders to follow:

- (a) Articulate a clear and appealing vision of the organisation help guide the actions and decisions of members.
- (b) Explain how the vision can be attained, and establish a clear link between the vision and a credible strategy for attaining it.
- (c) Act confident and optimistic, and emphasize positive aspects of the vision rather than the obstacles and dangers.
- (d) Express confidence in followers and their ability to carry out the strategy for accomplishing the vision.

- (e) Provide opportunities for early success and increase the confidence an individual or team undertaking a challenging task
- (f) Celebrate successes maintain an awareness of continuing progress, and recognize the contribution and accomplishment of individuals.
- (g) Use dramatic, simple actions to emphasise key values in order to reinforce the vision by actions consistent with it.
- (h) Lead by example through exemplary behaviour in day to day interactions with subordinates: actions speak louder than words.
- (i) Empower people to achieve the vision by delegating authority to individuals and teams to decide about how to do the work. (Yurke, 2002,pp.263-266)

Transformational leadership is a process of in which leaders changes their associates' awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way. Transformational leaders are proactive: they seek to optimise individual, group and organisational development and innovation, not just achieve minimally. They convince their associates to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership, but complements it in achieving the goals of the group (Bass, 1997; Hall *et al.*, 2002).

In a transformational style, there is generally a sense of purpose and a feeling of family. Leaders and followers share mutual interests and a sense of shared fates and interdependence. They go beyond their self-interests for the good of the team and the good of the organisation. At the same time, the can pursue their own goals and rewards. Superiors serve as mentors, coaches, role models, and leaders. They socialise members into the culture, not necessarily but because they feel a personal obligation to help new members assimilate into the culture. These norms will adapt to and change with external changes in the organisation's environment (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Bolden *et al.*, 2003; MLQ, undated)

According to Bass et al. (2003), transformational leaders will focus on developing their followers by tapping of their potentials, inspiring them, promoting collaboration, motivating them, and by reinforcing positive behaviours. Employees often develop a high level of trust and confidence in such a leader. The employees are proud to identify themselves with the leader and develop a strong sense of loyalty to them. Similarly, Bass (1997) argues that transformational leaders are relevant especially when rapid changes and globalization takes place. Transformational leadership helps people to achieve their maximum potential and develops higher levels of personal commitment amongst 'followers' to organizational objectives.

According to Bass (1997), the goal of transformational leadership is to 'transform' people and organisations in a literal sense – to change them in mind and heart; enlarge vision, insight, and understanding; clarify purposes; make, people behave according to their principles, or values. It also brings about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building.

Bass *et al.* (2003) and Trottier *et al.* (2008) prefer to explain transformational leadership according to five factors. The five components as suggested by the above authors are: individualised considerations, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence (attributes) and idealized influence (behaviour).

#### The components of behaviour

- (a) Individualised consideration: The leader treats followers as individuals but all are treated equitably. Individual's 'needs are recognized and assignments are delegated to followers to provide learning opportunities.
- (b) Intellectual stimulation: The leader stimulates the subordinates' understanding of the problems and of encourages them to identify their own beliefs and standards.
- (c) Inspirational motivation: The leader expressly and characteristically emphasises to subordinates the need to perform well and helps to accomplish the organisational goals. Bass and Avolio (1994) pointed out that leaders adopting this behaviour have an ability to strengthen their followers' responses and explain important ideas in simple ways.

- (d) Idealised influence (attributes/behavior): the leader is trusted and respected. He/she maintains high moral standards and the followers seek to emulate him/her. Idealised influence can be attributed (coming from followers) and/or the result of the leader's behavior.

## **2.4.2 Transactional Leadership**

Burns (1978) defines the relationship between superiors and subordinates as a social exchange, motivating followers primarily through conditional rewards. These rewards are results of reaching established goals and task accomplishments. Bass defines the transactional leaders as one who pursues a cost benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates current material and psychic needs in return for services rendered by the subordinate ( Bass,1990b). Transactional leadership could also be viewed as involving exchange and would result in the employee's compliance in exchange for the leader's assistance in pointing the way to the attainment of mutual goals ( Cheng, 2003.p.21).

Bass (1990b) indicated that the transactional leader attains of mutual goals in five steps:

- (a) Clarifies what is expected from the subordinates including the objective of their performances.
- (b) Explains what the employees are to do in order to meet the expectations.
- (c) Explanation of how the performance would be evaluated.
- (d) Provides feedback to the employees regarding whether the objectives have been met.
- (e) Allocates rewards based on the attainment of the objectives (Bass, 1990b)

### **The transactional leadership subscales (three factors):**

Avolio and Bass (2002) identify three components of transactional leadership:

- a. Contingent reward, this leadership style refers to leader behaviour emphasising role clarity and task requirements, and providing followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations (Hatter and Bass, 1998). That is, a leader discusses with followers

what is required and it involves exchanges for their satisfactory effort and performance.

“In general, contingent” reward leaders provide tangible or intangible support and resources to followers in exchange for their and performance define rules regarding work duties, maintain standards, and determine the consequences of goal attainment. (Walumbwa, *et al*, 2008,p252). It is this focus on clarifying roles and expectations that distinguishes contingent reward leader behaviour from transformational leadership. This style is effective, but to a lesser degree than transformational leadership (Hughes, 2005).

b. Management by exception (active) is a corrective transaction and occurs when the followers deviates from the norm. In this leadership style, leaders that standards are met (Antonakis, *et al*, 2003, p. 265). Leaders don't wait for mistakes to happen. Emery and Baker (2007) stated “Active leadership involves an interaction between leaders and followers that emphasises a more proactive positive exchange” (Emery and Baker,2007, p.81). Bass, (1997) commented that leaders; enforce the rules to avoid mistakes (Bass, 1997).

c. Management by exception (passive) is similar to management by exception (active); however, passive leaders do not actively monitor performance, but instead wait until deviations occur and then implement corrective action. In this style of management, leaders allow the status quo to exist as long as the old ways working; if things go wrong, however the leaders will take actions that have a negative connotation (Emery and Baker,2007,p.80).

Robbins defined transactional leadership as “Leaders who lead primarily by using social exchanges for transactions” (Robbins, 2007, p.475).

A "purely" transactional style focuses on everything in terms of explicit and implicit contractual relationships. All job assignments are explicitly spelled out along with conditions of employment, disciplinary codes, and benefit structures. Self-interests are stressed. Employees work as independently as possible from their colleagues. Cooperation depends on negotiations not problem solving or a common mission. There is

little identification of the employees with the organisation, its mission or vision. Superiors primarily are negotiators and resource allocators (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leadership is based more on "exchanges" between the leader and follower: followers are rewarded for meeting specific goals or performance criteria (Trottier *et al.*, 2008; Bass *et al.*, 2003). Rewards and positive reinforcement are provided or mediated by the leader. In this way, transactional leadership is more practical in nature because of its emphasis on meeting specific targets or objectives (James & Collins, 2008; Sosik & Dinger, 2007). An effective transactional leader is able to recognise and reward followers' accomplishments in a timely way. However, subordinates of transactional leaders are not necessarily expected to think innovatively and may be monitored on the basis of predetermined criteria. Poor transactional leaders may be less likely to anticipate problems and to intervene before problems come to the fore, whereas more effective transactional leaders take appropriate action in a timely manner (Bass *et al.*, 2003.p.146). Transactional leaders display behaviours associated with constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is labelled Contingent Reward and the corrective style is labelled Management-by-Exception (active and passive). Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Contingent Reward and Management-by-Exception are two core behaviours associated with 'management' functions in organizations. Full range leaders do this and more (MLQ, undated; Bass *et al.*, 2003; Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

When we compare transactional and transformational leadership styles, a transactional leadership style is appropriate in many settings and may support adherence to practice standards but not necessarily openness to innovation and risk taking. A transformational leadership style creates a vision and inspires subordinates to strive beyond required expectations, whereas transactional leadership focuses more on extrinsic motivation for the performance of job tasks (Bolden *et al.*, 2003, Trottier *et al.*, 2008; Bass *et al.*, 2003). The result is that transaction leadership could lead to accept of innovation through reinforcement transactional leadership would lead to acceptance of innovation through reinforcement and reward, not through openness and enthusiasm.

Bass outlines the beginnings of his theory of leadership, in which both transactional and transformational leadership are needed to enhance performance. Bass developed the full range leadership model based on his belief that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are leadership patterns that all leaders possess and use in differing amounts. For exceptional performance, transformational leadership behaviours need to use transactional leadership behaviours as well (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leadership involves an exchange process that results in follower compliance with leader request but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to task objectives. The leader focuses on having internal actors (subordinates) perform the tasks required for the organisation to reach its desired goals (Boehnke *et al*, 2003). The objective of the transactional leader is to ensure that the path to goal attainment is clearly understood by the internal actors, to remove potential barrier within the system, and to motivate the actors to achieve the predetermined goals (House and Aditya, 1997).

Transactional leaders communicate with their subordinates to explain how a task must be done and let them know that there will be rewards for a job done well (Avolio *et al*. 1991). Different types of behaviour related to transactional leadership have been identified:

- Contingent Reward: subordinates receive rewards for good performance.
- Management by Exception (Active): subordinates are monitored and then corrected if necessary in order for them to perform effectively.
- Management by Exception (Passive): subordinates receive contingent punishment in response to obvious discrepancies from the standard performance.

### **2.4.3 Laissez-Faire leadership**

Avolio and Bass (1991) explain that transactional and transformational leaders can be described as active leaders, acting to prevent problems from occurring in their organizations and acting to solve problems. On the other hand, Hartog, Muijien, and Koopan (1997) distinguished between these active forms of leadership and the “extremely passive, rather than reactive or proactive” form, laissez faire leaders “avoid decision making and supervisory responsibility” (p.21). Since the theory of laissez faire

leadership implies that laissez faire leaders are inactive and passive, as opposed to proactive, it is logical to assume that laissez fair leaders will score high on avoiding and low on collaborating.

There are many examples of behaviours that represent a “do nothing” or “hands-Off” approach. Such behaviour includes employees stay away from work, avoiding supervisory duties, and being “inactive, rather than reactive or proactive” (Bass, 1990a, p.550).

Bass (1990a) uses the following statement to differentiate laissez fair leadership from other types of leadership behaviours and styles: Laissez fair leadership should not be confused with democratic, relations oriented, participative, or considerate leadership behaviour. Nor should it be confused with delegation or management by exception. Delegation implies the leader’s active direction of a subordinate to take responsibility for some role or task. The active delegate leader remains concerned and will follow up to see if the role has been enacted or the task. The active delegate leader remains concerned and will follow up to see if the task has been completed. The leader who practices management by exception allows the subordinate to continue on paths that the subordinate and the leader agreed on until problems arise or standards are not met, at which time the leader intervenes to make corrections (Bass, 1990a, p. 545).

