

A MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE EFFECT
OF SELECTED FACTORS ON THE EFFECTIVENESS
OF LEADERSHIP STYLES OF TEACHING STAFF
IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

By

Jeffrey Mkhudlwana Beka Hadebe

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Administration
and Higher Education

1983



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Dr. Featherstone

Thank you very much for your invaluable
support and willingness to help me.
There is a lot I learnt from your
"nurturing" personality

Jeff. Hadlee

ABSTRACT

A MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE EFFECT OF SELECTED FACTORS ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES OF TEACHING STAFF IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

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Basically, this study is an attempt to determine whether, and to what extent, population grouping (Blacks, Coloureds, Indians, and Whites), Faculty (Arts, Business, Education, Law, and Science), and academic position (junior and senior) have a statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities as evaluated by students.

This study was conducted on a random sample of 200 senior and junior lecturers in the Faculties of Arts, Business, Education, Law, and Science. The participants were selected proportionally from four types (Black, Coloured, Indian, and White) of universities in the Republic of South Africa.

The collection of data was carried out by administering the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire (Taylor and Bowers, 1972) on leadership styles to five students taught by each lecturer concerned. This questionnaire consists of twenty items, grouped into four subscales: support

of members, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation, which are functions of effective leadership styles. This tool measures the effectiveness of leadership style. A high score on this instrument is associated with effective leadership style, a low one, with ineffective leader behavior.

To test the null hypotheses in this study, Finn's (1978) Multivariate - Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Covariance: A FORTRAN IV program - was prepared and employed to analyze the data in a $4 \times 5 \times 2$ factorial arrangement (design).

Major Findings

1. Leadership styles of the teaching staff in White universities are more effective than those of lecturers and senior lecturers in non-white universities.
2. Among non-whites alone, leadership styles of the teaching staff in the Indian University are the most effective while those of the faculty in Black campuses are the least effective. The leadership styles of the faculty in the Coloured University are somewhat middling though slightly above average.
3. The teaching staff from the Faculties of Law and Arts have the most effective leadership styles whereas those from the Science Faculty display the least effective leader behavior.
4. Academic position has no statistically significant effect

on the effectiveness of leadership styles in South African universities.

5. Leadership styles of faculty in all population groups are most effective in the support subscale and least effective in the interaction facilitation subtest.
6. In goal emphasis (subtest 3) the effect of population groups on the effectiveness of leadership styles of teaching staff interacts with the influence of Faculty, and vice versa.

Future studies in this area may attempt to determine and explore possible factors associated with each of these findings.

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Lastly, I acknowledge all other individuals and institutions whose contributions made this study a success.

DEDICATION

Noma isezizweni, phesheya kwezilwandle,
lesisithukuthuku indodana yakho isethula kuwe baba, Levy
Gandaganda:

Mathumbentwala awabonwa

Abonwa zingapheli,

Potolozi kwabamhlophe abelungu.

Lapho ulele khona esibomvini.

Nawe mama, Lydia Heli, ntombi yese-Mbo e-Magogo,
eyayincelisa ngebele onobisi lokukhuthala, ikubopha
ngasibopho sinye.

Bafowethu nodadewethu mukelani nakhu okuncane
kwamandla avela kowakwenu.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The researcher's interest in leadership and higher education was initiated and further enhanced by a number of different public speeches delivered both in and outside the Republic of South Africa (R.S.A.). In some, the concept of leadership was expressed directly and, in others, indirectly. These were some of them.

In his address at Umphumulo Theological School, Hadebe (1977) said, "Our leaders will dream dreams, their followers will see visions." This is consistent with Gardner's (1963) belief that a leader should be a person of visions. However, Rupert (1980) cautioned that a constructive leader ought to be:

. . . a practical dreamer and a realistic optimist. He should, therefore, have the necessary skill or organizing which really implies that he must also be able to delegate efficiently, for he can only manage and lead as far as he can delegate, and again, the basis for all delegating of authority is trust. He must trust others to be trusted. Trust, like confidence, is contagious. But he must know whom to trust and therefore selection also forms a basic part of efficient long-range organizing.

According to King (1963), a leader with dreams and visions is the one who goes to the mountain top to see what

lies on the other side before taking followers along.

Rupert (1980) also suggested that an effective leader ought to have a cause--something worthwhile--a Leitmotif-- a spirit of service--a sense of mission:

A further requirement for a constructive leader is that he should have something worthwhile to strive for--a noble cause to which he is dedicated (and, one could say, the greater the cause the greater the man).*

Delivering his speech at the University of Sheffield on June 25, 1946, John Masefield said:

There are few earthly things more beautiful than a University. It is a place where those who hate ignorance may strive to know; where those who perceive truth may strive to make others see; where seekers and learners alike, banded together in the search for knowledge, will honor thought in all its finer ways, will welcome thinkers in distress or exile, will uphold ever the dignity of thought and learning and will exact standards in these things.

It is only in the climate of responsible and constructive leadership that a university can be such a place. To express the importance of leadership in the future of a university, Gardner (1963) remarked:

Now I believe--and will never cease to believe--that men can shape their institutions to suit their purposes--provided that they are clear as to what those purposes are; and provided that they are not too gravely afflicted with the diseases of which institutions die--among them complacency, myopia, and unwillingness to choose, and an unwillingness on the part of individuals to lend themselves to any worthy common purpose.

*For Rupert's speech, see Appendix C.

Borrowing some few lines from General Eisenhower, Rupert (1980) added:

No leader can win men if he is guilty of arrogance, particularly if it is accompanied by ignorance. A leader must seek to understand, not merely to control as a martinet. If he is truly to understand his men he must have the quality of humility.

This virtue is the main theme of the motto of the University of Alberta in Canada, which says, "Quaecumque vera," meaning "Whatsoever is true". This motto was adopted from a verse in the Bible which reads:

Finally, bretheran, whatsoever is true, (quaecumque vera), whatever is honorable, whatever is just, whatever is pure, whatever is lovely, whatever is gracious, if there is any excellence, if there is anything worthy of praise, think about these things (haec cogitate), (Phillipians 4:8).

This means that the authors of this motto saw the University working to achieve "whatsoever things are true". "We are called upon to give leadership in discovering who we are and which direction we are to follow."

Seeing himself and his staff also called upon to give effective leadership to the University of Durban-Westville, Greyling (1980) said, "Proper communication between University authorities and students is one immediate challenge facing us." Referring to leadership qualities in higher education, Krog (1981) commented: "It is, however, essential that a leader acts in a responsible manner at all times and not to exploit his position. . . ."

In his address on leadership responsibility, the Rt. Reverend Bruce Evans (1976), Bishop of Port Elizabeth,

remarked:

The beautiful word of musical poetry, shalom,* cannot be used of South Africa. There is no harmony, no caring community and little awareness of God. There are many reasons for this, as we all know. One is that of 'leadership responsibility'. . . . By leadership I mean that quality of responsibility that initiates training, direction and action which encourages another towards the achievement of the same level of competency and ability as the leader himself (p. 6).

The Rev. Evans also expanded on the need for leadership training in South Africa. This cry for leadership training was also the main theme of Mphahlele's (1981) article entitled "What is the Black Management Forum?" On May 17, 1976, just before the students' riots in South Africa, Bishop D. Tutu published an article sounding a possible danger of ineffective leadership. Hadebe (1977) also dwelt, at length, upon the need for constructive leadership and training thereof in South African schools. Commenting on Black Education, Kambule (1978), the former Principal of Orlando High School, said: "To ignore the facts now facing South Africa (i.e., need for effective leadership) is merely courting trouble." (p. 16).

Perhaps it was this need for formally trained leaders in the South African higher educational system, for leadership programs, and for any literature on leadership that made Rupert (1980) focus his lengthy speech of characteristics of a leader. He emphasized that:

* A Hebrew biblical term meaning peace among people of various communities, among and within the individuals.

U kan sulke leiers wees. Ons hoef nie te wag om 'n krisis in Suid-Afrika vir die nodige leiers om na vore te kom nie. Laat ons nou die leiers kweek wat ons land op elke terrein kan dien en kan help bou aan 'n gelukkige en meelewende gemeenskap.*

These were some of the speeches that initiated the researcher's interest in the area of leadership, which eventually made him to decide to investigate whether certain selected factors have any influence on the effectiveness of the leadership style of the teaching staff in South African universities.

Statement of the Problem

Basically, this study is an attempt to determine whether, and to what extent, population grouping, faculty, and academic position have any statistical effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities as evaluated by students. This was determined by a survey of a selected sample of university students from four population groups (Blacks, Coloureds, Indians, and Whites) in the Republic of South Africa.

Need for the Study

There are various reasons why the researcher decided to investigate whether, and to what extent, population grouping,

*For English translation, see Appendix A.

Faculty, and academic position have any statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities.

1. Among non-white population groups (Blacks, Coloureds, and Indians) there is a growing concern that the currently prevailing leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities is more effective for white students than for them. This concern has been expressed in a number of articles and remarks. These are some of them. Commenting on education in Black universities, Turflux (April 1982)* said:

- Education is essentially for the minority of exploiters and not education for the people. . . .
- Education encourages the desire to be like those who are determined to keep the majority of people down.
- It (education) helps people to adapt to a world designed and created by others.
- It (education) is conducted in a way that authority is accepted without ever questioning it. We strive to satisfy the authority. . . .
- It is there to entrench the exploitative system and white culture models.
- The present methods used in our education must be rejected in their entirety. . . . The present teacher - student relationship must be changed, both teacher and student must be simultaneously teachers and students.
- Students must learn how to learn to solve problems. (p. 11)

* A magazine published by the Students Representative Council of the University of Turfloop, R.S.A.

The National Union of South African Students (NUSAS) (1982)* cited the leaders of the Soweto Students Representative Council as having said:

We shall reject the whole system of Bantu Education whose aim is to reduce us, mentally and physically, into "hewers of wood and drawers of water." (p. 8).

Reporting on the student school boycott in September 1980, the Radio of South Africa, the External Service of the South African Broadcasting Corporation, directed to North America and Canada said:

Student unrest (in South Africa) is linked to a protest against low standards of and inferior education for non-whites.

Turflux (1982) added that: "Education (in Black universities) is book-oriented without emphasis on practical experience," (p. 11). This remark agreed with a comment in the NUSAS (1982) that:

The quality of education provided in these campuses (universities for Black students) is often inferior, with great emphasis placed on single-textbook courses and rote learning. Libraries are generally poorly stocked. (p. 24)

Turflux continued to say that: "Education for Blacks has had effect of creating a Black middle class that is far removed from the true aspirations of the people," (p. 11). That leadership styles of the teaching staff in Black universities tends to create a Black middle class is reflected in a remark on the inequalities of the school system as published by the NUSAS (1982). It cited Gerrit Viljoen, the

*A magazine published by the National Union of South African Students (NUSAS).

Minister of Education to have said:

If it had not been for the differentiated university system only a very small elite of blacks would have had training opportunities, however wide open the doors of the white universities were. (p. 32)

Hence, there is strong need for a thoroughly researched work across population groups to investigate the validity of this concern.

2. There is a need for a study to test the validity of the prevailing belief that members of certain faculties have a higher probability of having more effective leadership styles than those from other faculties.
3. Some South African academicians desire to know whether academic position has any statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of university teaching staff.
4. Some South African higher educational institutions are in the process of introducing courses on leadership. One of the problems facing them is that, up to the present moment, neither papers nor longer works have been published in the Republic of South Africa. Most studies have been conducted in the United States although some research has also been done in certain European countries. These institutions have expressed a strong need for any literature on leadership conducted in/or based on South Africa.
5. In South Africa, there is a strong need, in general, for studies conducted across color lines or

population groups.

Importance of the Study

In the Republic of South Africa, this study is of significant value in many ways. These are some of them.

1. It is one of the pioneer studies on leadership, and the first study on leadership effectiveness, in South Africa. Up to the present moment, most studies on leadership have been conducted outside South Africa, especially in the United States.
2. It is the first study on leadership ever conducted across color lines or population groups in the Republic of South Africa. By comparing these groups, this work might be said to encourage and facilitate constructive and meaningful interaction among them.
3. The findings of this study may either support or invalidate the concern the non-white population groups have about the effectiveness of the currently prevailing leadership style of the teaching staff in South African universities. If the results are consistent with this concern, perhaps, certain courses and/or in-service training programs on leadership may be introduced to help the teaching staff in non-white universities learn more effective skills so that they can better meet the needs of their subordinates (students).
4. The present work will also check the validity of

the prevailing belief that members of certain faculties have a higher probability of having more effective leadership style than those of others.

5. It may also demonstrate whether academic position has any statistically significant effect on the effectiveness on leadership style of the South African university teaching staff.
6. This study may also be a source of reference for courses on leadership and in-service training programs in and outside South African universities.
7. By focusing on leadership in general and on effectiveness of leadership of the Faculty in particular, this study, according to McBeath and Andrews (1960), has implications for the introduction of courses and in-service training programs on leadership in and outside universities.
8. By focusing on effectiveness of the university teaching staff, this study shows an indirect bearing on student performance. For studies (e.g., Morall, 1974; Cullers, Hughers and McGreal, 1973) reported a correlation between leadership style of a teacher and student performance.
9. According to McBeath and Andrews (1960), a study that deals with leadership style of the university teaching staff has implications:
 - (1) for educators who are interested in helping teachers to improve (in their work). . . .,

- (2) for selection of candidates for training teachers,
 - (3) for undergraduate courses for teachers in classroom administration (that) might synthesize the teacher's knowledge of subject matter, his understanding of the situation with regard to pupils (psychology) and with regard to the community and groups (sociology), and the behavior needed to be an effective leader, and
 - (4) for courses on the programs of teacher training colleges (pp. 17-18).
10. If this study finds that selected factors have significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the university teaching staff, further studies may be generated to determine why this is so.
11. According to Greenfield and Andrews (1961), any study on teacher leadership behavior has implications:
- (1) for the selection of teachers for academic and administrative positions, and
 - (2) for the evaluation of their work (p. 101).
12. According to Evan (1959) and Morall (1974), in-service training on leadership may improve leadership skills of the teaching staff or faculty. This, on the other hand, may make lecturers more effective as leaders both in their respective classrooms and in the communities they serve.