**Diagram 2.2 e: Summary of the Development of Full Range Leadership**

<b>Leaders Theories</b>	<b>Features</b>	<b>Limitation</b>
Trait Theories	Focuses on leaders’ physical ability and personality; leaders are borne not made.	It lacks validity, leaders without those traits have managed to rule and vice versa; it is difficult to list endless traits.
Behavioural Theories	Contends that behaviours of the leaders impact and on followers’ effectiveness	Absence of interaction with situations; does not explain why leaders fail.
Situational Theories	Try to predict which types	Does not explain

	of leadership style will be most effective in different situations, considering the followers' maturity.	interpersonal behaviour or the different effect on members of the group; it is not practical to continually determine who leads.
Transactional Theory	Leadership is a social exchange, where leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role, task requirements and reward system.	Emphasis on reward system, positive or negative. The effect on followers is short term.
Transformational Theory	Leaders motivate and energise followers into a common vision that identifies high goals for the organization, moves them gradually from concerns for exchange to achievement and growth. The effects last long term	Lacks the overall view of leaders' behaviours; other styles are needed for the prosperity of organisations.
Full Range Leadership Theory	Views the leadership behaviour as a multi-dimensional construct, where leaders may act transformational, transactional and/or laissez-faire way, depending on the interaction among all variables, including leaders,	The most effective method

	followers, situation, work environment and all related factors.	
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(Conceptualised by the researcher, based on literature review)

Behavioural style of leaders who generally “give the group complete freedom, provide necessary materials, participate only to answer questions, and avoided giving feedback”(Bartol and Martin, 1994, p.412).

James & Collins (2008) describe the laissez-faire leader as an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates’ considerable freedom, to the point of handing over his/her responsibilities. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership.

Researchers have consistently reported that laissez-faire leadership is the least satisfying and least effective style of leadership. That is because these leadership behaviours are accompanied by little sense of accomplishment, little clarity, little sense of group unity, and followers do not hold as much respect for their supervisors (Trottier *et al.*, 2008; Lok& Crawford, 1999). It is probably for these reasons that many researchers choose to exclude laissez-faire leadership from their research involving only transformational and transactional leadership.

Bass (1990) [as cited in Lok& Crawford, 1999 and Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008] uses the following statement to differentiate laissez-faire leadership from other types of leadership behaviours and styles:

Laissez-faire leadership should not be confused with democratic, relations oriented, participative, or considerate leadership behaviour. Nor should it be confused with delegation or management by exception. Delegation implies the leader’s active direction of a subordinate to take responsibility for some role or task. The leader who practices management by exception allows the subordinate to continue on paths that the subordinate and the leader agreed on until problems arise or standards are not met, at which time the leader intervenes to make corrections.

Laissez-faire leadership is a passive kind of leadership style. There is no relationship of exchange between the leader and the followers. It represents a non-transactional kind of leadership style in which necessary decisions are not made, actions are delayed, leadership responsibilities ignored, and authority unused. A leader displaying this form of “non-leadership is perceived as not caring at all about others’ issues” Bass (1990, p. 67) This type of leadership can also occur naturally, when managers don't have sufficient control over their work and their people. Laissez-faire leaders may give their team's complete freedom to do their work and set their own deadlines. They provide team support with resources and advice, if needed, but otherwise don't get involved. This leadership style can be effective if the leader monitors performance and gives feedback to team members regularly. It is most likely to be effective when individual team members are experienced, skilled, self-starters.

Robbins (2007) explained the laissez-faire style as “Abdicates responsibilities avoid making decisions” (p. 475). Luthans (2005), defined laissez- faire style as “Abdicates responsibilities avoids making decisions” (p.562). It's difficult to defend this leadership style unless the leader's subordinates are expert and well-motivated specialists, such as Scientists. “Leaders let group members make all decision” (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.347).

## 2.5 The Concept of Employee Commitment



Employee commitment is widely described in the behavioural sciences literature as a factor in the relationship between individuals and organisations.

In the fields of organisational behaviour and industrial/organisational psychology, organisational commitment is defined, in a general sense, as the employee's psychological attachment to the organisation. It can be contrasted with other work related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, defined as an employees' feeling about their job, and Organisational Identification, is defined as the degree to which an employee experiences a 'sense of oneness' with their organisation (Wikipedia, 2009).

The topic of organisational commitment has been the subject of much theoretical and empirical effort in the field of organisational behaviour, human resource management and industrial/organisational psychology (Allen and Meyer 1996; Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979).

A review of the theoretical literature on the organisational commitment construct shows that very little consensus exists among scholars and researchers on how the construct can be defined conceptually. As the construct develops and evolves over the years, scholars from the various disciplines give their own conceptual definitions.

In discussing park and recreation agency employees, London and Howat have described individuals with high organisational commitment as those who “are not likely to leave the agency if offered as good a job elsewhere and who plan to stay with the agency indefinitely” (Cheng, 2003, p.29).

Ketch and Strawser (2001) stated that organisational commitment “represents the attachment that individuals form to their employing organisations” and would influence employee decisions to stay or leave a job.

The definition of organisational commitment depends on the main approaches to conceptualising and exploring it; these are the attitudinal approach, the normative approach and the multidimensional approach. (Mathabula, 2004)

Attitudinal approach: the relative strength of an individual identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation. (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979). They state three characteristics of organisational commitment: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of organisation’s goals and values; (b) willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and (c) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation. A search of the extensive literature reveals a long list of factors associated with the development of organisation commitment. Mowday, Steers and Porter have categorised these factors into three major categories of variables. These are: personal characteristics, job work experiences and structural characteristics. (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979).

Behavioural approach: in this approach, the employee continues his/her employment with an organisation of the investment he/she has put in, such as friendship, training, benefits and experience (Zangaro, 2001).

Normative approach: in this approach organisational commitment happens when employees' goals and values match with those of the organisation (Mathebula, 2004).

Multi dimensional approach is relatively new. It assumes that organisational commitment is more complex than emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation. This approach suggests that organisational commitment develops because of the interaction of all three components (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The researcher in consultation with the supervisor, decides to adopt this approach thus it will be detailed next.

Employee commitment has been studied in the public, private, and non-profit sector and more recently, internationally. Early research focused on defining the concept whereas current research continues to examine organisational commitment through two popular approaches, commitment-related attitudes and commitment-related behaviours. A variety of antecedents and outcomes have been identified in the past thirty years (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Hunt & Morgan, 1994). Furthermore, Batemen and Strasser (1984) [as cited in Lok & Crawford, 1999] state that the reasons for studying organisational commitment are related to "employee behaviours and performance effectiveness; attitudinal, affective, and cognitive constructs such as job satisfaction; characteristics of the employee's job and role such as responsibility; "personal characteristics of the employee such as age, job tenure" (Hunt & Morgan, 1994, p. 67)

Multiple definitions of employee commitment are found in the literature. The way employee commitment is defined depends on the approach to commitment that one is adhering to. Hunt and Morgan (1994) state that organisational commitment has been operationally defined as "multidimensional in nature, involving an employee's loyalty to the organisation, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation," degree of goal and value congruency with the organisation, and desire to maintain membership" (Hunt & Morgan, 1994, p. 74)

Employee commitment within an organisation is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. In relation to this, Allen & Meyer (1990) define employee commitment as a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue employment with the organisation. Similarly, Meyer & Becker (2004) define a committed employee as being one “stays with an organisation, attends work regularly, puts in a full day and more, protects corporate assets, and believes in the organisational goals”. Meyer & Becker (2004, p. 79). This employee positively contributes to the organisation because of his or her commitment to the organisation.

Research shows that individuals and organisations are adversely affected when commitment is low, and that both benefit when commitment is high (Brockner *et al.*, 1992). Organisational commitment is associated with increased satisfaction, performance, and organisational adaptability (Lok and Crawford, 1999; Meyer & Becker, 2004), as well as decreased absenteeism and employee turnover (Lo *et al.*, 2010).

## **2.6 The Dimensions of Employee Commitment**

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) point out that are differences in the dimensions, forms or components of commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) hold that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct comprising three components: affective, continuance and normative. Employees whose commitment to the organisation is to be of the normative type remains in an organisation simply because they believe they ought to. The factor structure of Allen and Meyer's (1996) organisational commitment scale has been examined in several studies. Some of these include measures from the three components (affective, continuance, and normative) whilst others focus only on affective commitment measures and /or continuance commitment measures.

Many empirical studies agree that the three components are correlated but divergent from each others, i.e. they are valid to test the three components of organisational commitment

(Chang, Chi and Milao, 2000; Abdul Karim and Noor, and Noor; 2006; Brown, 2003; Cheng and Stockdale, 2003).

In arguing for their framework, Meyer and Allen (1991) contend that affective, continuance, and normative commitments are components rather than types because employees could have varying degrees of all three. "For example, one employee might feel both a strong attachment to an organisation and a sense of obligation to remain. Leaving would be very difficult from an economic standpoint. Another employee might experience a considerable degree of desire, need and obligation to remain with the current employer"(Meyer and Allen, 1997, p.13). Even though the authors present this argument, they do not imply that there is a rationale for summing all the scales to obtain an overall score for organisational commitment (Brown, 2003). Consequently, for this research, the different scales will be referred to as types rather than components, although they will be totalled eventually.

Meyer and Allen (1991) contend that organisational commitment and multidimensional concepts have different factors associated with them: outcomes, and implications. Meyer and his colleagues (Meyer and Allen, 1990; 1991; 1996 and 1997 Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001) argue that "commitment as a psychological state, had at least three components, reflecting:

- a) A desire (affective commitment);
- b) A need (continuance commitment);and
- c) An obligation ( normative commitment )

#### **(a)Affective commitment**

Affective commitment has been describe by Meyer and Allen (1991) as the desire to be involved in a particular organisation. It involves an individual's long term feelings toward his or her work.

Monday, Steers and Porter (1979) focused on four categories that make up affective commitment: (a) personal characteristics, (b) structured characteristics, (c) job related characteristics, and (d) work experience. Although these factors might constructively

contribute, Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that the desire to maintain membership in an organisation was due mostly to work experience.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and citizen behaviour. However when taking culture into consideration, affective commitment develops more specifically in relation to work experiences within a particular organisation and stress personal identity and emotional involvement with the organization (Chen and Francesco, 2003, p. 89).

#### **(b)Continuance Commitment**

The second dimension of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimension of organisational commitment is continuance commitment, which is based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory (Mathebula, 204, p.30). This theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organisation for longer periods, they accumulate investment, which becomes costly to lose the longer an individual stays. The investments include time, job effort, and organization specific skills that might not be transferable. Alternatively, there may be or greater costs of leaving the organisation that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, such as work friendships.

Meyer and Allen(1991) describe continuance commitment as the "perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation" (p.64). "Anything that increases the costs associated with leaving an organisation has the potential to create continuance commitment as an individual's "desire to maintain their relationship with the organisation because of the cost of leaving it and not because of an emotional attachment" (p.2). This need to remain with the organisation may be due to the absence of alternatives and /or to the sunk costs associated with reaching one's current position in the organisation, thus these employees exchange their contribution to the organisation for the fringe benefits or from fear of losing them.

One of the perceived "costs" an employee may see as a reason to maintain his or her current position is a lack of other viable job opportunities. Meyer and Allen (1991) state

that some of the perceived potential costs of leaving an organisation could include “the threat of losing attractive benefits, of giving up seniority based privileges, or of having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships”(p.71). This occurs when an employee starts to believe that his/her skills are not marketable or that he does not have the skill required to compete for positions in the field. (Mathebula, 2004.p.31)

People who work in environments, such as Randfontein Health Sub-district, where the skills and training they get are very industry specific can possibly develop such commitment. As a result, the employee feels compelled to commit to the organisation because of the monetary, social, psychological, and other costs associated with leaving the organisation. It is a sort of “opportunity cost”, unlike affective, which involves emotional attachment; continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

### **3 Normative Commitment**

The third dimension of organisational commitment is normative commitment; Researchers' have overlooked this view of organizational commitment, though a few studies explicitly address normative commitment separately from overall commitment (Mathebula, 2004).

Meyer and Allen (1991) describe normative commitment as the obligation to remain in a particular organisation. This describes an employee who remains with an organisation because he or she felt they should, not because of they wanted or needed to (Cheng,2003). A normative commitment is value to the company due to the costs the company faced in order to train the employee. Dunham, et al (1994) state that a person is less likely to leave an organisation if his or her values indicated that it is inappropriate to do so .Meyer and Allen, stat that:

“The socialisation experiences that lead to this felt obligation may begin with observation of role models and / or with the contingent use of rewards and punishment. At a more macro level, cultures, may do the same thins to their members emphasising the importance of the collective rather that the individual” (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p 77)

To help with employee retention it is important to keep open channels of communication to resolve any conflicts or grievances that arose due to organisational norms and individual expectations changing over time (Cheng, 2003, p 89).

It argues that normative commitment is only natural due to the way we are raised in society. Normative commitment can be explained by other commitments such as marriage, family, religion, etc. Therefore, when it comes to one's commitment to their place of employment, they often feel like they have a moral obligation to the organisation (Meyer *et al.*, 2004).

The three components of employee commitment are a psychological state that either characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation or has the power to affect the employee's decision to continue with the organisation. An individual can have similar or different levels of all types of commitment. They are not mutually exclusive. Thus, regardless of the definition, "committed" employees are more likely to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.122).

Meyer & Allen (1997) [as cited in Meyer *et al.*, 2004] found that employees that have a good relationship with their immediate work group have higher levels of commitment to the overall organisation. Accordingly, they argue that employees must be given numerous opportunities throughout the workplace to feel committed to the organisation. Moreover, Ugboro (2006) concluded that workers' organisational commitment is significantly correlated to their perceived job.

## **2.7 The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment**

What factors contribute to an employee's desire to remain in his or her organisation? This is a question that every organisation must address in order to maintain a productive workforce. Currently, we live in fast paced society in which employees frequently move between jobs and thus are employed at many organisations. Reasons are numerous, ranging from not feeling satisfied with their job to incompatibility with others at job to a changing family structure (Ayman, 2003, p.3), or they do not feel committed to the organisation. In other words, the employee may feel that he or she does not belong in the

organisation or may not feel a sense of shared goals with the organisation or may not feel a sense of shared goals with the organization. Employees' feelings of organizational commitment have important implications for organizations. A possible solution is for them to select and retain effective leadership. By changing outlook and behaviour of followers, transformational leadership has shown to be effective in many organisational settings.

A study has proved that organisational commitment generates the desire to stay longer, with employees doing their job happily which in turn has an impact on job satisfaction and job advancement. (Chang, et al, 2007; Villanuevaeva, 2003; Cheng, 2003; Stumpf, 2003; Jahangir, 2003; Lawrence, 2000).

Ketchad and Strawser (2001) indicate that there are two main antecedents' of organisational commitment, personal and situational. Personal factors are those characteristics that a person possessed prior to entering an organisation. Situational factors are those that the employee encountered upon entering the organisation such as job quality, degree of participative leadership, and co-worker commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that each type of commitment has its own set of antecedents:

### **2.7.1 Antecedents for affective commitment**

- (a) Personal characteristics consist of demographic information such as tenure, age, sex and education. It also includes characteristics such as the personal need for achievement, autonomy and personal work ethic.
- (b) A person's work experience within the organisation. This could include an employee's comfort level within the organisation, an employee's belief that per hiring promises have been kept, and the belief of the individual that the organization treats employees equally (Meyer and Allen, 1991, pp.69-71)

### **2.7.2 Antecedents for continuance commitment**

Anything that increases perceived costs can be considered as antecedent (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p71). Testing the importance of these antecedents', however, could be

difficult because each individual views his or her costs and benefits of leaving very differently (Cheng, 2003, p.36). Dunnham, et al (1994) suggest, instead, that age and tenure are potential antecedents to continuance commitment rather than affective. They also included career satisfaction and intent to leave. Tenure for example, could indicate such benefits as skills unique to that organisation, relationship with co-worker, and retirement investment that could be considered non transferable if the employee left the organisation.

### 2.7.3 Antecedents to normative commitment



According to Meyer and Allen (1991) antecedents for normative commitment, mostly involved the moral or social pressure a person has encountered through family or cultural interactions prior to entry into the organisation. This could also be expanded to include social pressure found within the organisation following an individual entering the organisation. Dunham, et al (1994) indicate that the dependability of the organisation and amount of participatory management could be “expected to instil a sense of moral obligation to reciprocate to the organisation”. Organisational is defined as “the extent to which employees feel the organisation can be counted on to look after their interests”, (Dunham, *et al*, 1994, p. 371)

Previous researchers have devoted a great deal of attention to the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational commitment. They have shown that organisational commitment is greater for employees whose leaders encourage their participation in decision making (e.g., Ugboro, 2006), who treat them with consideration (e.g., Shore & Wayne, 1993), fairness (e.g., Brockner *et al.*, 1992; Allen & Meyer, 1990) and are supportive of them (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Also, Mowday *et al.* (1979) [as cited in Ponnu and Tennakoon, 2009], have indicated supervision of employees as one of the critical organizational factors that can influence employee commitment to the organisation.

A relationship between commitment and leadership style has been reported in the organisational and management literatures. Several studies found a positive relationship

between the two variables. For instance, Lo *et al.* (2010) conclude that the leadership styles of supervisors are important dimensions of the social context because they shape subordinates' organisational commitment in various important ways. Likewise, Ponnu & Tennakoon (2009) indicate that ethical leadership behavior has a positive impact on employee organisational commitment and employee trust in leaders.

On the other hand, the study results on the relationship among leadership style, organisational culture and employee commitment in university libraries by Awan & Mahmood (2009) show that the leadership style (in their case, autocratic or laissez-faire) has no effect on the commitment of employees in university libraries. Instead, most of the library professionals seemed to be highly committed to their organisations i.e., they favoured result-oriented culture. Similarly, Lok and Crawford (1999) reported that the leadership style variable, a bureaucratic environment, often resulted in a lower level of employee commitment and performance.

In another study involving 156 participants, Lo *et al.* (2009) examined leadership styles and employees' organisational commitment in the Malaysia manufacturing industry to ensure the successful management of employees and to improve productivity and achievements of an organization. They discovered that several dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership have positive relationship with organisational commitment but the impacts are stronger for transactional leadership style. Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008) investigated the relationship between employees' organisational commitment dimensions and leadership styles and found positive correlations between a transformational leadership style and affective and normative employee commitments whereas a laissez-faire leadership style was found to be negatively.

Likewise, Bycio *et al.* (1995) (as cited in Ponnu and Tennakoon, 2009) examined how transformational leadership and transactional leadership affected employee levels of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Findings

revealed that transformational leadership was a better predictor of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than transactional leadership.

As cited in Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008), Simon (1994) studied the impact of transformational leadership on organisational commitment and found that transformational leadership has a positive linkage with normative and affective commitment. On the other hand, a negative relationship was found between transformational leadership and continuance commitment.

Bass and Avolio (1993) claim that organisations have a kind of culture, which is represented by the leaders who use transactional or transformational leadership styles. According to their findings, transactional culture creates only short-term commitment, whereas transformational culture creates long-term commitment.

The findings of Brown and Dodd (2003) [as cited in Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008] indicated a strong correlation between transformational leadership dimensions and affective commitment, a weaker but still strong positive correlation with normative commitment and no relationship with continuance commitment. A negative relationship was found between transactional leadership dimensions and affective and normative commitments, and a statistically significant correlation found with continuance commitment (Brown and Dodd, 1999).

To sum up, as we have seen in this chapter, there is much in the literature that describes leadership styles and employee commitment from a multitude of angles and views. It was determined that there was a strong relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment (Lo et al., 2009; Lo et al., 2010; Avolio et al., 2004; Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Awan and Mahmood, 2009; Ponnu and Tennakoon, 2009).

These studies were generally conducted in the context of business organisations, yet there have been few researches conducted in Health organisations specifically in South Africa. Thus, the aim of this research is to determine the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment of Randfontein Health District in Gauteng Province.

## **Summary**

Researchers have advocated the value of full range leadership theory over the past theories that lacked the interaction factors of leaders and followers. Investigations into the impact of specific types of transactional and transformational leadership behaviours revealed varying degrees of effectiveness, with transformational showing some advantages.

The literature has also attested to the significant value of organisational commitment, finding it linked to several outcomes of individual and organisational efficiency. As such, organisational commitment can serve as an overarching measure for many areas of effectiveness. The specific types of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) offer an opportunity to conduct a more specialised investigation. Leader behaviours directly affect organisational, laissez fair leadership style and different types of organizational commitment are an important undertaking.

## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This study was intended to be carried out at Randfontein Health Sub-district in Johannesburg City. It was designed as cross - sectional survey for the quantitative study which was used to gather the relevant information with regard to leadership styles and employee commitment. Thus, this study is classified as survey research.

This research follows a survey design, and analysis is based on primary data generated through a structured questionnaire administered to respondents. The survey instrument used in data generation is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass (1985) in his study: "Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations". This instrument is by far the most widely used instrument for measuring leadership styles and outcomes or effects. It comes in several different versions. The version used in this study is the popular MLQ. The independent variables are transformational and transactional leadership styles, while the dependent variables are the outcomes: extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (as disaggregate performance measures of transformational leadership behaviour); effort, productivity and loyalty (as disaggregate performance measures of transactional leadership behaviour) in the selected small scale enterprises. Therefore, questions in the questionnaire are those relating to leadership styles and performance as measured by extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction; effort, productivity and loyalty/commitment. These variables are as proposed by Bass (1990) and House et al (1997). This study operationalizes these variables to evaluate the effect of leadership style on performance of small scale enterprises in the survey area. In the MLQ, each independent variable is given equal weighting. Each research statement has five potential responses, ranging from "not at all" to "all the time" and is scaled from 0 to 4.

### **3.1 Population and Sampling Procedures**

Since the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment by surveying employees and leaders from Randfontein Health Sub-district, the target population of this study included both employees and leaders of Randfontein Health Sub-district in Johannesburg City. According to Burns and Grove

(2007:324) population is described as a total set of people eligible to participate in a research study.

The researcher investigated the relationship between leadership styles and commitment of workers in the Randfontein Health Sub-district, using a questionnaire which he administered personally. The information used in the study was collected from the health organisation in the city of Johannesburg. Stratified random sampling was used because of the differentiated information required regarding various strata and parameters within the population. This method is considered as the most efficient among all probability designs. Members of the Randfontein Health Sub-district were chosen as a sample size of the study. Based on our target population according to Sekarzan (2003) sample size decision, a total of 159 staff members participated in this study.

Randfontein Health Sub-District selected by researcher through a stratified random sampling technique, from a total of twelve Local Clinics in area. The Clinics are stratified according to their respective health care service delivery provision of antiretroviral drugs, immunisation to children and prevention of communicable diseases, Rendering care maternity and in child care and offered Male Medical Circumcision. Respondents were randomly selected from each of these clinics for a sample size of respondents. Only relevant people who are eligible to can give proper information in questionnaires, Academic staff and facility managers, doctors, administration clerks, social workers, psychologists, etc working at government community health clinics should be participated in the survey. A pilot test conducted on the sample showed that transactional leadership style or transformational style. A phenomenological approach was used, utilising unstructured 'closed ended' questions.

Since there is little previous research on the same topic in related areas in Johannesburg up on which one can estimate sample size, I decided on sample size based on factors such as: time available, budget, and proportionality to total population. The prerequisite for an employee's participation as a respondent in this study was that he/she must have worked for at least one year under the current leader, whereas a leader must have been with the company for more than three years. A proportional number of samples (employees and

supervisors) was allocated to main divisions – strata such as facilities or departments- of each institution, and then samples were randomly drawn from each stratum.

To sum up, a combination of purposive, stratified and simple random sampling techniques was used to select samples. This was to ensure that target groups within a population are adequately represented in the sample, and to improve efficiency by gaining greater control over composition of the sample.

### 3.2 Response Rate and Sample Size

As summarised in Table 3.1, the sample consisted of participants of this study surveyed from Randfontein Health Sub-district in Johannesburg. I distributed 21 leader questionnaires and 138 subordinate questionnaires. Twenty leader and 95 subordinate questionnaires were successfully completed and returned with a non-response rate of 4.8 % and 31.2%, respectively. Finally, the total sample size of 115 respondents, including leaders and instructors, was used in this study amounting to a total non-response rate of approximately 27.7% from the original sample.

**Table 3.1: Institutions, sample size and response rates**

NO	NAME OF INSTITUTION	SAMPLE SIZE		RESPONSES	
		Leader	Employee/Staff	Leader	Employee/Staff
1	Greenhill Health Sub-district	3	10	3	7
2	ML PessenCinic	2	20	2	13
3	PJ Mare Clinic	2	20	2	14
4	Mohlakeng MOU	1	10	1	7
5	Mohlakeng PHC	2	15	2	8
6	Mohlakeng CCMT	1	12	1	8
7	Randgate Clinic	2	6	2	4
8	Kocksoord Clinic	2	15	2	12
9	Badirile Clinic	2	8	1	7
10	Zenzele Clinic	1	6	1	4

11	Yarona Clinic	2	10	2	7
12	Elandsfonein Clinic	1	6	1	4
<b>Total</b>		<b>21</b>	<b>138</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>95</b>

**3.3 Data Sources and Type**

In order to generate relevant data for this study, both primary and secondary data sources were considered. According to Biggam (2008), primary data is the information that the researcher finds out by him/herself regarding a specific topic. The main advantage of this type of data collection is that it is collected with the researcher’s purpose in mind. This means that the information resulting from it is more consistent with the research questions and purpose. The data collected by me is directly linked with this study, thus providing me with important information.

As this study is basically empirical in nature, primary data was gathered from employees and their leaders/supervisors to answer the above questions. Hence, the more emphasize is inclined to the primary data source. The closed ended questionnaires which are designed on an ordinal scale of measurement basis were used to collect primary data, so that the variables could be ranked to measure the degree of their strength or the agreement or the disagreement of the respondents with the variables.

Secondary data serves researchers with the opportunity to better understand and explain the research problem. Thus, it is very important to start a review of the existing data with a clear mindset of what it is that one wants to accomplish with the study. This will help the researcher save time and effort because he/she can easily discard data that has no relevance their study. Irrelevant information could only be used partially for a specific study.

The secondary data of this study is compiled from many sources such as e-sources, library books, and journals/ articles. This data is used to get better insight into the research topic, to establish a viable platform for the theoretical framework constituting the basis of this research, and to design the sample frame and questionnaire for retrieving

the primary data. Another advantage of using secondary data is it can be used to make comparisons. I used it to validate and compare the data obtained through the questionnaire to that obtained from the existing literature and articles.

### **3.4 Data Gathering Instruments**

For the purposes of this study, a quantitative methodology involving a closed-ended questionnaire was used as the measuring instrument. The closed-ended questionnaires can be administered to groups of people simultaneously, since they are less costly and less time consuming than other measuring instruments. Two separate instruments, namely multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) and organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), were used in this research to obtain quantitative information on leadership styles and employees' organisational commitment respectively.

Data collection is a systematic process of collecting information significant to the research study (Burns & Grove, 2007:41). Data was collected through self-administered open-ended questionnaires. All potential respondents are believed to be literate. Language used is English, and it was expected that all professionals and non-professionals working Clinics of Randfontein health district health, would be able to speak, read and write English.

Self-administered questionnaires were given to respondents and completed on his or /her own, either on paper or via computer ([http:// medant.wikispaces.com](http://medant.wikispaces.com) 08/01/2013). For this research, questionnaires were distributed in the form of hard copy and respondents were expected to respond directly on the paper and return questionnaires. Advantages of using self-administered questionnaires include the fact that respondents were free to give their opinions without fear of the researcher. It is cheap when compared to other methods of data collection. Many people were reached at low cost. It reduced interviewer bias. Questionnaires were hand delivered rather than couriered to respondents, and which was more economical.

It requires less skill to administer compared to other methods of data collection. Large areas were covered through the questionnaire method. Questionnaires saves time compared to other methods of data collection. They are more reliable in many cases. Respondents gave free and frank information. Information given was free from external influence since the researcher was not there and there were fewer errors because the information was supplied by the respondent.

### **3.4.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X)**

Prior to selecting the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) for this research, several other instruments such as Managerial Grid, Situational Leadership Questionnaire, and Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) were considered as possible measurements of leadership behaviours. Although these instruments measure transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, the subscales and items do not focus on a separation or differentiation of these behaviours. Instead, their emphasis is on identifying the types of leadership behaviours that are most appropriate for the situation (Bass *et al.*, 2003; Avolio *et al.*, 2004). For these reasons, none of them was considered appropriate for this research.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been improved and tested since 1985 with the result that many versions of the questionnaire have been developed. It is formulated from the Full Range Leadership Model consisting of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviours with nine subscales. Bass and Avolio (1995) [as cited in Bass *et al.*, 2003], presented the MLQ Form 5X with nine subscales of leadership styles.

Participants were asked to judge the extent to which their leader engaged in specific behaviours measured by the MLQ. The MLQ Form 5X is self-scoring and used 27 items excluding the least relevant ones in our country's context to measure the nine subscales (3 items for each) in this study. These items are rated using a 5-point Likert scale labelled as 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently, if not

always. A high score shows high effectiveness of leadership style perception while low a score implies low effectiveness perception in the scale.

Examples of items from the MLQ-Form 5X questionnaire include (Ibid.): (a) Inspirational motivation (transformational) - talks optimistically about the future; (b) MBE-passive (transactional) – directs my attention towards failures to meet standards; (c) Laissez-faire - avoids making decisions.

### **3.4.2 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**

Although there is another identically-named Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter *et al.* (1974) [as cited in Lok *et al.*, 2010], it does not specify a clear delineation among the types of employee commitment. Also, comments by the authors caused concern about the Allen & Meyer OCQ's usefulness as a measure of employee commitment. For these and other reasons, Allen & Meyer's (1990) OCQ was selected as the measure of employees' organisational commitment for this study.

This Organisational Commitment Questionnaire consists of three dimensions, namely "Affective commitment", "Continuance commitment" and "Normative commitment". The selected OCQ is a self-scoring questionnaire and the responses to each of the 12 items (4 items for each dimension) are rated using a 5-point Likert scale labelled as 0 = strongly disagree, 1 = disagree, 2 = neither agree nor disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree. A high score shows high employees' organisational commitment perception while low score implies low perception in the scale.

Examples of items from the OCQ questionnaire include (Ibid.): (a) Affective commitment - I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation; (b) Continuance commitment - It would be very costly for me to leave this organisation right now; (c) Normative commitment - I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.

## **3.5 Independent and Dependent Variables of the Study**

The Variables used in measuring Full Range Leadership behaviours were considered separately as independent variables. The subscales for these variables are contained in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X). On the other hand, three separate measures of employee commitment were used as dependent variables. These measures are the affective commitment scale, continuance commitment scale, and normative commitment scale of the OCQ. Table 3.5.1 lists the variables as follows.