Basic Assumptions

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. University teachers are leaders (Ivancevich,

Szilagy, and Wallace, 1977; Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarick, 1961).

2. The effectiveness of the leadership style of Faculty can be best judged by its students who, in the teaching process, are followers (Burn, 1978; Cartwright, 1959). The instrument used in this study is based on this assumption.
3. Though the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire was constructed and validated in the United States, it can be applied meaningfully in a South African educational setting.

Limitations of the Study

1. The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire is subject to leniency (Edwards, 1970; Scott, 1968). Leniency is defined as the tendency of people to attribute socially desirable traits to people they like and attribute socially undesirable traits to people they dislike (Edwards and Abbott, 1973; Vroom, 1964).
2. The fact that the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire was not validated in the South African population might interfere with the results.
3. Because of the limited nature of the scope of this study, owing to financial and time constraints, its findings should be viewed with caution.
4. The researcher hoped that participants would be

Szilagyi, and Wallace, 1977; Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarick, 1961).

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3. Because of the limited nature of the scope of this study, owing to financial and time constraints, its findings should be viewed with caution.
4. The researcher hoped that participants would be

sincere in their responses. Commenting on this weakness, Chuenyane (1981) said: ". . . another limitation (in test and inventory administration) is the assumption that the respondents will be candid in expressing their views. . ." (p. 18). This observation was also made by Borg and Gall (1971).

Definition of Terms

Following are some of the concepts or terms and their definitions that will be used during this study:

Population Grouping refers to the manner in which the South African population is, at the moment, officially categorized as follows:

Blacks are people whose origin is indigenous to Africa, Coloureds are "mixed race" people in South Africa, Indians are people who originated from India, and Whites are people who are identified as members of the Caucasian race.

Faculty is to the South African higher educational system as college or school is to American universities.

Faculty of Arts in South Africa is roughly an equivalent of the College of Arts and Letters in American universities. The same is true as of the Faculties of Business, Education, Law and Science.

Work Group refers to any group of individuals who cooperate to achieve a certain goal(s).

Non-Whites refers to Blacks, Indians, and Coloureds

in the Republic of South Africa (R.S.A.)

Organization of the Study

Chapter I includes the introduction, statement of the problem, need for the study, importance of the study, basic assumptions, limitations of the study, and definition of terms.

In Chapter III, a review of the related literature is presented. Chapter III discusses hypotheses and details the procedures employed in gathering and analyzing the data. Data analysis and interpretation is the focus of Chapter IV while Chapter V presents summary, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Extensive research has been conducted on leadership and on the determinants of its effectiveness. This review is a microcosm of the macrocosmic studies already done in this field. Many are still underway.

Definition of Leadership

The term leadership has been defined in many ways. One of these includes that of French and Synder, as cited by Cartwright (1959), who believe that: ". . . leadership is the potential social influence of one part of the group over another." (p. 118)

One weakness of this definition is that it does not include the aim of the part of the group that has social influence upon the other. On the other hand, Burn (1978) defines leadership as:

. . . leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers. (p. 19)

According to Turker (1981), this definition of leadership has serious shortcomings. One, it does not see

dictators like Adolf Hitler as leaders. Two, it disregards the leader-follower relationship which may locate itself anywhere between dictatorial forms of leadership, on the one hand, and participatory or democratic leadership, on the other. According to Ivancevich, Szilagyi, and Wallace (1977)

. . . leadership is the relationship between two or more people in which one attempts to influence the other towards the accomplishment of some goal or goals. (p. 273)

In more specific terms, Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) define:

Leadership as interpersonal influences, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals. Leadership always involves attempt on the part of a leader (influencer) to affect (influence) the behavior of a follower (influencee) or followers in situation. (p. 24)

Implicit in these definitions is the idea that the effectiveness of a leader partially depends upon the nature of power base available to an individual that she/he decides to use at a given moment (Cartwright, 1953; Janda, 1960); upon the degree to which she/he is accepted by the subordinates (Ivancevich, et al., 1977; Patchen, 1974); as well as upon the presence of some goal desirable to followers and to which they cannot only be actively influenced by the leader but also cooperated toward its achievement (Tead, 1935; Stogdill, 1950). Power may be defined as the ability to make people carry out instructions (Etzioni, 1964). Various forms of power a leader may employ include the following: legitimate, reward, coercive, expert, and referent power (French and Raven, 1959). Ivancevich et al., (1977)

define these different forms of power:

Legitimate power is derived from an individual's position in the structure or hierarchy of the organization. The organization usually sanctions this form of power by recognition from higher management or by the use of titles, such as manager, director, or supervisor. Reward power is based on the ability to control and administer rewards to others (e.g., money, promotions, praise) for compliance with the leader's directives or requests.

Coercive power is derived from the ability to control and administer punishment to others (e.g., reprimand, termination) for noncompliance with the leader's requests and directives.

Expert power is based upon a special ability, skill, expertise, or knowledge base exhibited by an individual. . . .

Referent power is based on attractiveness or appeal of one person to another. A leader may be admired because of certain characteristics or traits that inspire or attract followers (e.g., charisma). Referent power may also be based on a person's reference or connection with another powerful individual. (p. 271)

These are some of the common definitions of leadership, and there are many others. In the next section major theories of leadership will be discussed.

Theories of Leadership

Theories of leadership have shown a developmental process which consists of three major approaches: trait, behavioral, and situational theories.

Trait Theories

During the 1940's and 1950's, theories of leadership focused on the traits and determinants of leadership. In view of the research done in the 1970's and earlier, Stogdill (1974) identified six broad classes of leadership traits. They are described below.

Physical Characteristics. Some studies (e.g., Hornaday, and Bunker, 1970; Pinkle, and Friedlander, 1967; Powell and Nelson, 1969; Wollowick and McNamara, 1969; Harrell, 1969) suggested that leaders tend to be characterized by a great amount of energy and stamina to maintain a high rate of physical activity. Others (e.g., Bass, 1964; Johnson and Peterson, 1968; Kumar, 1966; Stanton and Poors, 1967) reported that people who become leaders tend to show signs of accomplishment which are above average early in life. However, Standard and Poors (1967) observed that in American corporate structure even good managers take time to reach the top because promotion tends to depend upon administrative knowledge and demonstration of success which is the function of experience and age.

Social Background. Most researchers (e.g., Miller and Dirksen, 1965; O'Donovan, 1962; Sanders, 1968; Stanley, Mann and Doig, 1967) found leaders to come from higher socio-economic backgrounds while a few (e.g., Baldwin, 1932; and Goodenough, 1930) reported no difference. Matthews (1954)

and Porter (1965) found that fathers of most leaders were in the professional, proprietor or official occupations. However, Newcomer (1965) and Scientific American (1965) found that leaders came from both lower and middle classes, and not mainly from the latter. According to Powell (1969), in some systems the rise of the leader to the top is influenced by ethnic background and religious affiliation. Harrell, Burnham, and Lee (1963) and Lewis (1960) reported that almost all leaders in organizations are better educated. That is, they hold, at least, a college degree.

Intelligence and Ability. A number of studies (e.g., Bray and Grant, 1966; George and Abraham, 1966; Kiessling and Kalish, 1961; Roadman, 1964) reported positive correlation between leadership, intelligence, and ability. However, according to Ghiselli (1963b), there is a curvilinear relationship between leadership and managerial success. That is, people with very low and very high intelligence tend not to be good leaders. Most successful managers are usually of average intelligence.

Other Abilities. Effective leaders are usually characterized by superior judgement and/or decisiveness (George and Abraham, 1966; Miles, 1964; Stryker, 1960); knowledge (Harris, 1964; Robert and Dunnette, 1967; Thornton, 1968); and fluency of speech (Hardesty and Jones, 1968; Harrell, Burnham, Hunt and Lee, 1964; Harville, 1969; Kay and Meyer, 1962; MacNaughton, 1963). Bass (1981) remarks

that:

Persons with high abilities may suffer from extreme self-preoccupation. A large discrepancy in capability between leader and led may make communication difficult. The leader's ideas may be too far in advance of the followers so they are rejected. (p. 79)

Personality. Most leaders are characterized by ability to adjust to new situations (Fitzsimmons and Marcuse, 1961; Ghiselli, 1964; Krishnan, 1965; Mann, 1960); by aggressiveness or assertiveness (Bentz, 1964; Miner, 1968); by independence (Blake and Mouton, 1961; Gordon, 1966), by objectivity (Albrecht, Glaser, and Marks, 1964; Krishnan, 1965); by resourcefulness (Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen, 1962); by enthusiasm (Leman and Solomon, 1952); by tolerance of stress (Grant and Bray, 1969; Lange and Jacobs, 1960); by alertness (Coates and Pellegrin, 1957); by originality (Argyris, 1953; Gordon, 1963) by personal integrity (Gruenfeld, 1966; Stryker, 1960); and by self-confidence (Baker, Ware, and Osborn, 1966; Brown, 1964).

Task-Related Characteristics. Studies indicate that leaders are characterized by a high need for achievement (Andrews, 1967; Cummings and Scott, 1965); by high sense of responsibility (Borgatta, Ford, and Bohrnstedt, 1968; Gordon and Medland, 1965); by a high degree of task orientation (Dunteman and Bass, 1963; Harrell and Lee, 1964); by dependability in pursuit of objectives (Medow and Zander, 1965); by enterprise and initiative (Harrell, 1966; Helfrich and Schwirian, 1968); and by perserverence in overcoming obstacles

(Bass, 1981). In short, leaders are usually characterized by strong motivation, drive, and persistence.

Social Characteristics. Harrell (1966); Harrell, Burnham, Hunt and Lee (1964); Harrell and Lee (1964); Hornaday and Bunker (1970); Miller and Diksen (1965); Moment and Zaleznik (1963); and Rose (1962) reported that leaders tend to cooperate easily with a wide range of people. Link (1929) found that leaders take part in a number of activities. Sorokin (1927); and Thresher (1927) also associated leaders with higher mobility. According to Bentz (1964); Brown (1964); Carp, Vitola and McLanathan (1963); and DuBrin (1965) most leaders exhibit interpersonal skills which, according to Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen (1962); and Tornopol (1958) include tactfulness. Leaders with these social characteristics can easily get followers (Ghiselli, 1959; Grant and Bray, 1969; Harrell, 1966) and gain more popularity (Harrell and Lee, 1964).

Although the researchers of trait theories of leadership have successfully identified certain important characteristics of leaders, they never attempted to explain the determinants of effective leadership (Ivancevich, Szilagyi, and Wallace, 1977).

Behavioral Approach

The failure of the trait approach to account for the effectiveness of a leader made social scientists in the

1950's and 1960's focus their attention on what the leader does and how she/he does it or, in other words, leadership style. Two major works on leadership style were conducted at Ohio State University and at the University of Michigan. Both these studies investigated leadership style(s) that increased work group performance and satisfaction.

The Ohio State studies developed two separate questionnaires. One measured leadership style as perceived by the leader himself/herself--the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1957). The other measured leadership style as perceived by the subordinates of the leader--the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). Using these two instruments, Ohio State studies identified two independent leadership dimensions: imitating structure (i.e., task-oriented leadership style); and consideration (i.e., employee-oriented leadership style).

Korman (1966) remarks that the main weakness of the Ohio State studies is that measurement of leadership style by the leader does not agree with that done by the subordinates. However, despite this criticism, the Ohio State studies provided a firm base for the knowledge of leadership and for current and future research on leadership style(s).

University of Michigan studies, conducted almost concurrently with the Ohio State research work, identified two distinct leadership styles: job-centered (i.e., task-centered) leadership style and employee centered (i.e., employee oriented) leadership style (Morse and Reimer, 1956; and Likert, 1967). The main weakness of both the University

of Michigan and the Ohio State studies was that they ignored situational factors that influence effectiveness of leadership style (Ivancevich et al., 1977).

Situational Theories

The failure of both trait and behavioral theories to include situational factors in their attempts to explain leadership, leader's behavior (style) and leadership effectiveness led to the emergence of situational approaches in the late 1960's. The exponents of situational theory maintain that effectiveness of a leader is the function of the combination of leadership style(s) and situational factors in the leadership environment. According to Ivancevich et al., (1977), the latter:

. . . includes the characteristics of the leader and the subordinates, the nature of the task and the structure of the group. (p. 274)

Focus on the Leader--Fiedler's Leader Match Theory.

A contingency leadership model, developed by Fiedler and his associates, was one of the first situational models of leadership ever developed. Conducting research on leaders of task-oriented groups, Fiedler (1967, 1971) emerged with a leader-match theory which initially concentrated on least preferred co-workers (LPC), a tool he had formulated to measure the leader's orientation. This instrument requires the leader to think of all people he/she has ever worked with and then think of the persons with whom he/she worked

least well. On an 18 bipolar dimension, e.g., pleasant-unpleasant, trustworthy-untrustworthy, etc., the leader is asked to rate that particular individual in question.

Fiedler (1971) associated low LPC (i.e., mainly negative ratings) with task-oriented leadership style while high LPC (i.e., mainly positive ratings) was associated with relationship-oriented leadership style. However, "actual leader behavior was not explicitly studied or correlated with LPC scores in Fiedler's research." (p. 118)

Because of his failure to empirically demonstrate the first postulation of his theory (i.e., there is a relationship between absolute LPC score and team performance) Fiedler revised his view of leadership. He formulated a contingency theory which suggested a relationship among the leader, the subordinates and the nature of the task. This theory maintains that if the leader is highly accepted or highly rejected by the group, low LPC (i.e., highly task-centered) leaders work best, whereas if the leader is moderately accepted by the group, high LPC (relationship-oriented) leaders work best. Perrow (1979) remarked that with this revision:

. . . he (Fiedler) demonstrated that the 'climate' of the group had a substantial impact upon the effectiveness of leadership style. (p. 106)

According to Ivancevich et al., (1977), Fiedler's leader-match theory has a number of strong points. One, it referred to three aspects which are part and parcel of leadership: the leader, the subordinates, and the task.