**Table 3.5.1 Independent and dependent variables table**



<b>Independent variable Measures</b>		
<b>Instrument</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Scales/Subscales</b>
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire(MLQ Form 5X)	Transformational leadership	Idealised Influence (Attributed) Idealised Influence (Behavior) Inspirational Motivation Intellectual Stimulation Individual Consideration
	Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward Management-by-Exception (Active) Management-by-Exception (Passive)
	Laissez-Faire	Laissez-Faire
<b>Dependent variable Measures</b>		
<b>Instrument</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire(OCQ)	Employee Commitment	Affective Commitment Continuance Commitment Normative Commitment

### 3.6 Measurement of Variables

Leadership style was the independent variable in the organisation. Leadership styles were measured using the transformational leadership subscale of the leadership questionnaire MLQ-5, developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). The original 45-item survey was reduced to a 43-item survey. Bass and Avolio's subscales measuring transactional and laissez-faire leadership were not validated in this organisation. A total of 20 items representing transformational leadership modified by Khan, Urehman and Fatima (2009) were used in this study to assess the transformational scale. These adaptive leadership behaviours are termed transformational leadership and are known to have five components: attributed charisma, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence. Response descriptions against items were given on a five-point Likert scale of (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Some of the items include statements like, I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.

### **3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation Procedures**

After data was collected, it is necessary to utilise statistical techniques to analyse the information as this study was quantitative in nature. Therefore, the survey data was processed using a Statistical Package for Social Science SPSS (version 16). First the relevant data was coded and summarised and then transferred to SPSS to be analysed and presented.

Frequency tables were used to summarise the respondents' profiles in the form of frequency and percentages whereas the descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviations of employees' answers to leadership styles and employee commitment scales were calculated in order to determine employees' perceptions of leadership styles and employees' organisational commitment. Descriptive statistics was also used to calculate mean and standard deviations of leaders' answers to leadership styles in order to determine their perceptions.

Subsequently, the researcher employed the two tailed Pearson correlation analysis to investigate the relationship between various leadership styles and employee commitment dimensions. The correlation analysis supported both the form and degree of the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment. Also T-tests were used to compare the MLQ of leaders and employees responses (independent samples). This was followed by the presentation of the detailed discussions on variables along with interpretations.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the study. Several key findings emerged that shed light on leadership styles and their association with employee commitment. Findings about the demographics of study participants, and the statistical analyses used to answer the research questions is also presented. These helped me to interpret and understand the results.

### **4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants**

There was a total sample of 115 full-time employees, 20 leaders and 95 Academic staff, who participated in this study from various departments and positions of 12 Randfontein Health Sub-districts within the City of Johannesburg.

Table 4.1 and 4.2 present a summary of the leaders' and academic supervisors' demographic data results respectively. In the leaders' sample, almost all are males (90%) and there are more males (88.4%) than females in the academic staffs' sample. Of the academic staff most were between 26 and 35 years (56.8%) followed by those of 36 to 45 years old (16.8 %) whereas most of the leaders fall in the range of 26 to 35 years of age (40%). followed by those between 36 to 45, 46 to 55, and 66 or older years old (15% each).

Most of the total academic staff have worked from 3 to 5 years (35.8%) followed by 1 to 3 years (34.7%), as the minimum requirement was one year, for their current organisation and most of those have worked from 1 to 3 years under the current leader (73.7%). The majority of leaders have worked from 3 to 5 years, as the minimum requirement was 3 years, for their current organization (55%) followed by 5 to 7 years (30%). They also have as well similar previous work experience of above 5 years (50%) followed by under 1 year (30%).

Of the total number of participants, most of the leaders are married (65%) whereas almost half of the academic employees are single (50.5 %). Education levels of both groups varied, with 5% and 8.4% having some college, no degree, 40% and 51.6% having a Bachelor's degree, and 55% and 40% falling in the range of Master's degree to having

some Post Masters degree credits and Doctorate degree for both leaders and academic employees, respectively.

**Table 4.1: Summary of Leaders' Profile**

	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Sex	Female	2	10
	Male	18	90
Worked on current position	3 to 5 years	11	55
	5 to 7 years	6	30
	Above 7 years	3	15
Previous work experience	under 1 year	7	35
	1 to 3 years	3	15
	3 to 5 years	1	5
	Above 5 years	9	45
Age group	Under 26	1	5
	26 to 35	8	40
	36 to 45	3	15
	46 or older	8	40
Marital status	Single	6	30
	Married	13	65
	Other	1	5

**Table 4.2: Summary of Academic Staff's Profile**

	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Sex	Female	11	11.6
	Male	84	88.4
Worked on current position	3 to 5 years	33	34.7
	5 to 7 years	34	35.8
	Above 7 years	28	29.5
Previous work experience	under 1 year	70	73.7
	1 to 3 years	15	15.8
	3 to 5 years	10	10.5
	Above 5 years		
Age group	Under 26	12	12.6
	26 to 35	54	56.8
	36 to 45	16	16.8
	46 or older	13	13.3
Marital status	Single	48	50.5
	Married	44	46.3
	Other	3	3.2

**4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment**

Descriptive statistics was used as a way to examine the mean, standard deviation and other information which is not apparent in the raw data. It was needed to determine the academic staffs' perception of leadership style and organisational commitment. Table 4.3 below contains descriptive data (mean and standard deviations) for the five transformational leadership subscales, three transactional leadership subscales, one laissez-faire subscale, and three employee commitment scales as indicated by the

respondents. In all cases, the distribution of scores for the sample contained reasonable variance and normality for use in subsequent analyses.

**Table 4.3: Mean and Standard Deviations of Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment for Academic Staff’s Responses**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Mean Std.</b>	<b>Deviation</b>
Idealised Influence (attributed)	2.12	1.09
Idealised Influence (behavior)	2.53	.93
Inspirational Motivation	2.52	.99
Intellectual Stimulation	2.18	.96
Individualised Consideration	2.13	.88
Transformational Leadership	2.30	.80
Contingent Reward	2.31	.99
Management-by-Exception (active)	1.86	.89
Management-by-Exception (passive)	1.66	1.05
Transactional Leadership	1.94	.48
Laissez-Faire	1.75	1.02
Affective Commitment	2.41	.83
Continuance Commitment	1.51	.88
Normative Commitment	2.07	.77

(SPSS Statistical Package for Social Science, statistical analyses used to answer the research questions)**Note:** N=95.

Each subscale of leadership styles and each scale of commitment has 3 items and 4 Items, respectively.

#### **4.2.1 Employees’ Perception of leadership Styles**

The sample size for all variables (leadership and commitment) is 95 indicating that leaders’ responses are excluded because the purpose here is to determine employees’

perceptions of the current organisation's leadership styles and their commitment to the organisation. The mean values for each of the transformational leadership subscales were calculated between 2.12 to 2.53 with the standard deviation value of nearly 1; whereas those of transactional leadership ranged from 1.66 to 2.31 and standard deviation of nearly 1. The mean and standard deviation values for laissez-faire were 1.75 and 1.02, respectively. From the leadership subscales, idealised influence (attributed) has the highest standard deviation, approximately 1.09, followed by management-by-exception (passive), which scored approximately 1.05 standard deviation.

The overall scores of data for the transformational and transactional subscales are, in some cases, slightly less than what Bass & Avolio (1997) [as cited in Bass *et al.*, 2003] consider "ideal" levels for effective leadership. The suggested scores for the most effective leaders include a mean of 3.0 or higher for idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Mean scores for the subscales in this study ranged from 2.12 to 2.53.

On the other hand, the same authors suggest a mean score of 2.0 for contingent reward while this study's sample data mean score is 2.31, which is only slightly higher than the suggested one. The score for management-by-exception (active) in this study is 1.86; this is found within the suggested range of 1.0 and 2.0. In the same way, the suggested scores for management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire are between 1.0 and 0.0, but mean scores for my study have higher ranges of 1.66 and 1.75, respectively.

The aforementioned patterns of scores for this study suggest that some respondents perceived their leaders as not exhibiting the "ideal" levels of transformational leadership behaviours. These behaviours include instilling pride, inspiring a shared vision, talking optimistically, encouraging creativity, and placing much importance in coaching or training.

On the contrary, the mean score of contingent reward implies that some of the academic staff perceived their leaders as performing beyond the expected average of recognising

accomplishments and clarifying expectations. This is also similar for the management by exception (active) mean, which indicate that some employees perceived their leaders as taking corrective action immediately when deviations occur. Furthermore, the mean scores of management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire, indicates that some employees perceive that their immediate supervisors tend not to take corrective action or make decisions as soon as problems occur.

As the results of this study indicate, respondents perceived leadership style to be slightly more transformational ( $M = 2.30$ ) than that of transactional ( $M = 1.94$ ) and laissez-faire ( $M = 1.75$ ). This supports the finding of Trottier *et al.* (2008) that shows transformational leadership variables to be slightly more important in terms of their overarching concept of leadership effectiveness in followers' perceptions of importance.

#### **4.2.2 Employee's Perception of their Organisational Commitment**

In addition to the scores of leadership styles, the mean and standard deviations of the employees' commitment to their organization are presented in Table 4.3 as indicated by the respondents. The mean and standard deviation scores for each of the employee commitment scales are ranked by respondents as follows: affective commitment has 2.41 and .83, continuance commitment has 1.51 and .88, and normative commitment has 2.07 and .72. Looking at the mean scores, from highest to lowest, respondents ranked their "affective commitment" with highest mean of 2.41, whereas their "continuance commitment" had lowest mean of 1.51 of all of them from standard deviation scores, continuance commitment has the highest value of all, i.e., 0.88.

In describing the application of their Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) scales, Allen & Meyer (1990) do not provide guidance about average, required, ideal, or expected means for affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Instead, Allen & Meyer (1990) and other researchers (Brockner *et al.*, 1992; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Meyer *et al.*, 2004) tried to identify the relationship between the

different types of organisational commitment and the outcomes that are being examined, as well as the patterns of those findings , and their level of influence..

The results of this study reflect that the pattern of mean scores is consistent with the abovementioned ones by showing that affective commitment had these highest score, followed by normative commitment, and then continuance commitment with the lowest score. This indicates that some of the academic staff have strong affective commitment towards their organisations, where they would consider themselves as belonging to these organisations. However, the lowest mean of continuance commitment implies that the respondents felt that the academic institution’s leaders are not paying enough attention to the rewards in exchange for efforts they provide to the organisations.

### 4.3 Comparisons between Leader and Employee Responses on Leadership Styles

The results of descriptive statistics for employees and leaders responses to Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) are presented in Table 4.3. The-t-test is used to compare the means of two samples (independent). In this case, the significant differences, between the two samples on the dimensions of the questionnaires, are determined. The test considers two critical assumptions regarding data distribution: the values in the data set are independent (measured on randomly selected units from the study area) and the data are to be normally distributed, but are not sensitive to violations of the normality assumption unless the data is extremely non-normal.

Also the standard deviations and standard error mean of the two samples (employees and leaders) are compared to determine whether academic staff perception is similar or different to leadership styles based on the dimensions of the questionnaires.

**Table 4.4: Comparison for the MLQ (leaders and employees) responses**

Variables	Participants	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std. ErrorMean

Idealised Influence (attributed)	Employees	95	2.12	1.09	.11133
	Leaders	20	2.75	.73	.16379
Idealised Influence (behaviour)	Employees	95	2.53	.93	.09550
	Leaders	20	2.88	.77	.77147
Inspirational Motivation	Employees	95	2.52	.99	.10183
	Leaders	20	3.25	.64	.14281
Intellectual Stimulation	Employees	95	2.18	.96	.09886
	Leaders	20	3.10	.54	.12115
Individualised Consideration	Employees	95	2.13	.88	.09012
	Leaders	20	2.77	.66	.14730
Transformational Leadership	Employees	95	2.30	.80	.08254
	Leaders	20	2.95	.38	.08389
Contingent Reward	Employees	95	2.31	.99	.10141
	Leaders	20	3.43	.43	.09703
Management-by-Exception (active)	Employees	95	1.86	.89	.09151
	Leaders	20	2.30	.95	.21344
Management-by-Exception (passive)	Employees	95	1.66	1.05	.10757
	Leaders	20	1.1	1.15	1.11
Transactional Leadership	Employees	95	1.94	.48	.04969
	Leaders	20	2.29	.55	.12206
Laissez-Faire	Employees	95	1.75	1.02	.10490
	Leaders	20	.87	.74	.16473

According to the results shown in the Table 4.4, the mean score for employees' responses on each of the transformational leadership subscales ranged from 2.12 to 2.53 with the standard deviation values from .88 to 1.09 whereas those of leaders had mean scores which ranged from 2.75 to 3.25 with standard deviation values from .54 to .77. If we consider the mean and standard deviation scores of the transformational leadership scales taken as a whole for both groups, the employees' group had 2.30 and .80 respectively whereas leaders' group had 2.95 and .38 respectively.

On the other hand, the mean and standard deviation scores for each of the transactional leadership subscales ranged from 1.66 to 2.31 mean and standard deviation of nearly 1 for employees' responses, while it ranged from 1.15 to 3.43 mean and 0.43 to 1.11 standard deviation values for leaders' responses. When taken as a whole, the leaders' responses on the transactional leadership scale present a higher mean with slightly higher standard deviation to that of employees' responses. But the mean and standard deviation values of the leaders' responses for laissez-faire leadership scale we are lower than to that of employees' one, respectively.



For some of the transformational leadership subscales such as inspirational motivation ( $m=3.25$ ) and intellectual stimulation ( $m=3.10$ ), leaders' responses indicate that the current study has a slightly higher mean score compared to that of Bass and Avolio's(1997) suggested one for the most effective leaders ( $m \geq 3.0$ ) whilst the employees' responses for all subscales had slightly less than the suggested benchmark. In the case of contingent reward, the mean scores for both groups were higher than the suggested mean score of 2.0 compared with employees mean score of 2.31 and with 3.43 mean score of leaders. Similarly, the mean scores of both employees and leaders for management-by-exception (active) are found within and above, respectively, the suggested ranges of 1.0 and 2.0. The mean scores of employees' responses for management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire are found above the suggested ranges of 1.0 and 0.0, whereas those of leaders was slightly higher than and within the suggested ranges respectively.

As the whole values of the mean implies for all leadership subscales with the exception of management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire, the leaders' responses had higher mean scores than those of employees'. The values of standard deviation on all leadership subscales with an exception to management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) indicated higher standard deviation scores for employees' responses than to the leaders' responses.

The variations in both cases could have been triggered by different factors. In particular, the difference in mean values may be due to the difference in the size of the

two samples or due to the considerable difference in perception of both groups about leadership styles. It could also be due to leaders considering themselves to be exercising in practical what is required in theoretical leadership behaviours, but without convincing their followers. Likewise, the differences in the values of the standard deviations show that there is more difference in variability for the scores of employees' responses than those of the leaders. This is an indication of major differences between leadership behaviours which are being practised and behaviours which are being perceived by employees.

When we consider the standard error mean, the results indicate that employees' responses have smaller standard error mean than that of the leaders almost in all variables. The great difference in the size of the two samples (employees = 95, leaders = 20) could be considered as a possible reason. Another reason may be that the standard error depends on both the standard deviation of the samples and the sample size. Berenson *et al.* (2002) explain that as the size of the sample increases the standard error decreases. Thus, it is obvious that as the sample size increases, the higher the possibility will be that the samples mean is not too far from the population mean.

The analysis results of the T-test for equality of mean scores are presented in the Table 4.5 below. This test measures whether the difference is significant or not between the mean scores of the two samples (employees and leaders) for Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Confidence Interval of the Difference is 95% (i.e.,  $p \leq 0.05$ ).

**Table 4.5: T-test results for equality of mean scores by the two samples on MLQ**

T-test for equality of means		T	D f	Sig.(2tailed)
Contingent reward	Equal variances assumed	4.975	113	.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-8.012	67.012	.000

Management by exception (active)	Equal variances assumed	1.967	113	.052
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.881	26.446	.071
Management by exception (passive)	Equal variances assumed	1.956	113	.053
	Equal variances not assumed	1.883	26.608	.071
Idealised influence (attributed)	Equal variances assumed	-2.465	113	.015
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.167	38.931	.003
Idealised influence (behaviour)	Equal variances assumed	-1.587	113	.115
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.801	31.994	.081
Inspirational motivation	Equal variances assumed	3.137	113	.002
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.146	41.083	.000
Intellectual stimulation	Equal variances assumed	-4.114	113	.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-5.868	48.863	.000
Individualised consideration	Equal variances assumed	-3.045	113	.003
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.668	34.9901	.001
Laissez-faire leadership	Equal variances assumed	3.681	113	.000
		4.546	36.32	.000

	Equal variances not assumed			
Transactional Leadership	Equal variances assumed	-2.878	113	.005
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.660	25.676	.013
Transformational Leadership	Equal variances assumed	-3.533	113	.001
	Equal variances not assumed	-5.538	61.873	.000

The finding points out to differences between the two samples in all dimensions of leadership with the exception to idealised influence (behaviours), management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive). These significant differences implies as there are imply that there are major differences between leadership behaviours which are being practically exercised and behaviours which are being perceived by the employees of the organization.

#### 4.4 The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment

In this section, correlation analysis conducted in the light of each research questions was mentioned. The relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment was investigated using two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis. This provided correlation coefficients which indicated the strength and direction of the relationship. The p-value also indicated the probability of this relationship's significance. These findings are presented below.

**Table 4.6: Pearson correlation matrix between leadership styles and employee commitment dimensions**

Employee commitment	Affective commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	Total Employee
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Leadership styles				Commitment
Transformational leadership style	.305**	.238*	.053	.303**
Transactional leadership style	.075	.177	.222*	.229*
Laissez-faire leadership style	-.349**	-.046	.024	-.189

Note: N=95

\*. Correlation is significant at the  $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed).

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the  $p < 0.01$  level (2-tailed).

#### 4.4.1 Correlations between Transformational Leadership Style and Employee Commitment Dimensions

As seen from the results, transformational leadership had relatively weak, but significant positive correlation with affective commitment (0.305\*\*) and very weak, but significant, positive relationship with continuance commitment (0.238\*) whereas no relationship with normative commitment (0.053). It can also be said that 9% of the variance in affective commitment and 6% of the variance in continuance commitment originated from the transformational leadership behaviours when coefficients of determination ( $r^2=0.09$  & 0.06, respectively) were taken into consideration.

These findings suggest that there is a positive, although not very strong, relationship between the transformational leadership style and both affective commitment and continuance commitment. For affective commitment, this suggests that leadership behaviours which involve building trust, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging creativity, emphasising development, and recognising accomplishments is somewhat positively related to how employees feel about wanting to stay with the Randfontein Health Sub-district. For continuance commitment, this finding suggests that these same leadership behaviours are related to how employees feel about having to stay with the organisation.

Continuance commitment is more likely related to transferability of skills, education, retirement money, status, and job security, and alternative employment opportunities (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Meyer et al., 2004).

However, the rate in the relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and continuance commitment is rather lower than the rate in the relationship with affective commitment, because continuance commitment is about the costs of leaving the organisation and is largely affected by the variables such as gender, age, seniority, career opportunities, salary, and marital status (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

As for the lack of statistically significant correlations between transformational leadership and normative commitment, my findings suggest that this same leadership style may not be related to how employees feel about their obligation to stay with organisation. The finding that transformational leadership style has no relationship with normative commitment is also appropriate since employees who stay with an organization because they feel obligated to do so may not exhibit the same enthusiasm and involvement as employees who stay with an organisation because they want to stay and need to stay (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Brooks et al., 2006). This is also in line with the argument of Mannheim & Halamish (2008). It reveals that as transformational leadership is enacted, members of organisations no longer seek merely self-interest, but that which is beneficial to the organisation as a whole. As such, transformational leadership style may not be related to normative commitment as much as to affective and continuance commitment.

This study, therefore, supports the suggestions by Brown & Dodd (2003) [cited in Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008] that transformational leadership and affective commitment are correlated, and not having correlation with continuance commitment. Consistent with the finding of Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008), transformational leadership has a positive relationship with affective and continuance commitment, but is different for that of normative commitment. Similarly, this study does not support suggestions made by Simon (1994) that a transformational leadership style has a positive

relationship with normative commitment and a negative correlation with continuance commitment.

Similar to the findings of Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008), transformational leadership, according to the results of this research, has a positive but lower relationship with employees' continuance commitment. The finding of this study also coincides with the findings of Bycio *et al.* (1995) [cited in Ponnu and Tennakoon, 2009] that revealed transformational leadership was a better predictor of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than transactional leadership. Another consistent finding was that by Lok & Crawford (1999) which revealed that the leadership style variable, consideration, had a relatively stronger relationship with commitment when compared with other variables.