This was the first leadership theory which included these situational factors. This was its main strength. Two, it explicitly pointed out that the main problem of a leader is how to harmonize his/her personality with what the given situation requires, especially because a leader may be effective in one area and not in the other.

Fiedler's theory also shows a number of weaknesses. One, the theory both ignores the characteristics of subordinates and does not say anything about the technological competence of the leader and subordinates (Graen, Alvares, Orris, and Martella, 1970). Two, the concept of least preferred co-worker (LPC) itself is not well understood (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955; Graen, Orris, and Alveres, 1971; Hosking and Schriesheim, 1978; and Stinson and Tracy, 1974). In his earlier research, Fiedler used LPC as a measure of the individual's personality. Later, he employed the very same concept to mean an individual's social needs. Consequently, it is no longer clear whether LPC reflects personality or motivational needs in respect to a group. Three, the model ignores the relationship between the leader and the situational variables (Lars Larson and Rowland, 1974; and McMahon, 1972). Bass (1981) comments that:

Despite a vast array of publications on reliability, validity, and meaning of LPC and situational favorableness or control and despite many supportive tests of the model, the validity of the model is still contested. (p. 592)

Though Fiedler's leader-match theory is one of the oldest theories and research programs on leaders of

task-oriented groups, these limitations have succeeded in making it not only the most controversial theory in the field but also in denying it acceptance and recognition as a general strategy to both understanding and solving leadership problems. However, Schein (1980) argues that these shortcomings are not all that serious.

Focus on Task/Situation Vroom's Contingency Theory.

While Fiedler's theory concentrated on measuring leader's LPC, Vroom's approach focused on task and subordinates. Vroom (1975) recently introduced his contingency theory by citing from Stogdill (1948):

The pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. . . . It becomes clear that an adequate analysis of leadership involves not only a study of leaders, but also of situations. (p. 64-65)

According to Schein (1980), this contingency theory consists of five "diagnostic criteria that would help leaders decide in which situations to use which kind of behavior," (117, p. 118). These criteria as presented by Vroom and Yetton (1973) are shown below.

Types of Management Decision Styles

- AI. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at that time.
- AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinate(s), then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from

them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you.

- CI. You share the problem with relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
- CII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, collectively obtaining their ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
- GII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of chairperson. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group. (p. 118)

According to Schein (1980), this model suggests:

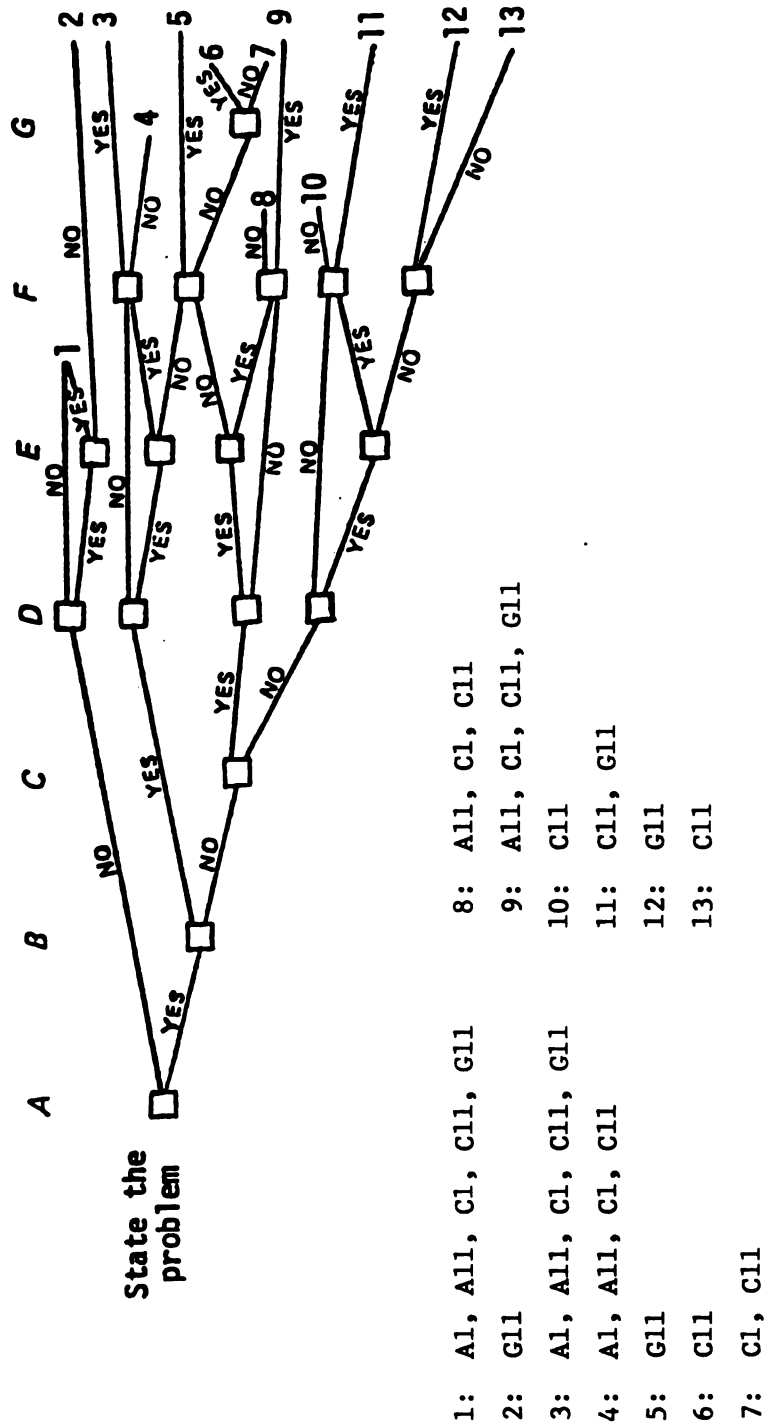
. . . a specific way of analyzing problems by means of (seven) ordered questions which the leader can ask himself or herself and a set of decision rules put in the form of a decision tree which leads to the most desirable option to be employed (See Figure 2.1.). (p. 118)

A leader may analyze a problem by answering "yes" or "no" to some of these seven questions to arrive at possible decision alternatives.

Focus on the Subordinates--Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory. Unlike Fiedler, who asserts that leaders should look for situations that suit their leadership styles, and Vroom, who suggests that leaders ought to modify their leader behavior to meet the nature of the task, Hersey and

Figure 2.1--Decision Process Flow Chart

- A. Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?
 B. Do I have sufficient info to make a high quality decision?
 C. Is the problem structured?
 D. Is acceptance of decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
 E. If I were to make the decision by myself, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by my subordinates?
 F. Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?
 G. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions?



Blanchard (1977) postulate that:

The more managers adapt their style of leader behavior to meet the particular situation and the needs of their followers, the more effective they will be in reaching personal and organizational goals. (p. 101)

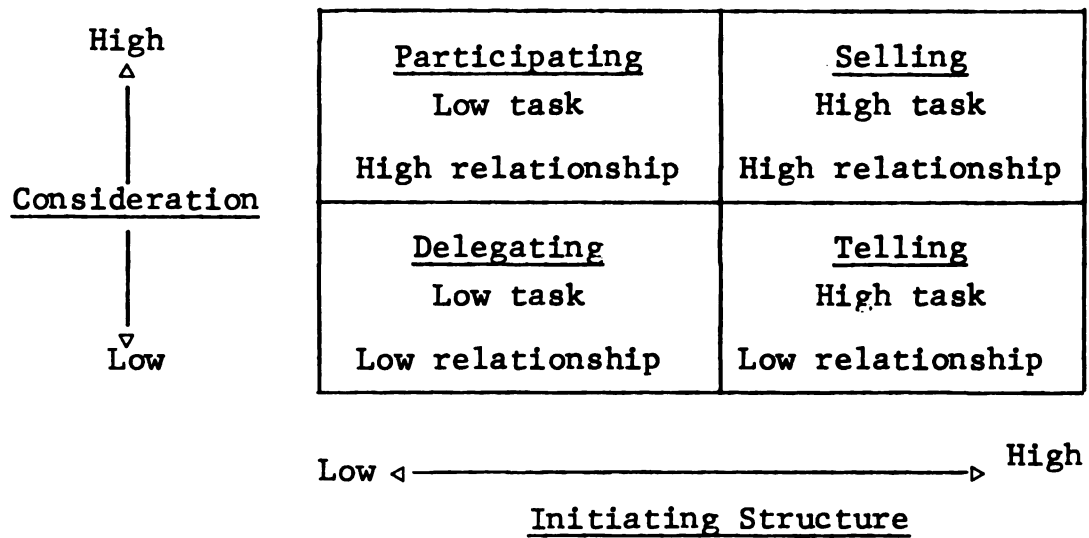
This leadership theory has two dimensions: consideration or employee-oriented leadership style, and initiating structure of task-oriented leadership style. As shown in Figure 2.2, these two dimensions, forming an angle of 90 degree with each other, encompass a space with four cells, each with its own leadership style.

Hersey and Blanchard gave these four basic leadership styles shorthand labels of:

telling (high-task and low-relationship behavior),
selling (high-task and high-relationship behavior),
participating (low-task and high-relationship behavior),
delegating (low-task and low-relationship behavior). (p. 124)

According to this theory, effective leadership style is a leader's behavior that agrees with the situational demands on a larger environment. On this point, Hersey and Blanchard generally agree with other contingency theorists. However, according to Schein (1980), the former introduces a certain dimension of the environment--"maturity of the subordinates, or their readiness to tackle the task facing the group." (p. 124) Hersey and Blanchard (1977) defined maturity as:

Figure 2.2--Basic Leadership Behavior Style*



*Taken from Schein, E.N. Organizational Psychology. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 3rd Ed., 1980, p. 119.

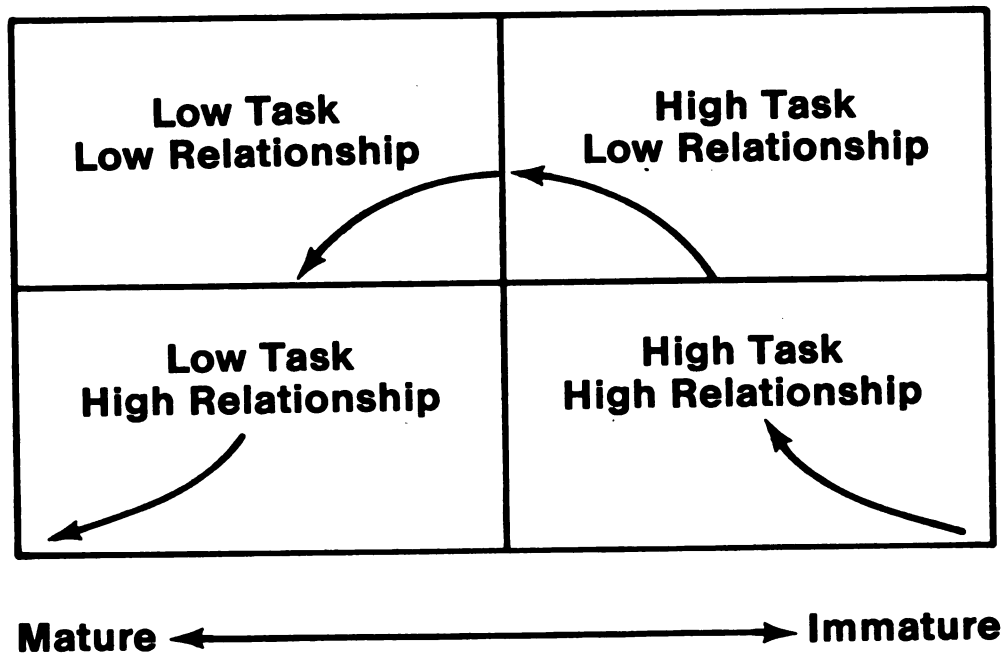
. . . the capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group. (p. 161)

It is essential to note that, in this context, the term "maturity" is defined with reference to the task facing the group and that this definition focuses on characteristics expected of the subordinates if leadership is to be effective. One of these characteristics is motivation or psychological maturity, i.e., a sense of self-confidence and self-respect at work that makes an individual not only responsible in his/her work but also aims at possible maximum productivity. The other characteristic is competence or job maturity, i.e., the individual's ability and technical competence to do the job (Schein, 1980).

With reference to Figure 2.3, Schein (1980) outlines the practical application of this theory as follows:

1. If the maturity is low, the leader should be high in task and low in relationship behavior to help the group to achieve some success and begin to learn.
2. If the level of maturity of followers increases, the leader should begin to reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior to help the group grow in its own competence.
3. As the level of maturity continues to increase, the leader should begin to reduce both task and relationship behavior, because the group is developing self-confidence and the ability to work on its own.
4. As the group achieves maturity, the leader can continue to reduce task and relationship behavior, and essentially delegate task to the group and expect them to be accomplished. (p. 125)

Figure 2.3--What a Leader Behavior Should be
in Terms of Degree of Subordinate
Maturity.*



*Schein, op. cit., p. 125.

Hersey and Blanchard's theory suggests that leadership effectiveness depends not only upon the leader's style and situational factors but also upon the level of the group's development. It should be noted that as group maturity increases counter-clockwise (i.e., from right to left) in a normal curve pattern, the leader continues to reduce task and relationship behavior in the same direction. Described differently, there is a negative correlation between leader task-relationship behavior and subordinate maturity.