Generally, the present study has shown that transformational leaders have a more significant positive relationship with employee commitment in psychological, value, and economic terms. This is consistent with previous studies by Lo *et al.* (2009) and Lo *et al.* (2010), who elucidated that transformational leadership styles have a more significant positive correlation with employee commitment dimensions. Given that a transformational leadership style is often associated with emotional aspects, it is not surprising that transformational leadership has the greatest correlation with affective employee commitment in study or generally.

Consistent with the study of (Avolio *et al.*, 2004), the result of my study indicated significant and positive associations between transformational leadership and employee commitment dimensions. Accordingly, it can be said that there is a significant relationship between employee commitments and transformational leadership behaviours of Randfontein Health Sub-District. As a transformational leader helps followers develop beyond their potential and satisfy their higher order needs, he/she is likely to gain their followers' commitment to the organization (Bass, 1997).

#### **4.4.2 Correlations between Transactional Leadership Style and Employee Commitment Dimensions**

According to the analysis results, there is a very weak, but positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership style and normative commitment (0.222\*) but there is no statistically significant correlation with affective commitment (0.075) and continuance commitment (0.177). It can also be said that 5% of the variance in normative commitment originates from the transactional leadership behaviours when a coefficient of determination ( $r^2=0.05$ ) is taken into consideration.

The positive correlation between transactional leadership style and normative commitment suggests that leadership behaviours involving rewards, highlighting problems and positive reinforcement related to whether employees feel they ought to stay with the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1993). This relationship also indicates that the leaders' and followers' associations affects employees' moral identification with an organisation and relates to their feelings of responsibility (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

On the other hand, the absence of a relationship between transactional leadership style with and affective commitment and continuance commitment suggests that leadership behaviours involving exchange of rewards for meeting agreed-on objectives, highlighting problems, or not waiting for problems to become serious before taking action, may not be related to how employees feel about wanting to stay and needing to stay with the organisation. These feelings are related more negative performance (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993).



This confirms the findings of Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008) that identified a significant and positive correlation between transactional leadership style and normative commitment and the authors did not confirm the relationship with that affective and normative commitment in the case of a transactional. Taken together, the findings also support the studies of Bycioet *al.* (1995) [cited in Ponnu and Tennakoon, 2009], Lo *et al.* (2009) and Lo *et al.* (2010) which indicated that transactional leadership had a positive relationship with employees' organisational commitment.

Despite the above findings, the significant positive correlation of transactional leadership style and normative commitment contradicts the results of by Marmaya *et al.* (2011)

which found that transactional leadership style was positively related to affective commitment in their context. It also contradicts the findings of Brown & Dodd (1999) [cited in Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008], whose empirically supported arguments stated that transactional leadership had a negative association with affective and normative commitments. An explanation of this finding may be due to the characteristics of the research sample used by them since they investigated employees in US municipalities.

#### **4.4.3 Correlations between Laissez-Faire leadership style and Employee Commitment Dimensions**

Laissez-faire leadership style, according to the research data, is significantly and negatively related to affective commitment (-0.349\*\*) although the correlation is relatively weak. It can also be said that 12% of the variance in affective commitment originates from laissez-faire leadership behaviours when coefficient of determination ( $r^2=0.12$ ) is taken into consideration. But it has no relationship with both continuance commitment (-.046) and normative commitment (.024).

This existence of significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and affective commitment suggests the strength of negative influence on affective commitment. Therefore, leadership behaviours that involve ignoring problems, displaying indifference, and overlooking achievements are negatively related to employees' commitment in the Randfontein Health Sub-district.

However, laissez-faire leadership does not have any statistically significant correlations with continuance and normative commitments. These almost nonexistent correlations suggest that leadership behaviours involving ignoring problems, acting in a non-involved way, displaying indifference, and overlooking achievements may not be related to how employees feel about need to stay and having to stay with the Randfontein Health Sub-District.

Laissez-faire leadership, given its non-intervening nature, has negative consequences on the affective employee commitment dimension, but no effect on others. The results are consistent with the literature, indicating that laissez-faire leadership is negatively related to affective commitment and has no relationship with continuance commitment, although the results contradict the significant negative relationship with normative commitment (Bučiūnienė and Škudienė, 2008). Likewise, the nonexistent correlations of laissez-faire leadership with both continuance and normative commitments confirm the finding of Awan and Mahmood (2009) that found that leadership style (in their case, autocratic or laissez-faire) has no effect on the commitment of employees in Randfontein Health Sub-District libraries.

#### **4.4.4 Comparisons of Overall Correlations among the Variables**

The findings of this study reveal that transformational leadership has positive associations with the dimensions of employee commitment, and that transformational and transactional leadership are important in relation to followers' organisational commitment. Such findings clearly indicate the important role of transformational leadership, and the importance for organisations to nurture transformational leadership qualities among their leaders.

When compared to transformational leadership, transactional leadership is effective in affecting only employees' normative commitment whereas transformational leadership is effective in affecting both employees' affective and continuance commitments without having any effect on normative commitment. Compared to transformational and transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership has a significant and negative correlation with affective employees' commitment, but does not have any significant correlation to either continuance or normative commitments.

Generally, the present study has shown that transformational leaders have a more significant and a stronger relationship with organisational commitment. This is consistent with previous studies by Bass and Avolio (1993) who claimed that a transactional culture

creates only short-term commitment whereas a transformational culture creates long-term commitment. It also confirms the findings of Lok and Crawford (1999) who concluded that the leadership style variable in, a bureaucratic environment with transactional characteristics, often resulted in a lower level of employee commitment and performance. Similarly, Mannheim and Halamish (2008) revealed that leaders who exhibit transformational leadership styles are more effective in achieving significantly higher commitment levels than transactional leaders.

## CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

### 5.1 Conclusions

The main objective of this research was to examine the relationship between leadership styles and employees' organisational commitment in Randfontein Health Sub-District. According to the results, analysis and discussion of the study, conclusions have been drawn concerning the nature and relationship of leadership styles and employee commitment.

Most of the academic employees had worked for their current organisation from three to five (35.8%), as the minimum requirement for this study was one year and from three years under their current leader (73.7%). The majority of leaders had worked for their current organisation from three years to five years as the minimum requirement for this study was three years (55%).

The patterns of mean scores for transformational leadership subscales suggests that some respondents perceived their leaders as not exhibiting the "ideal" levels of transformational leadership behaviours, there was room for improvement. The mean for contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) of transactional subscales suggests that some employees perceived their leaders be performing beyond the expected average of recognising accomplishments and taking corrective action immediately when deviations occurred.

Consistent with other findings, affective commitment had the highest mean score, followed by normative commitment, and then continuance commitment, with the lowest score. Therefore, it can be said that academic staff's perceptions of organisational commitment were positive. These mean scores suggest that some employees felt more strongly about wanting to stay, followed by the obligation to stay and less about having to stay, and they felt less strongly about having with the Randfontein Health Sub-District.

The lowest mean score of continuance commitment suggests that employees of the institutions perceived that they received much less recognition in comparison to the effort they were required to exert in performing one particular leadership style.

Regarding the comparison between employees' and leaders' responses to leadership styles in the Randfontein Health Sub-District, the employees' group had a mean of 2.30 whereas the leaders' group had a mean of 2.95 on the transformational leadership scale. Similarly, the leaders' responses on the transactional leadership scale presented as higher mean, with a slightly higher standard deviation to that of the employees' responses. But the mean and standard deviation values of the leaders' responses for laissez-faire leadership scale were lower than that of employees' one, respectively. This indicates that leaders of Randfontein Health Sub -District perceived more than employees perceive as they adopt, from most to least, a transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, and the laissez-faire leadership respectively.

In almost all the leadership variables, the standard error mean of employees' responses is smaller than that of the leaders. Analysis of the T-test for equality of mean scores revealed significant differences between the two samples in all dimensions of leadership with the exception of idealised influence (behaviours), management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive).

The results of this study confirm some of earlier findings and contradict the others on the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative commitments).

The important finding of this study is that transformational leadership style has a more significant influence on affective employee commitment than on continuance employee commitment. It can be suggested that transformational leadership styles which involve building trust, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging creativity, and emphasising development explain some of the variations in whether employees *want to* or *do not want to* stay with the Randfontein Health Sub- District. For continuance commitment, these

same transformational leadership activities do not fully explain the variation in whether employees felt they *needed to* or *did not* feel they *needed to* stay with the organisation. This finding also led us to conclude that transformational leadership is a better predictor of employee commitment in the organisation.

According to the results of the research, there is a positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership style and normative commitment only. This reflects that leadership behaviours, which involve recognising accomplishments taking immediate action or not waiting for problems to become chronic before taking action, explain positive variations in how employees feel about *having to* stay with the organization. In other word, it can be said that employees' feeling of *having to* stay in the organisation increase as transactional leadership behaviours increase.

The third leadership style, a laissez-faire leadership, was found to be significantly and negatively associated with employees' affective commitment but has no significant relationship with others. This predicts that leadership behaviours' which involve ignoring problems, displaying indifference, and overlooking achievements will negatively affect how employees feel about *wanting to* stay with the organisation. Thus, it can be said that this leadership style may intervene in the work affairs of leader-employee interaction or inhibit the successful development of an organisation.

In general, the findings have indicated that transformational leadership significantly affecting significantly both employees' affective and continuance commitments without having any significant effect on normative commitment whereas transactional leadership affect employees' normative commitment significantly. Compared to transformational and transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership has significant and negative correlation with affective employees' commitment but does not have any significant correlation to both continuance and normative commitments.

### **5.2.1 Suggestions for Randfontein Health Sub-district (RHSD)**

Although leadership functions may vary by organisational level or discipline, the study presented here suggests that the interaction of transformational and transactional leadership styles are a potentially important point of influence in affecting attitudes toward commitment to the organisation.

It is suggested that the leaders of Randfontein Health Sub-District should pay more attention to developing efficient team work and expressing warm concern towards and trust in co-workers through transformational leadership behaviours. This is because leaders can play a role in building commitment by assuring that the organisation makes an effort to address both the work content and the work context by engaging in management practices to increase the psychological attachment of employees to the organisation.