Focus on Leader Behavior--Argyris's Model I and Model II. Argyris's leadership theory is based on the assumption that leadership effectiveness in an organization is the function of the level of psychological maturity of both the manager and the subordinates. However, he maintains that the crystallization and development of this maturity is the responsibility of the leader. In this context, the expression "psychological maturity" refers to the degree to which the leader's overt verbal behavior is congruent with what really goes on in himself or herself. That is, in a psychologically mature leader, overt verbal behavior agrees with the inner feelings.

Argyris (1957, 1964) found that leaders of most organizations are the first in the system to exhibit psychological immaturity which they unconsciously pass on to their employees. For example, a manager may say to his/her employees, "This is going to be your job. I trust that you will do it well. I won't interfere with you." That this

manager trusts the subordinate may just be lip service. Inside him/her, the manager may have no trust in the employee. This type of communication where two conflicting messages are sent out simultaneously is called "double bind" (Satir, 1964). Argyris argues that an employee perceives such double level messages sent to him/her by his/her leader. If the manager continues to communicate with his/her employees in this manner, the latter eventually learns to communicate to the former in a double-bind fashion, too. This type of communication where both the speaker and the addressee communicate in double binds is called "calibrated communication cycle" (Bandler, Grinder, and Satir, 1976).

Argyris observed that leadership styles of most managers are based on two "theories". He labeled the first one as "espoused theory", which consists of the manager's overt verbal behavior, e.g., his goals, assumptions, values, etc. This may range from participative to autocratic leadership. He terms the other "a theory-in-use". This consists of implicit assumptions, what really goes on in the leader, and that which actually governs his/her overt verbal behavior (Argyris and Schon, 1974; Argyris, 1976).

According to Schein (1980), a theory-in-use or Model I, as Argyris calls it, consists of four factors or governing variables".

1. that one must achieve one's goals as one sees them;
2. that one must win rather than lose;
3. that one must minimize eliciting negative feelings in relationships; and

4. that one must be rational and minimize any emotionality. (p. 127)

According to Argyris, these "governing variables" lead to behavior that is controlling of others, that increases one's security, and that makes an individual less confrontive of others. If the leader is confronted by others, she/he becomes defensive, thereby decreasing chances of learning more effective behavior (Schein, 1980). Furthermore, a less confrontive behavior does not allow experience to test the validity of these assumptions. A leader who reflects Model I behavior not only has psychological problems himself/herself but also infests his/her subordinates with it. At the end, the whole organization gets psychologically sick. Leadership then becomes less effective.

Argyris's leadership theory maintains that psychological maturity is a prerequisite for a more effective leadership style. The leader must not communicate with his/her subordinates in double binds if she/he does not want them to do the same toward him/her.

Schein (1980) observes that Argyris's theory suggests that it would be better for leaders to adopt the Model II approach which states:

1. that action should be based on valid information;
2. that action be based on free and informed choice; and
3. that action should be based on internal commitment to choice and constant monitoring of efforts to implement one's choices. Here the theory builds on the basis of 'learning how to learn'. (p. 128)

Argyris's theory shows a number of strengths. One, it specifically describes what a leader can do to learn participative leadership style. Vroom, and Hersey and Blanchard, on the other hand, seem to suggest that a leader can learn participative style by simply being told what to do. This is not true because a change in leadership style means behavior change, an experience which involves feelings and change in self-concept. This is not at all easy to achieve. Two, it is true that most managers behave on the basis of Model I.

Argyris's theory also shows a number of weaknesses. One, it is not true that most managers were found to be the first individuals in the system to teach their employees double-message communication style because Argyris's studies were not longitudinal. To reach this conclusion, he should have observed the manager's communication style and compared it with that of the employees at the point when the manager first occupied his/her managerial position. Such observations should have been repeated over a certain period of time. If the employees' communication style changed with that of the manager, Argyris and his co-worker could have concluded, at least to some extent, that employees learn double-bind communication from their employers. However, even after such observations, this conclusion has some invalidity since there are so many other factors that can make employees learn this type of communication. Two, very few leaders can afford to learn and adopt Argyris's Model II of leadership because that would mean they should have

had extensive training in psychology and in group dynamics. This is not always possible. Schein (1980) remarks that Argyris's Model II assumptions should be taken with caution because they had not been supported by extensive research. However, this does not mean that this model is not essential and useful. He also notices that Argyris's theory does not accommodate the possibility that Model I may be quite effective in some situations.

Argyris's leadership style theory suggests that training in group dynamics may augment leadership effectiveness. The import of Model II takes this discussion to the domain of leadership and small groups, e.g., encounter groups; sensitivity groups, etc. (Bradford, Giff, and Benne, 1964; Schein and Bennis, 1965). However, this area will be excluded because this study focuses on leadership styles of the university teaching staff or faculty.

Summary

Extensive research conducted on leadership, as demonstrated by this brief review of selected literature, indicates how much interest has been shown by social scientists in this field. This may also be an adequate justification of the degree to which effective leadership is a sine qua non of success in any system, organization or institution. It is essential to note that the general focus of these studies has not just been on leadership, but chiefly on the question: What is it that determines the effectiveness of

a leader?

The quest for the solution to this question began roughly in the dawn of the 20th Century (e.g., Terman, 1904; Webb, 1915; Kohs and Irle, 1920; Caldwell, 1920; Bowne, 1926; Sheldon, 1927). Today, it is still in progress (e.g., Schein, 1980; Bass, 1981). The coming years may generate even more literature on leadership.

At first, trait theory was suggested. This was popular before the 1970's, especially during the 1940's-1950's. Owing to its fatal weaknesses, it died a natural death. Leader approach then came to the scene. Its shortcomings gave birth to situational theory which, step-by-step, developed to include emphasis on the leader (Fiedler, 1967, 1971); task/situation (Vroom, 1975); subordinates (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977); and the leader behavior (Argyris, 1957, 1964).

This chapter reviewed selected literature related to major theories of leadership. The next chapter will discuss methodology of this study, research instrument, hypotheses, and data analysis.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine whether, and to what extent, population grouping, Faculty, and academic position have a statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership style of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities as evaluated by students. This chapter will describe hypotheses, the populations of the study, sampling procedures, instrumentation, collection of data, processing of data, and analysis of the data.

Hypothesis

In order to examine whether selected variables have any statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership style of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities, the following null hypotheses were tested in the study. These null hypotheses were stated in the non-directional form because no previous studies have been conducted in this area to provide any clear expectations.

Null Hypothesis 1

Population grouping (Black, Coloureds, Indians, & Whites) has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities.

$$\mu_B = \mu_C = \mu_I = \mu_W$$

where: μ_B = mean for Blacks μ_C = mean for Coloureds
 μ_I = mean for Indians μ_W = mean for Whites

Null Hypothesis 2

Faculty (Arts, Business, Education, Law, & Science) has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership style of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities.

$$\mu_{FA} = \mu_{FB} = \mu_{FE} = \mu_{FL} = \mu_{FS}$$

where: μ_{FA} = mean for Arts Faculty
 μ_{FB} = mean for Business Faculty
 μ_{FE} = mean for Education Faculty
 μ_{FL} = mean for Law Faculty
 μ_{FS} = mean for Science Faculty

Null Hypothesis 3

Academic position has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership style of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities.

$$\mu_{p1} = \mu_{p2}$$

where: μ_{p1} = mean for lecturers
 μ_{p2} = mean for senior lecturers

Null Hypothesis 4

There will be no statistically significant two-way interactions between levels of independent factors.

Null Hypothesis 5

There will be no statistically significant three-way interaction among levels of independent factors.

Population

In the Republic of South Africa, higher educational institutions are classified into four categories, on the basis of population groups: Black, Coloured, Indian, and White. This study was conducted on lecturers and senior lecturers of selected institutions from four types of universities. The university teaching staff was selected as the population for this investigation because teachers are leaders (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961; Smith, 1960; Gibson, 1974; Belasco, 1973; Evans, 1979; Morall, 1974).

Sampling Procedures

By stratified random method, the researcher proportionally selected certain universities from higher educational system of the four population groups: Blacks,

Coloureds, Indians, and Whites. From this sample of universities, the researcher then randomly selected 200 lecturers and senior lecturers from five Faculties: Arts, Business, Education, Law, and Science.

From each population group, random selection of participants was done as follows:

- a) 50 teaching staff members from Black universities as follows:
 - i) 10 participants in the Faculty of Arts randomly selected as follows:
5 lecturers, and
5 senior lecturers.
 - ii) Exactly the same procedure was followed in each of the remaining Faculties (Business, Education, Law, and Science) to obtain a sub-sample of 50 participants from Black universities.
- b) The process employed to generate participants from Black universities, as described under (a) above, was followed for lecturers and senior lecturers of each of the remaining population groups (Coloureds, Indians, and Whites) to get the sample, $N = 200$ (See Table 3.1.).

Instrumentation

The Michigan Four Factor Theory Questwonnaire (See Appendix I.) was developed by Taylor and Bowers (1972) at the Institute for Social Research at the University of

Table 3.1--Sample Distribution of Lecturers and Senior Lecturers
According to Population Grouping and Faculty

<u>FACULTY</u>	<u>ACADEMIC POSITION</u>	<u>POPULATION GROUPS</u>			
		Blacks	Coloureds	Indians	Whites
Arts	Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Senior Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Sub total	10	10	10	10
Business	Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Senior Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Sub total	10	10	10	10
Education	Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Senior Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Sub total	10	10	10	10
Law	Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Senior Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Sub total	10	10	10	10
Science	Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Senior Lecturer	5	5	5	5
	Sub total	10	10	10	10
TOTALS		50	50	50	50

200

Michigan, Ann Arbor. This instrument borrowed much from Likert (1961).

Purpose

The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire consists of twenty items, grouped into four indices: support of members, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation, which are functions of effective leadership styles (Bowers & Seashores, 1966). The definitions of these subscales and their concomitant constituent items are presented in Table 3.2. A respondent reads each item individually and indicates his/her response by encircling one letter on a five point scale: Almost always (A); Frequently (F); Sometimes (S); Infrequently (I); Rarely (R). In the light of the subscale explanations, this instrument thus measures the effectiveness of leadership style. A high score on this instrument is associated with effective leadership style, a low one, with ineffective leader behavior.

Reliability

The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire has a high internal consistency. Taylor and Bowers (1972) discuss four factors of this instrument separately. According to these authors, the internal consistency of these four subscales are as presented in Table 3.3. The average internal consistency of these subtests is therefore .89.

Table 3.2--Indices, Their Definitions, and Constituent Items of the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire*

Indices	Definition	Constituent Items
Support	Behavior that enhances someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance.	1, 5, 9, 13, & 17
Interaction Facilitation	Behavior that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationship.	2, 6, 10, 14, & 18
Goal Emphasis	Behavior that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance.	3, 7, 11, 15, & 19
Work Facilitation	Behavior that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical knowledge.	4, 8, 12, 16, & 20

*See Also Appendix B.

Table 3.3--Indices and their Internal consistency of the
Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire*

Index	Internal Consistency
Support	.94
Goal Emphasis	.85
Work Facilitation	.88
Interaction Facilitation	.89

*Taylor, J.C., & Bowers, D.G. Survey of Organization:
A Machine Scores Standardized Questionnaire. Ann
Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University
of Michigan, 1972, p. 55.

Validity

According to Taylor and Bowers (1972), the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire has high validity. The authors present discriminant validity for all four subscales in Table 3.4.

Weaknesses

Schriesheim, Kinicki, and Schriesheim (1979) maintain that the Michigan Four-Factor Theory is susceptible to social desirability, i.e., subjects can respond to it on the basis of what is socially desirable. They also observed that this tool can be influenced by leniency, i.e., the responses can be influenced by the subjects' leniency toward the individual being rated.

Strengths

The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire has a high reliability and validity (Taylor and Bowers, 1972). This was one of the reasons why this instrument was chosen for this study. The other strength is that other leadership scales (e.g., Likert, 1961) which are similar to this tool have been used in educational settings (Lindemuth, 1969; Cullers, Hughes, and McGreal, 1973; Rasmussen, 1976; Greenfield and Andrews, 1961; Anderson, 1966; Bowers, 1976; Belasco, 1973; Gibson, 1973). Leadership scales have also

Table 3.4--Discriminant Validity of the Indices
of the Michigan Four-Factor Theory
Questionnaire

	Goal Emphasis	Work Facilitation	Interaction Facilitation
Support	.79	.79	.72
Goal Emphasis		.81	.75
Work Facilitation			.78

been used across cultures (Ulin, 1976; Blake and Mouton, 1970, as cited by Bass, 1981). These studies reported no difficulties in the application of leadership scales constructed and validated in the United States.

Collection of Data

Randomly selected Black universities were visited by the researcher. A random sample of 5 lecturers and 5 senior lecturers was selected from the Faculty of Arts. A Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire (Taylor and Bowers, 1972), a 20 item questionnaire (See Appendix B.) on leadership styles, was administered to five students taught by each lecturer concerned. This questionnaire requires about 15-20 minutes to complete. The above process was repeated in the Faculties of Business, Law, Education and Science.

The process employed to collect data in Black universities, as described in the foregoing paragraph, was followed for each of the remaining population groups (Indians, Coloureds, and Whites).

Confidentiality

1. Senior lecturers and lecturers did not know how they were rated by their students.
2. Each student did not know how other students rated the lecturer or senior lecturer.
3. Strict confidentiality was observed.

Processing of Data

In order to quantify the data, each response on the rating scale was assigned an arbitrary value. The response of "almost always" was assigned a value of 5; "frequently" a value of 4; "sometimes" a value of 3; "infrequently" a value of 2; and "rarely" a value of 1. Each population group was assigned an arbitrary numerical value: Blacks = 1; Indians = 2; Coloureds = 3; and Whites = 4. So were the Faculties: Arts = 1; Business = 2; Education = 3; Law = 4; and Science = 5. A junior (lecturer) position and senior (senior position) lecturer were assigned arbitrary value of 1 and 2, respectively. The codebook, as presented in Table 3.5, was then prepared. In accordance with the codebook, the values assigned to the individual ratings were recorded on computer coding sheets and then key-punched on data processing cards. A complete check for error was made in both processes.

Analysis of the Data

To test the hypotheses, Finn's (1968) Multivariate - Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Covariance: A FORTRAN IV program - was prepared and used to analyze the data. Jeremy D. Finn is a Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology, State University of New York at Buffalo. Finn's Multivariate program was modified for the Michigan State University CDC 3600 and 6500

Table 3.5--Codebook

Column Number	Variable	Description
1	Population Grouping	1 = Blacks 2 = Indians 3 = Coloureds 4 = Whites
2	Faculty	1 = Arts 2 = Business 3 = Education 4 = Law 5 = Science
3	Academic Position	1 = Lecturer 2 = Senior Lecturer
4	Item	1, etc.

computer systems by Wright (1970). The summary of the results is presented in Chapter IV. In accordance with a generally accepted statistical procedure, the examination of the status of each hypothesis in relation to the findings of this study started with the last hypothesis. Statistically significant interaction(s) were explored and interpreted in the light of graphic representation(s).

Multiple Comparisons

Where main effects were statistically significant, multiple comparisons were conducted to determine which means were significantly different. Where there were a priori hypotheses as to where the differences between the means (e.g., among population means) might be, planned orthogonal comparisons were utilized. In the opposite case (e.g., among Faculty means) a post-hoc approach, namely, Tukey A, was used. This technique is similar to what is called the Highest Significant Difference (HSD) that uses formula:

$$HSD_a = q \text{ Se},$$

Where: $q = (I, fe)$

I = number of means in that effect.

fe = degrees of freedom (df) of the denominator used to calculate F ratio.

Se = Standard error of the mean differences $(2MSE/J)^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

MSE = denominator used to calculate F ratio.

J = number of observations in each mean.

a = a chosen alpha level.

This method of multiple comparison was chosen because, of all the other multiple comparison procedures, it is most powerful and keeps the type I error rate low (Winer, 1971).

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this study were support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation. These four key dimensions (dependent variables) of leadership behavior and items which tapped them are presented below.

Dimension 1: SUPPORT

Behavior that enhances someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance.

Item 1: He or she would trust the students to exercise good judgement in the interest of the class.

Item 5: He or she would give students feedback on their performance, both positive and negative.

Item 9: He or she would seek students' ideas and opinions, including criticisms.

Item 17: He or she would value differences of opinion and try to achieve consensus in problem solving.

Item 13: He or she would be concerned about the personal problems of group members.

Dimension 2: INTERACTION FACILITATION

Behavior that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationship.

Item 2: He or she would encourage interpersonal relationships between himself or herself and his or her students and among the students.

- Item 6: He or she would stress the use of group meetings to plan and critique our work.
- Item 10: He or she would encourage students to interact in goal setting and planning without his or her direct involvement.
- Item 14: He or she would consider improving "the way we work together" to be as important as improving task accomplishment.
- Item 18: He or she would consider it his responsibility to facilitate resolution of interpersonal misunderstanding and/or disagreement.

Dimension 3: GOAL EMPHASIS

Behavior that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance.

- Item 3: He or she would stress competition.
- Item 7: He or she would push his or her students to work hard.
- Item 11: He or she would establish definite standards of performance and stress meeting them.
- Item 15: He would urge the class to beat its previous record.
- Item 19: He or she would modify students' objectives in light of class goals.

Dimension 4: WORK FACILITATION

Behavior that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical knowledge.

- Item 4: He or she would provide definite guidelines for work procedures, and expect students to follow them.
- Item 8: He or she would press for acceptance of his expertise and ideas regarding the technical aspects of school work performance.

- Item 12: He or she would assign students to particular tasks based on his or her perception of their special knowledge and/or skills.
- Item 16: He or she would assume prime responsibility for coordinating the work of his students.
- Item 20: He or she would develop overall plans and schedules and use them to control the class activities.

Summary

This Chapter is devoted to the discussion of hypotheses, population of the study, sampling procedures, and instrumentation. It also includes a description of both the processing and analysis of the data. A detailed analysis of the data will be presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to determine whether, and to what extent, population grouping, Faculty, and academic position have a statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of lecturers and senior lecturers in South African universities as evaluated by students. The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire (Taylor & Bowers, 1972), a measure of the effectiveness of leadership style, was the instrument utilized to gather data on South African university teaching staff. The statistical analyses are presented in this Chapter.

Preliminary Findings

Relationship Among the Four Dependent Variables

The initial purpose of this study was to treat each subtest as a separate dependent variable in the analysis of the data. There were four indices which were as follows:

- 1) support
- 2) interaction facilitation
- 3) goal emphasis
- 4) work facilitation

It was assumed that each of these four subscales was measuring effectiveness of a different style of leadership and should therefore be considered as separate dependent variables. However, examination of the correlation matrix for these four variables (See Table 4.1.) shows a moderate degree of overlap among subtests. This suggests that the four subscales are a more or less composite measure of one type of dependent variable or one type of leadership.

A principal component analysis of the correlation matrix of the four dependent variables provides further evidence that these separate indices should be combined into a single composite variable. The first vector of the principal component analysis (See Table 4.2.) is weighted identically on each of the four dependent variables, indicating that the subscales should be evenly weighted. This vector accounts for 74% of the variation (See Table 4.3.).

Level of Significance

This study used Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) as the major technique for answering the major questions. Given the three-way factorial design, eight multivariate tests needed to be performed. To do each at .05 level would result in a large overall error rate. To

Table 4.1--Correlation Matrix of Four Dependent Variables.

	Dependent Variable 1 (Support)	Dependent Variable 2 (Interaction Facilitation)	Dependent Variable 3 (Goal Emphasis)
Dependent Variable 2	.85		
Dependent Variable 3	.55	.57	
Dependent Variable 4 (Work Facilitation)	.55	.54	.73

Table 4.2--Principal Components of the Correlation
Matrix

	Vectors			
	1	2	3	4
Dependent Variable 1 (Support)	-.92	-.31	.07	.24
Dependent Variable 2 (Interaction Facilitation)	-.91	-.29	-.09	-.28
Dependent Variable 3 (Goal Emphasis)	-.78	.52	-.33	.08
Dependent Variable 4 (Work Facilitation)	-.77	.51	.39	-.08

Table 4.3--Variation Accounted for by the
Eigenvalues

Vectors	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variation
1	1.02	73.90
2	.23	16.27
3	.08	5.65
4	.06	4.19

control the overall error rate, an alpha level of .01 (a stringent level of significance) was adopted for each of the eight separate tests.

Analysis of Variance of Total Scores

In the previous section, it was mentioned that the main dependent variable of the study was a composite variable, namely, leadership style, the sum of the four subtests. The data was analyzed using a $4 \times 5 \times 2$ analysis of variance (ANOVA) of total scores. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.4.

All three- and two-way interactions were not statistically significant at the .01 level. Null hypothesis 3 stated that academic position has no statistically significant effect on effectiveness of leadership style in South African universities. The data in Table 4.4 indicates that this null hypothesis was not rejected, ($F = .1448$ $p > .01$). Thus

$$\mu_{p1} = \mu_{p2}$$

Null hypothesis 2 was that Faculty has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership style in South African universities. This omnibus null hypothesis was rejected, ($F = 4.34$ $p < .01$). Therefore

$$\mu_{FA} \neq \mu_{FB} \neq \mu_{FE} \neq \mu_{FL} \neq \mu_{FS}$$

Null hypothesis 1 was that population grouping has no statistically significant effect upon the effectiveness

Table 4.4--Three-Way ANOVA of Total Scores

Effect	df	MS	F	p less than
Population	3/160	144.31	36.13	.0001
Faculty	4/160	17.35	4.34	.0024
Academic Postition	1/160	.58	.15	.7041
Population x Faculty	12/160	6.94	1.74	.0633
Faculty x Position	4/160	9.78	2.45	.0485
Population x Position	3/160	3.82	.96	.416
Population x Faculty x Position	12/160	6.32	1.58	.102

of leadership styles of teaching staff in South African universities. As can be seen in Table 4.4, this omnibus null hypothesis was rejected, ($F = 36.13$ $p < .01$). Thus

$$\mu_B \neq \mu_C \neq \mu_I \neq \mu_W$$

This suggested that the effect of population grouping differed from one group to the other.

General Inspection of Population Grouping Faculty Differential Effects

Because population grouping and Faculty had statistically significant influence on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities (See Table 4.4.), a two-way (population by Faculty) Table (See Table 4.5.) was prepared to explore these differential effects. Inspection of this Table revealed that the effect of Faculty might have been statistically significant primarily due to a low rating mean for the Science Faculty teaching staff. The means of the remaining Faculties looked almost equal, with no statistically significant differences.

As can be seen in Table 4.5, the effect of population grouping might have been statistically significant primarily due to a markedly low rating mean for the faculty in Black campuses. The means of the remaining population groups looked almost equal.

Apparently, there were no statistically significant differences among them. The foregoing general observations or findings were highlighted in Figure 4.1, a graphic

Table 4.5--Means and SD of Various Faculties
in their Respective Population Groups.

		B	I	C	W	Total
<u>Ar.</u>	\bar{X}	53	63	66	60	61
	SD	7.0	8.4	10.3	6.4	8.1
<u>Bus.</u>	\bar{X}	46	66	58	60	58
	SD	6.0	7.0	9.9	9.1	8.0
<u>Ed.</u>	\bar{X}	43	67	57	65	58
	SD	6.5	18.2	8.9	5.7	9.8
<u>La.</u>	\bar{X}	50	63	61	69	61
	SD	4.3	11.5	12.2	9.1	9.3
<u>Sc.</u>	\bar{X}	35	62	59	55	53
	SD	8.8	14.2	11.3	9.6	11.0
<u>Total</u>	\bar{X}	45	64	60	62	
	SD	6.5	11.9	10.5	8.0	

Key:

Blacks (B)

Indians (I)

Coloureds (C)

Whites (W)

Arts (Ar.)

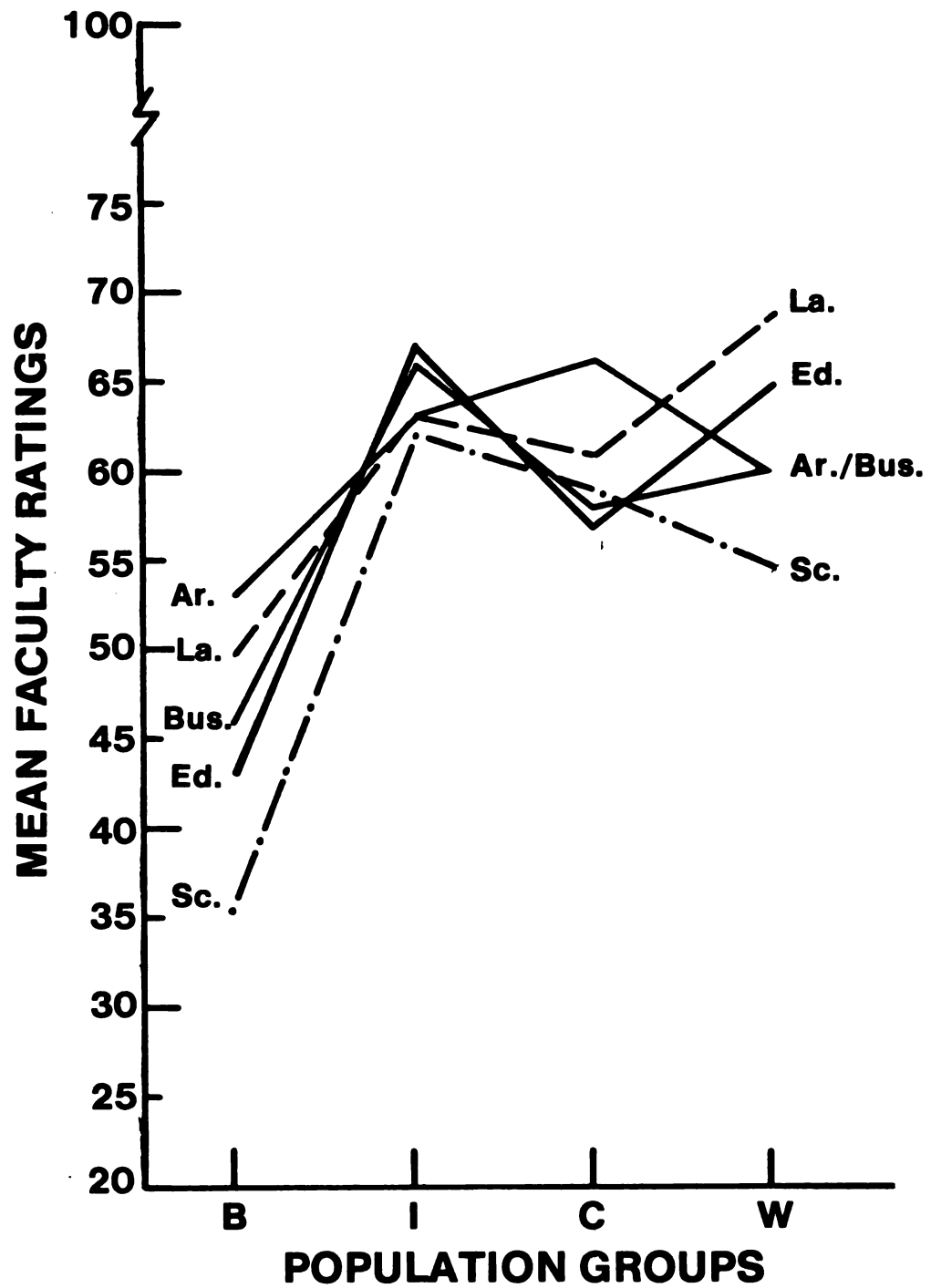
Business (Bus.)