As there are considerable differences in mean scores between leaders' and employees' perceptions of leadership styles, leaders must try to be practical in their actions, not just theoretical. To improve the lowest mean score of continuance commitment, Randfontein Health Sub-District should try to improve their payments to employees and other benefit systems to develop employee commitment, otherwise they will feel *need not* stay there. From the managerial perspective, this study suggests to policy makers and academic leaders at the institutions that they can focus in developing their academic staff, by tapping their potentials, inspiring them, promoting collaboration, motivating employees and reinforcing a positive attitude towards commitment to organisation.

Because both transformational and transactional leadership styles have been found to have a significant and positive relationship with employee commitment, the workplace should attempt to maintain these leadership styles within their organisations committed employees are clearly the most desirable. For transactional leadership, it means recognising accomplishments and expectations, and taking immediate action rather than waiting for problems to become serious.

Since laissez-faire leadership has significant and negative correlation with affective employees' commitment, leaders should avoid behaviours such as displaying indifference, overlooking achievements, and ignorance of problems, so they can improve the commitment levels of employees. In other words, leaders may be able to improve their laissez-faire leadership behaviours by giving negative feedback in a timely manner and using language that is both clarifying and encouraging.

Based on the findings that revealed the significant relationships between leadership styles and employee commitment, it is imperative to establish a sound system of promotion, and development in order to increase employees' organisational commitment and then raise productivity by reducing labour turnover. These are major factors which influence the decisions of employees about *want to*, *need to* or *ought to* stay in the current organisation.

### **5.2.2 Suggestions for Future Research**

In future research, it would be interesting to assess causal relationships and consider alternative modes of enquiry as employing the longitudinal design (e.g. observations or interviews) to determine if the findings tested are likely to be sustained. Further research should also involve a nationwide survey covering samples from the whole population of the health departments in South Africa.

The findings of this study may not be fully applicable to the whole health industry or to other types of organizations in the country. Generalization of the present findings should, therefore, be examined in future research in public health districts departments and other organisations with balanced gender, and more heterogeneous samples.

Furthermore, researchers might further examine the particular circumstances under which leadership behaviours' might influence continuance commitment. Meyer *et al.* (2004) suggest that this relationship could vary based on employees' perceptions of their ability to find another job with similar characteristics. Emphasis in this area could improve

leaders' ability to have a positive influence on employees who stay with the organization because they feel they have no other choice.

Taken as a whole, the suggestions for future research offer additional opportunities to further investigate the amount of variance that the three leadership styles explain in all types of employee commitment.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A: Operationalization of Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment

#### Transformational Style Operationalization

Idealized Influence (attributed): instils pride and builds trust.

- Idealized Influence (behavior): emphasizes collective sense of mission, and talks about values and beliefs.
- Inspirational Motivation: expresses enthusiasm, optimism, and confidence.
- Intellectual Stimulation: encourages problem solving, critical thinking, and creativity.
- Individualized Consideration: develops, coaches, and teaches.

#### Transactional style Operationalization

- Contingent Reward: recognizes accomplishments and clarifies expectations.
- Management-by-Exception (active): takes immediate action to correct problems and highlights mistakes or errors.
- Management-by-Exception (passive): waits for problems to become chronic or serious before correcting.

#### Laissez-Faire style Operationalization

- Laissez-Faire: acts non-involved, displays indifference, overlooks achievements, and ignores problems.

#### Employee Commitment Operationalization

- Affective Commitment: *wants to* stay with the organization and feels emotionally attached.
- Continuance Commitment: *needs to* stay with the organization because the cost of leaving is too high.
- Normative Commitment: feels *obligated to* stay with the organization because it is the moral and right thing to do.



**Appendix B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Scoring Key.**

<b>Description</b>	<b>Leadership Factors</b>	<b>Raw factors</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>#</b>
	Transformational	Idealised influence (Attributed)	9	14	17
	Transformational	Idealized Influence (Behaviours)	6	18	25
	Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	8	12	27
	Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	2	7	23
	Transformation	Individualized consideration	13	15	22
Constructive transaction	Transactional	Contingent Reward	1	10	26
Corrective transactional	Transactional	Management by Exception (Active)	4	19	20
Corrective transactional	Transactional	Management by Exception ( Passive)	3	11	16
	Non-Transactional	Laisser-faire	5	21	24

**Appendix C: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) Scoring Key.**

<b>Organizational Commitment Factor</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>#</b>
Affective Commitment	1	4	9	10
Continuance Commitment	2	3	5	6
Normative Commitment	7	8	11	12

**Appendix D: Questionnaire 1: Leader Opinion Survey- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).**

I am Final Year MBA student of 2012 at North West University. This questionnaire is designed to help you describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer items below by circling a number from **0 to 4** that best reflects your perception. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals. If you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Whatever information you give me is strictly confidential and could be used for academic purpose only. I would like to thank you in advance for your indispensable cooperation.

**Use the following rating scale:**

<b>0</b> Not at all	<b>1</b> Once in a while	<b>2</b> Sometimes	<b>3</b> Fairly Often	<b>4</b> Frequently, if not always
------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------	--------------------------	---------------------------------------

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts..... **0 1 3 4**
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate... **0 1 2 3 4**
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious..... **0 1 2 3 4**
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and Deviations from standards..... **0 1 2 3 4**
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise..... **0 1 2 3 4**
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs ..... **0 1 2 3 4**

7. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems..... 0 1 2 3  
4
8. I talk optimistically about the future..... 0 1 2 3  
4
9. I instill pride in others for being associated with me..... 0 1 2 3  
4
10. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for  
Achieving performance targets.....0 1 2 3  
4
11. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action..... 0 1 2 3  
4
12. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished..... 0 1 2 3  
4
13. I spend time teaching and coaching..... 0 1 2 3  
4
14. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.....0 1 2 3  
4
15. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group..... 0 1 2 3  
4
16. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action..... 0 1 2 3  
4
17. I act in ways that build others' respect for me..... 0 1 2 3  
4
18. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions..... 0 1 2 3  
4
19. I keep track of all mistakes..... 0 1 2 3  
4
20. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards..... 0 1 2 3  
4
21. I avoid making decisions..... 0 1 2 3  
4

22. I help others to develop their strengths..... 0 1 2 3  
4
23. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments..... 0 1 2 3  
4
24. I delay responding to urgent questions..... 0 1 2 3  
4
25. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission..... 0 1 2 3  
4
26. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations..... 0 1 2 3  
4
27. I express confidence that goals will be achieved..... 0 1 2 3  
4

=====Thank you for your co-operation!=====

**Appendix E: Questionnaire 2: Employee Opinion Survey- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)**

I am Final Year MBA student of 2012 at North West University. Thus, you are being requested to participate in a survey to provide your organization with leadership styles related information that will help improve the working environment for employees. Participation in this survey is voluntary and no individual data will be reported. If you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement about your leader/supervisor by circling a number from 0 to 4. Whatever information you give me is strictly confidential and could be used for academic purpose only. I would like to thank you in advance for your indispensable cooperation.

**Use the following rating scale:**

<b>0</b> Not at all	<b>1</b> Once in a while	<b>2</b> Sometimes	<b>3</b> Fairly Often	<b>4</b> Frequently if not always
------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------------------

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.....0 1 2 3  
4
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate..... 0 1 2 3  
4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious..... 0 1 2 3  
4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and  
Deviations from standards..... 0 1 2 3  
4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise..... 0 1 2 3  
4
6. Talks about their most important values and beliefs..... 0 1 2 3  
4
7. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.....0 1 2 3  
4
8. Talks optimistically about the future..... 0 1 2 3  
4
9. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her..... 0 1 2 3  
4
10. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for  
Achieving performance targets..... 0 1 2 3  
4
11. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.....0 1 2 3  
4
12. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished..... 0 1 2 3  
4
13. Spends time teaching and coaching..... 0 1 2 3  
4

<b>0</b>	<b>1</b> Once in a while	<b>2</b> Sometimes	<b>3</b> Fairly Often	<b>4</b> Frequently, if
----------	-----------------------------	-----------------------	--------------------------	----------------------------

Not at all				not always
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- 14. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 15. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.....0 1 2 3  
4
- 16. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.....0 1 2 3  
4
- 17. Acts in ways that builds my respect..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 18. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 19. Keeps track of all mistakes..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 20. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 21. Avoids making decisions..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 22. Helps me to develop my strengths..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 23. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 24. Delays responding to urgent questions..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 25. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.....0 1 2 3  
4
- 26. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations..... 0 1 2 3  
4
- 27. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved..... 0 1 2 3  
4

=====Thank you for your co-operation!!=====

**Appendix F: Demographic Questions (Leaders and Employees)**

The following questions concern your position and other personal information. Completion of this information is voluntary and its confidentiality is assured. No individual data will be reported.

1. What is your Sex?

Male

Female

2. What is your Job Title? \_\_\_\_\_

3(a) how long has you worked for the current organization?

\_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

3(b) how long has you worked for your current position (Only for a leader)

\_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

4(a) how long has you worked for your current leader?

\_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

4(b) how long is your previous work experience on the same position? (Only for a leader)

\_\_\_\_\_ Years \_\_\_\_\_ Months

5. What is your Age Group?

Under 26  46-55

26-35  56 to 65

66 to older

6. What is your highest level of Education?

Some College, no degree

Master's degree

Bachelor's degree

some post-master's credits, no degree

Some master's credits, no degree

Doctorate degree or professional degree

7. What is your marital status?

Married

Single

Other \_\_\_\_\_

**From:** Ruth Nicola [mailto:[runic@global.co.za](mailto:runic@global.co.za)]

**Sent:** 10 October 2013 06:51 AM

**To:** Collins Miruka ([mirukaco@gmail.com](mailto:mirukaco@gmail.com))

**Subject:** official letter confirming my edit

Good morning Professor Miruka

I hereby confirm that I have edited the MBA dissertation of Enos Munyai of North-West University. I am a full member of the Professional Editor's Group (PEG). You may find my details on [www.editors.org.za](http://www.editors.org.za) Enos Munyai is clearly a very hard-working and capable student and I am confident he will make a positive contribution in his field.

In my opinion, the dissertation has a clear narrative line, giving evidence of this student's understanding of scientific research in general and the current investigation specifically. To my knowledge, this is the work of Enos Munyai himself, apart from the contributions of his supervisor, editor and others in an advisory capacity. He could not have sustained the lengthy argument without a deep understanding of what he was looking for, how he went about researching it, and his results and conclusions.

That is not to say that the work is flawless – given the constraints of time and circumstances, and the fact that I am the editor, not the supervisor, I believe the best was done to do justice to the research and to all those involved in this process.

Please don't hesitate to query anything that is not clear.

Regards

Ruth N

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