Education (Ed.)

Law (La.)

Science (Sc.)

Figure 4.1--Graphic Representation of Various Faculty Means in Their Respective Population Groups.



representation of Table 4.5.

Multiple Comparisons

The validity of the preceding general inspection of differential effects of population grouping, and Faculty was examined, using multiple comparison techniques. Also this further step would help to determine if any additional information might be gained from this alternative approach.

Faculty

Statistically significant differences among Faculty means were examined, using a post-hoc measure, called Tukey A, with .01 level of significance. The critical value was found to 4.1 for all comparisons. Contrasts were done by first arranging the Faculty means in an ascending order as shown below.

<u>Faculty</u>	<u>Means in an Ascending Order</u>
Science	53
Business	58
Education	58
Arts	61
Law	61

Comparisons were then arranged in the following way:

58 (Business) minus 53 (Science) = $5 > 4.1$; H_0 : reject .
 61 (Arts) minus 58 (Education) = $3 < 4.1$; H_0 : stands
 61 (Law) minus 53 (Science) = $8 > 4.1$; H_0 : reject

Thus the results of multiple comparisons indicated

- a) that Arts and Law Faculties had the highest means while Science Faculty had the lowest, and
- b) that these two extreme rating means were statistically different from each other. These findings corroborated the findings of general inspection performed in the previous section.

The above multiple comparisons also provided additional information, which showed that the rating mean:

- a) for Business Faculty is statistically greater than that for the Science Faculty, and
- b) for Arts Faculty is statistically greater than that for the Education Faculty.

Population Groups

Planned orthogonal comparisons were conducted to determine which means were statistically different from each other. This approach to comparisons was adopted because there were a priori hypotheses as to the differences to be found between the four means. Contrasts prepared and the results of computations are presented in Table 4.6.

As can be seen in Table 4.6, the teaching staff in White universities had the higher mean ratings compared with

Table 4.6--Planned Orthogonal Comparisons Between
Population Group Rating Means

Contrasts	Results
1 Whites vs. non-whites (Blacks, Coloureds, and Indians)	Whites were higher than non-whites.
2 Blacks vs. Indians and Coloureds	Indians and Coloureds were higher than Blacks.
3 Coloureds vs. Indians	Indians were higher than Coloureds.

those of their colleagues in non-white campuses. The faculty in Indian and Coloured universities had higher mean ratings than that of the teaching staff in Black universities. Lecturers and senior lecturers in an Indian University had higher mean ratings than that of teachers in a Coloured university.

4 x 5 x 2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance

In the previous section, ANOVA was used to analyze the data because the correlation matrix and the principal components analysis indicated that all four subscales (dependent variables) could be combined into a single composite measure without much loss in terms of variation accounted for. To investigate if any additional information could be obtained, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was also used to analyze the data, utilizing each subscale as a separate dependent variable. This analysis was carried out using the Finn program available through the College of Education at Michigan State University. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.7.

Null hypothesis 5 was that there is no statistically significant three-way interaction involving the three independent factors (population groups, Faculty, and academic position). The data presented in Table 4.7 indicate that the findings of this study failed to reject this hypothesis, ($F = 1.3899$ $p > .01$).

Null hypothesis 4 was that there are no statistically

Table 4.7--Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Source	df	Multi-F	p less than
Population	12/416	9.48	.0001
Faculty	16/480	3.64	.0001
Academic Position	4/157	.65	.6278
Population by Faculty	48/607	1.67	.0039
Faculty by Position	16/480	1.32	.1798
Population by Position	12/416	1.09	.3686
Population by Faculty by Academic Position	48/607	1.39	.0460

significant two-way interactions between the factors. The data presented in Table 4.7 indicate that this hypothesis was rejected since one two-way (population by Faculty) interaction was statistically significant ($F = 1.6714$ $p < .01$). Other two-way interactions were not statistically significant.

The univariate analysis of variance in Table 4.8 displays that the population by Faculty two-way multivariate interaction was statistically significant due primarily to subtest 3, namely, Goal Emphasis ($F = 2.5692$ $p < .01$).

Table 4.9 shows subtest 3 means of various Faculties in relation to their respective population groups. Figure 4.2 is a graphic representation of Table 4.9, which illustrates a two-way (population by Faculty) interaction in subtest 3. The interaction is reflected by the crossing of lines. Arts Faculty rating means were consistently the highest among non-whites (Blacks, Indians, and Coloureds) whereas it was the lowest for Whites. Law Faculty rating means were average for Blacks and Indians whereas these means were the highest among Coloureds and Whites. Education and Business Faculty rating means seem variable in all four population groups: middle for Blacks and Whites, highest for Indians, and relatively lowest for Coloureds.

While Science rating means were the lowest among Blacks, Coloureds, and Whites, it was the highest among Indians. These variations are further highlighted in Table 4.10 which presents a descending rank order of Faculty rating means by various population groups.

Null hypothesis 3 stated that their academic

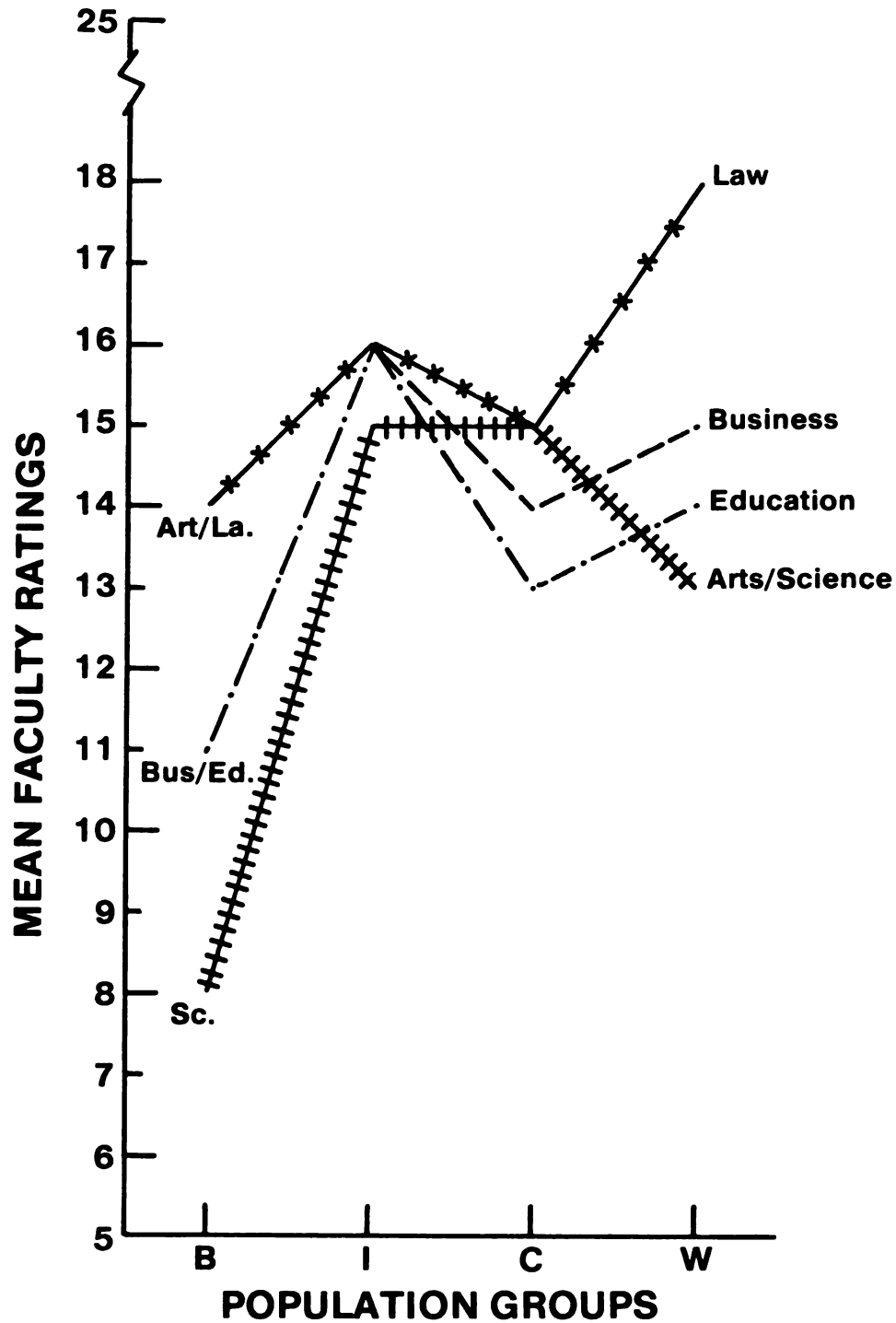
Table 4.8--Univariate Analysis of Variance

Variable	Hypothesis Mean SQ	Univariate F	P less than
1 Subtest 1 (Support)	.5081	1.1727	.3070
2 Subtest 2 (Interaction Facilitation)	.6625	1.7249	.0660
3 Subtest 3 (Goal Emphasis)	.7699	2.5692	.0039
4 Subtest 4 (Work Facilitation)	.3154	1.1804	.3014

Table 4.9--Subtest 3 (Goal Emphasis) Means of
Various Faculties in their Respective
Population Groups.

	Arts	Business	Education	Law	Science
Blacks	13.8	11.3	<u>11.3</u>	13.7	8.4
Indians	15.9	<u>16.4</u>	<u>16.3</u>	15.7	15.0
Coloureds	15.1	13.5	12.7	15.2	14.8
Whites	13.2	14.7	13.9	<u>17.7</u>	12.9

Figure 4.2--Graphic Illustration of Subtest 3
(Goal Emphasis) Two-Way (population by
Faculty) Interaction.*



*Numerical values rounded

Table 4.10--Descending Rank Order of Faculty
Rating Means in Each Population Group.

Descending Rank Order of Means	Population Groups			
	Blacks	Indians	Coloureds	Whites
1	Arts	(Education (Business	(Arts/Law (Science	Law
2	Law	Arts	Business	Business
3	(Education (Business	Law		Education
4	Science	Science		Arts/Science

position has no statistically significant effect on effectiveness of leadership style in South African universities. Like in ANOVA, in Table 4.7, it was shown that this hypothesis was not rejected, ($\underline{F} = .6500$ $p > .01$). Thus,

$$\mu_{p1} = \mu_{p2}$$

Null hypothesis 2 stated that Faculty has no statistically significant effect upon the effectiveness of leadership styles in South African universities. As can be seen in Table 4.7, like in ANOVA (See Table 4.4.), this hypothesis was rejected multivariate ($\underline{F} = 3.6353$ $p < .01$). Therefore,

$$\mu_{FA} \neq \mu_{FB} \neq \mu_{FE} \neq \mu_{FL} \neq \mu_{FS}$$

Given the significant two-way (population \underline{x} Faculty) interaction involving subtest three (Goal emphasis) the univariate analysis of variance in Table 4.11 can be examined only for:

- a) Subscale 1, univariate $F = 3.9993$ ($p < .01$).
(Support)

The univariate F ratio's for subtests 2 (Interaction Facilitation) and 4 (Goal Emphasis) were not statistically significant at .01 level.

Multiple (Tukey A) comparisons were conducted to determine the mean differences that were statistically different from each other. Using $df=160$ and .01 level of significance, the critical value for all comparisons was 1.9. The results of the computations were similar to those obtained under ANOVA. That is, Arts and Law Faculties had the highest rating means while Science, the lowest. These

Table 4.11--Univariate Analysis of Variance

Variable	Hypothesis Mean SQ	Univariate F	P less than
Subtest 1 (Support)	1.7327	3.9993	.0041
Subtest 2 (Interaction Facilitation)	1.2203	3.1773	.0153
Subtest 3 (Goal Emphasis)	1.8058	8.0262	.0002
Subtest 4 (Work Facilitation)	.8068	3.0195	.0196

extreme values had statistically significant differences.

Hypothesis 1 stated that population grouping has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities. The data in Table 4.7 show that this hypothesis was rejected (multivariate $F = 9.4764$ $p < .01$). This means that

$$\mu_B \neq \mu_C \neq \mu_I \neq \mu_W$$

However, the univariate analysis of variance in Table 4.12 indicates that the effect of population grouping was statistically significant primarily due to three indices (again ignoring subtest three due to its involvement in the two-way interaction). These were:

- a) Subtest 1 univariate $F = 27.8791$ ($p < .01$)
(Support)
- b) Subtest 2 univariate $F = 27.8265$ ($p < .01$)
(Interaction Facilitation)
- c) Subtest 4 univariate $F = 32.1528$ ($p < .01$)
(Work Facilitation)

Planned orthogonal comparisons were conducted to determine the mean differences that were statistically different from each other. In all selected three subtests, the results were similar to those obtained in ANOVA (See Table 4.6.).

Profiles of Leadership Behavior

Profiles of leadership behavior in all four dependent variables were prepared and explored. This further spelled

Table 4.12--Univariate Analysis of Variance

Variable	Hypothesis Mean SQ	Univariate F	P less than
Subtest 1 (Support)	12.1219	27.9791	.0001
Subtest 2 (Interaction Facilitation)	10.6874	27.8265	.0001
Subtest 3 (Goal Emphasis)	5.9883	19.9841	.0001
Subtest 4 (Work Facilitation)	8.5915	32.1528	.0001

out the influence of each statistically significant main effect on the main dependent factor, namely, leadership style.

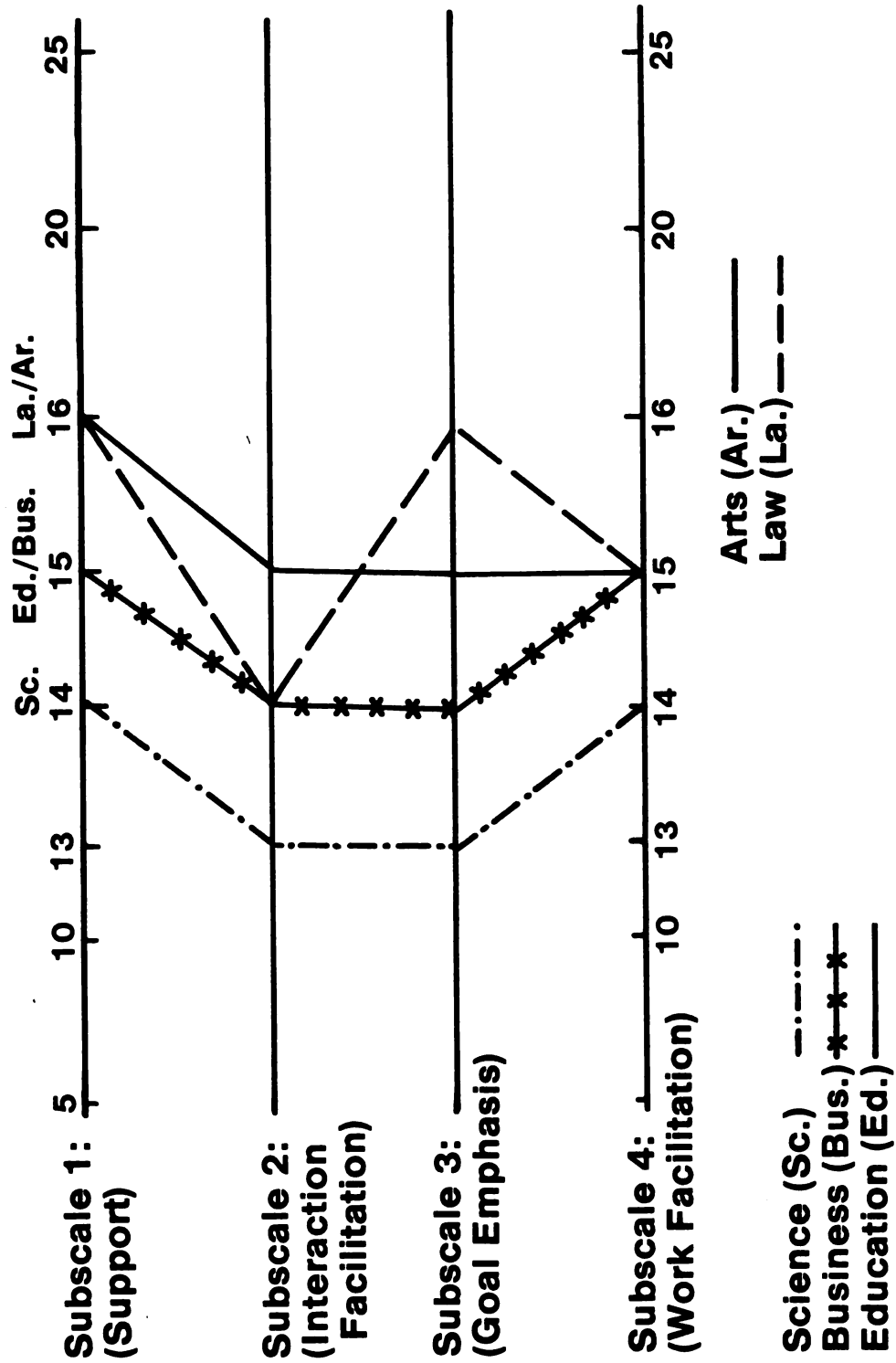
Table 4.13 shows Faculties and their respective means in each subtest. This information was then graphically illustrated in Figure 4.3. Science Faculty rating means were consistently the lowest in all subtests whereas Arts Faculty rating means were consistently the highest. Law Faculty rating means were variable: high in subscales 1 and 3, and average in subscales 2 and 4. Education and Business Faculty rating means were somewhat in the middle. It is essential to note that in each Faculty, subscale 2 rating mean was always the lowest.

Table 4.14 presents population group rating means in each subtest. The profile of this data is given in Figure 4.3. According to this Figure, Black university teaching staff received the lowest rating means in all subscales. In subtest 2, they were even markedly very low (10). On the other hand, Whites and Indians rating means were consistently the highest. Their rating means for subscale 1 were even markedly very high (17). Coloureds rating means were always in the middle though slightly closer to Whites and Indians.

Table 4.13--Faculties and Their Respective Rating Means in each Subscale.

Faculties	Subscales			
	1 Support	2 Interaction Facilitation	3 Goal Emphasis	4 Work Facilitation
Arts	16.4	14.8	14.0	14.8
Business	14.8	13.5	14.0	15.3
Education	15.3	14.5	13.6	14.7
Law	16.0	14.0	15.6	15.2
Science	13.8	12.5	12.7	13.5

Figure 4.3--A Profile of Faculty Degree of Emphasis on Four Key Dimensions of Leadership Behavior*

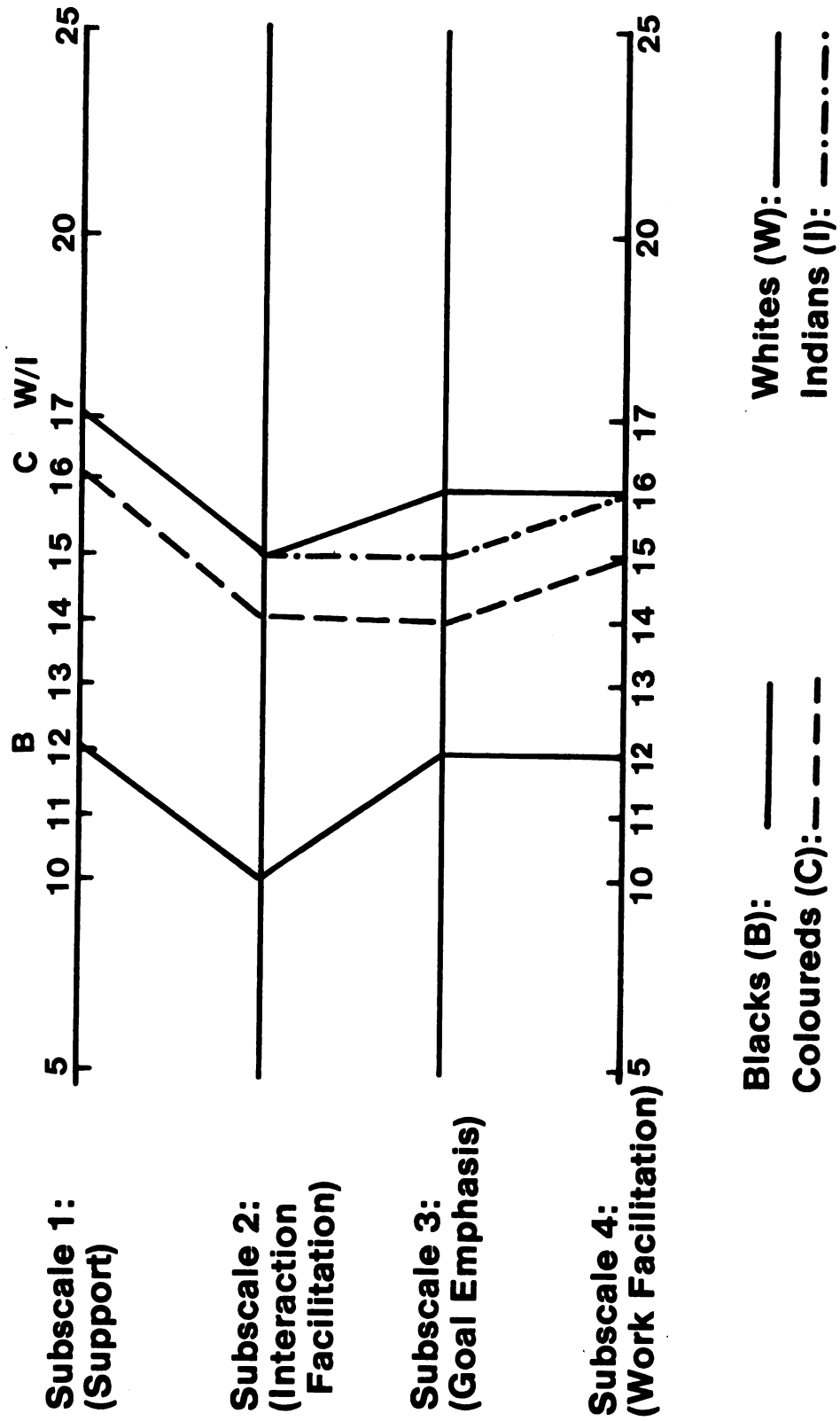


*Numerical values were rounded

Table 4.14--Population Groups and their Rating Means
in each Subscale

Population Groups	Subscale Rating Means			
	1 Support	2 Interaction Facilitation	3 Goal Emphasis	4 Work Facilitation
Blacks	11.6	10.4	11.7	11.7
Indians	16.9	15.2	15.9	16.3
Coloureds	16.1	14.4	14.3	15.1
Whites	16.5	15.2	14.5	15.8

Figure 4.4--A Profile of Each Population Group Degree of Emphasis on Four Key Dimensions of Leadership Behavior*



*Numerical values were rounded

Summary

In this Chapter, the analysis and interpretation of the data were presented. The next Chapter will focus on discussion, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem with which this study was concerned was whether population groups (Blacks, Indians, Coloureds, and Whites), Faculty (Arts, Business, Education, Law, and Science), and academic position (junior and senior) have a statistically significant effect upon the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities as evaluated by students.

This study was conducted on a random sample of 200 senior and junior lecturers in the Faculties of Arts, Business, Education, Law, and Science. The participants were selected proportionally from four types (Black, Coloured, Indian, and White) of universities in the Republic of South Africa.

The collection of data was carried out by administering the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire (Taylor and Bowers, 1972) on leadership styles (See Appendix I.) to five students taught by each lecturer concerned. This questionnaire consists of twenty items, grouped into four subscales: support of members, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation, which are functions of effective leadership styles. This tool thus measures the

effectiveness of leadership style. A high score on this instrument is associated with effective leadership style, a low one, with ineffective leader behavior.

To test the null hypotheses in this study, Finn's (1978) Multivariate - Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Covariance: A FORTRAN IV program - was prepared and used to analyze the data. The null hypotheses and results of analyses are presented in Table 5.1.

Summary

Hypothesis 5

There was no statistically significant three-way interaction among three independent variables (population groups, Faculty, and academic position). This finding confirmed null hypothesis Five which stated that there is no statistically significant three-way interaction involving three independent factors. This means that the effect of each independent variable is uninfluenced by either of the other independent factors.

Hypothesis 4

As indicated in Table 4.7, as presented in the previous chapter, one two-way (population x Faculty) interaction out of three was statistically significant. This finding rejected null hypothesis Four which stated that there is no

Table 5.1--Results of Hypothesis Tests ✓

Null Hypothesis	Results	
	Univariate	Multivariate
5. There is no statistically significant three-way interaction involving three independent factors (population groups, Faculty, and academic position).	confirmed	confirmed
4. There are no statistically significant two-way interactions between the factors.	confirmed	not confirmed
3. Academic position has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities.	confirmed	confirmed
2. Faculty has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities.	not confirmed	not confirmed
1. Population grouping has no statistically significant effects on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities.	not confirmed	not confirmed

statistically significant two-way interaction between factors. However, as indicated in Table 4.8, this two-way interaction was statistically significant primarily due to subscale three, namely, goal emphasis. In the other three subtests (support, interaction facilitation, and work facilitation) two-way interactions were not statistically significant. In Table 4.9, it may be seen that in the goal emphasis leadership aspect, the effect of population groups depended upon the influence of Faculty, and vice versa. Arts Faculty teaching staff demonstrated the most effective leadership style among non-white (Blacks, Indians, and Coloureds) universities and least effective leader behavior for Whites. On one hand, Science Faculty teachers had least effective leadership styles among Blacks, Indians, and Whites while on the other they had most effective leader behavior for Coloureds.

Hypothesis 3

The data presented in Table 5.1 indicate that the rating means of the senior and junior teaching staff were not statistically different from each other. This finding confirmed hypothesis three that academic position has no statistically significant effect upon the effectiveness of leadership styles of senior and junior lecturers in South African universities.

Hypothesis 2

There were statistically significant differences among the rating means of various Faculties. This finding rejected the null hypothesis 2 which stated that Faculty has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles in South African universities. Further investigation, as shown in Table 4.11, revealed that the effect of Faculty on leadership styles was primarily due to support subscale 1 only.

As can be seen in Table 4.13, the teaching staff in Arts and Law Faculties displayed the most effective leadership styles whereas the Science Faculty teaching staff had the least effective leadership style. These differences are also highlighted in Figure 4.3.

Hypothesis 1

The data in Table 4.7 indicate that there were significant differences in the effectiveness of leadership styles among various population groups. This finding rejected null hypothesis One which stated that population grouping has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities. However, the data in Table 4.12 indicate that the effect of population grouping was significant primarily due to support (subscale 1); interaction facilitation (subscale

2); and work facilitation (subscale 4). Further investigation revealed:

- a) that the teaching staff in White universities have more effective leadership styles than that in non-white (Black, Indian, Coloured, and White) universities,
- b) that leadership style of the teaching staff in Coloured and Indian universities is more effective than that of the faculty in Black universities,
- c) that leadership style of teachers in an Indian university is more effective than that of their colleagues in a Coloured campus.

Further analysis revealed that leadership style of the teaching staff in White, and Indian campuses is consistently high in all leadership scales (support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation). However, it seems to markedly emphasize support. On the other hand, leadership style of lecturers and senior lecturers in Black universities is low in all subtests of the Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire. It is even markedly low or least effective in interaction facilitation subscale (See Figure 4.4.).

Conclusion

1. This study confirmed the concern among non-Whites (Blacks, Indians, and Coloureds) in the Republic of South Africa that the currently prevailing leadership styles of the

teaching staff in the South African universities mainly serve the interests and needs of white students than those of non-white students. Leadership styles of the teaching staff in White universities are more effective than those of lecturers and senior lecturers in non-white universities.

2. Among non-whites alone, leadership styles of the teaching staff in the Indian University are the most effective while those of the faculty in Black campuses are the least effective. The leadership styles of the faculty in the Coloured University are somewhat middling though slightly above average.
3. The study confirmed the belief that the teaching staff of certain Faculties have a higher probability of demonstrating more effective leadership than do those from other Faculties. The teaching staff from the Faculties of Law and Arts have the most effective leadership styles whereas those from the Science Faculty display the least effective leader behavior.
4. Academic position has no significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership style in South African universities.
5. Leadership styles of faculty in all population groups are most effective in the support subscale and least effective in the interaction facilitation subscale (See Figure 4.4.). The South African government's "apartheid (segregation)" policy may have something to do with this generally low performance in the interaction facilitation subscale. This observation may seem meaningful if considered in

the light of the fact:

- /a) that even in non-white universities, the teaching staff is predominantly white, and
 - b) that all universities in the Republic of South Africa are state-owned.
6. In subtest 3 (Goal Emphasis) the effect of population groups on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff depends upon that of Faculty, and vice versa.

Recommendations

This research has led to the consideration of a number of other research topics which could yield important information for both administrators and educators in the universities of the Republic of South Africa. The following possible future papers and longer works are, however, not necessarily based upon the foregoing conclusions.

1. Studies more or less similar to the present work could be considered:
 - a) To replicate it, and
 - b) To both increase and encourage South African based literature on leadership in general and on leadership styles in particular.
2. Studies could be conducted to address questions such as, why are leadership styles of the teaching staff:
 - a) In White universities more effective than those of their colleagues in non-white schools of

higher education?

- b) In the Indian University more effective than those of lecturers and senior lecturers in the Coloured University?
- c) In White and Indian universities almost equally effective?
- d) In Black campuses least effective than those of their colleagues in other population group universities?
- e) In Arts and Law Faculties more effective than those in Science Faculty?

3. Other studies may investigate:

- a) Why academic position has no statistically significant effect on the effectiveness of leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities? and
- b) Why leadership styles of the teaching staff in South African universities tend to strongly emphasize support and markedly de-emphasize interaction facilitation?

APPENDIX A

An English Translation of an exerpt from
Anton Rupert's (1980) Speech cited on Page 5.

Appendix A

An English translation of an exerpt from
Anton Rupert's speech cited on page 5.

We don't have to wait for a crisis in South Africa to produce leaders we need. Let us now train our own leaders who will serve our country in all possible ways and help creating a peaceful and co-existing community.

APPENDIX B

The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire

Appendix B

The Michigan Four-Factor Theory Questionnaire

The following items describe aspects of leadership behaviour. Respond to each item in terms of your actual experience; your past experience is the best estimate of the way (write the ratee's name on this dotted line)

.....

would be most likely to act if s/he were the leader of a class. Circle the letter symbolizing the way in which s/he would be likely to behave:

- (A) Almost Always (F) Frequently (S) Sometimes
(I) Infrequently (R) Rarely

If s/he were the leader of a class. . . .

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|---|
| A | F | S | I | R | 1. | s/he would trust the students to exercise good judgement in the interest of the class. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 2. | s/he would encourage close interpersonal relationships between herself/himself and her/his students and among the students. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 3. | s/he would stress competition. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 4. | s/he would provide definite guidelines for work procedures, and expect students to follow them. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 5. | s/he would give students feedback on their performance, both positive and negative. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 6. | s/he would stress the use of group meetings to plan and critique our work. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 7. | s/he would push students to work hard. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 8. | s/he would press acceptance of her/his expertise and ideas regarding the technical aspects of school work performance. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 9. | s/he would seek students' ideas and opinions, including criticism. |
| A | F | S | I | R | 10. | s/he would encourage members to interact in goal setting and planning without his/her direct involvement. |

- A F S I R 11. s/he would establish definite standards of performance and stress meeting them.
- A F S I R 12. s/he would assign students to particular tasks based on her/his perception of their special knowledge and/or skills.
- A F S I R 13. s/he would be concerned about the personal problems of students.
- A F S I R 14. s/he would consider improving "the way we work together" to be as important as improving task accomplishment.
- A F S I R 15. s/he would urge the students to beat their previous record.
- A F S I R 16. s/he would assume prime responsibility for coordinating the work of her/his students.
- A F S I R 17. s/he would value differences of opinion and try to achieve consensus in problem solving.
- A F S I R 18. s/he would consider it her/his responsibility to facilitate resolution of interpersonal misunderstanding and/or disagreement.
- A F S I R 19. s/he would modify students' objectives in light of the class goals, in general.
- A F S I R 20. s/he would develop overall plans and schedules and use them to control the student activities.

APPENDIX C

Rede Gelewer Deur
ANTON RUPERT
by die Gradeplegtigheid
van die Universiteit Wes-Kaapland

Kaapstad, 9 Februarie 1980

Appendix C

Rede Gelewer Deur
 ANTON RUPERT
 by die Gradeplegtigheid
 van die Universiteit Wes-Kaapland

Kaapstad, 9 Februarie 1980

Members of the University Staff, Parents, Friends, Graduates:

What a privilege it is to be here with you on this happy occasion and to be able to congratulate you who are about to graduate, and you, parents and relatives, on your proud achievement and to express thanks to your professors and lecturers for preparing once more, a group of young men and women for the great task ahead.

U wat die voorreg gehad het om vir 'n paar jaar aan die "voete" van u leermeesters te sit, moet die een waarheid tog nooit vergeet nie, naamlik dat 'n mens nooit te oud is om nog student te bly nie. U staan op die drumpel van 'n mooi toekoms. Moenie u soeke na kennis hier beëindig nie. Laat u lewe verder daardeur verryk word, dan sal u beter toegerus wees vir die hoë eise wat 'n ontwikkelende Suid-Afrika gaan stel. U talente, ten beste ontwikkel en gestuur in die regte kanale, gaan help bou aan 'n welvarende en stabiele Suider-Afrikaanse gemeenskap.

In hierdie eeu, waar niks so seker is as die feit dat alles onderhewig is aan verandering nie; waar nuwe ontwikkelinge en innovasies mekaar met haas oorbluffende reëlmaat opvolg; waar gevorder is van die ossewa tot die ruimteskip, word die aanpasbaarheid van die mens dikwels tot die uiterste beproef.

Tog, nā 'n studie van die onderwerp, het ek tot die slotsom gekom dat dieselfde menslike kwaliteite vat deur die eeue heen die enkeling bo die massa laat uitstyg het, vandag, te midde van die vloedgolf van verandering en vernuwing wat oor ons spoel, steeds geld.

Soos wat mense Sondag vir Sondag kerk toe gaan om dieselfde Evangelieboodskap te hoor, so het die eienskappe wat die ware leier in die samelewing na vore bring, ook 'n "ou" waarheid gebly.

Vergun my daarom om vanmiddag 'n paar gedagtes met u - lede van die huidige en toekomstige leierkorps - te deel oor leierskap.

Ek verstout my om te sê dat die wêreld, in die draaikolk van politieke, ekonomiese en maatskaplike strominge wat hy hom bevind, waarskynlik nog nooit so 'n behoefte aan bekwame leierskap gehad het as juis nou nie. Dit klink na 'n krisis, maar net sowel bied dit 'n wonderlike geleentheid vir die individu wat die visie, geloof en die wil het om hard te werk.

Bartholomeus Dias sou nie om die Kaap van Storms gevaar het; Martin Luther die Hervorming begin het; Jan van Riebeeck ons volksplanting onderneem en Bell sy telefoon ontwikkel het as hulle nie na die stem van hul eie oortuiging geluister het nie.

Daar word gesê dat leiers gebore en nie gemaak word nie. Dit mag so wees. Die vermoë om te lei, kan egter gestimuleer en ontwikkel word. Dit moet doelbewus en planmatig geskied: in ons huise, ons skole, aan ons universiteite en in ons gemeenskappe.

Hoe kan ons Suid-Afrika, met die ruim middele wat die land bied, uitbou as ons bloot 'n geslag van volgelinge word?

U is deel van 'n bevoorregte minderheid uit 'n ouderdomsgroep wat akademies onderleg en toegerus word vir leierskap. Aanvaar vandag die uitdaging en ontwikkel daardie vermoë doelbewus. Moenie bang wees om op u eie oordeel staat te maak nie; moenie wegstroom van watter verantwoordelikheid ookal op u geplaas word nie. In die laaste plek is u dit aan uself verskuldig.

Because I consider the subject of leadership so important I made a study of the qualities of leadership and over many years have been in contact with leaders in various walks of life throughout the world.

Permit me therefore to note some of the requirements for constructive leadership which I have observed.

1 Health: physical and mental:

The prerequisite for leadership seems to be good health - and the energy which flows from it. It does not require the perfect body. A great spirit can rule a frail body. Roosevelt was a cripple, Ceasar an epileptic and Napoleon had stomach ulcers. Neither fat nor lean makes any difference because Bismarck was grossly overweight whilst Ghandi was mere skin and bone. Yet all of them had boundless energy.

2 A sound philosophy of life:

But more important than being physically "sound" is that the leader should have a sound philosophy of life.

A constructive business leader needs a sound philosophy; also about the functions of business. He must be a man who realizes that prosperity is contagious - one cannot trade with paupers. He must strive not merely to be successful but to be a man of value. For a successful man is often a person who gets more out of life than he gives, whereas the man of value gives more than he receives.

3 A cause - something worth-while - a Leitmotif - a spirit of service - a sense of mission:

A further requirement for a constructive leader is that he should have something worthwhile to strive for - a noble cause to which he is dedicated (and, one could say, the greater the cause the greater the man).

Col. Lyndall Urwick, doyen of management consultants said: "If a man is to have a conscious aim in life, it is to know that his life is worthwhile. When this something worthwhile stirs the heart of man, the leader creates devoted followers".

Field-Marshal Montgomery put it thus: "The beginning of leadership is the battle for the hearts and minds of men - this is the essence of the matter".

And, to quote Napoleon: "A soldier does not face death in order to earn a few pence a day, or to win some paltry order of merit. None but the man who touches his heart, can stir his enthusiasm".

4 Selflessness:

The greater the cause the greater should be the spirit of service which must lead to selflessness. The greatest example of this "will to serve" was illustrated when the Saviour told his apostles quarrelling over leadership positions, "If anyone would be first, he must be last of all and servant to all" (St. Mark 9:35).

5 Optimistic enthusiasm, inspiration and drive:

A further requirement for leadership is enthusiasm - the issues of leadership spring from the heart. Good leaders are enthusiasts. It is perhaps not without significance that the word enthusiasm derives from the Greek word which means "possessed and inspired by some divinity". The pessimist, the cynic or the nihilist is no enthusiast.

Enthusiasm sparks a burning desire to "put into effect", a willingness to work and to accept responsibilities.

Furthermore, a leader must inspire, not merely by talk but by example. A former Chief-of-Staff of the United States Army, General Summerall, once said: "The leader must be everything that he desires his subordinates to become".

6 Intelligence and Knowledge:

The next requirement for leadership is the necessary intelligence and analytical prowess to conceive a long-range plan and the ability to collect and collate all the required knowledge about it. He must possess

the necessary judgement and common sense required to do so. It is not so much a determination to outmanoeuvre the other fellow, but an ability to anticipate the effects of action now in progress.

The leader looks to the past for experience and to the future to apply it.

A thorough knowledge of his job is an absolute prerequisite, supplemented thereafter by never-ending study to keep himself up to date.

Genius is often called the capacity for paying infinite attention to detail and is thus in a sense 99% perspiration.

7 Self-assurance, Self-trust, Self-confidence, yet Humility:

Inspiring confidence is one of the necessities of leadership. Any leader must have the necessary self-assurance, the self-confidence and self-trust to inspire confidence in others.

Without confidence a leader will never get together or hold together a group in adversity.

And it must be remembered that confidence is reciprocal, and that only by giving confidence can one expect to get it.

Yet no leader can hold confidence unless hand in hand with confidence goes humility which stems from selflessness. As Gen. Eisenhower so aptly expressed it once:

"No leader can win men if he is guilty of arrogance, particularly if it is accompanied by ignorance. A leader must seek to understand, not merely to control as a martinet. If he is truly to understand his men he must have the quality of humility".

8 Articulateness:

Yet one can have a cause, be enthusiastic about it, have the necessary

knowledge and confidence and still not be able to convey one's ideas to those whom one has to inspire to reach one's aim.

Leadership demands accurate and forceful communication of ideas. A leader must have full command of both the written and spoken word and in recent history Sir Winston Churchill stands out as the greatest example of this requirement of articulateness. He had lived a roaring life and shared it with his people through great writing and superb eloquence.

It is therefore of the greatest importance that our schools and universities spend even more time in training all in the correct use of the spoken and the written word.

He who cannot express himself clearly, is lost.

9 Courage and Boldness:

A prime requisite for a leader, according to Viscount Slim, a former Governor-General of Australia, is that he must be courageous and bold. Viscount Slim said that whereas the courage of a private is more physical, the higher the rank the more courage becomes a moral one.

Gen. De Gaulle expressed it thus:

"Alexander would never have conquered Asia, Galileo would never have demonstrated the movement of the earth, Columbus would never have discovered America, nor Richelieu have restored the authority of the Crown, had they not believed in themselves and taken full control of the task at hand. Boileau would never have established the laws of classic taste, Napoleon would never have founded an empire, de Lesseps would never have pierced the Isthmus of Suez, Bismarck would never have achieved German unity, nor Clemenceau have saved his country, had they harkened to the councils of short-sighted prudence or the promptings of faint-hearted modesty".

Indeed not - they were bold.

10 Will-power and Singleness of mind:

But courage and boldness are not enough. A leader must in addition possess the will-power to follow through - the singleness of mind, the tenacity and the consistency of purpose to keep on in any circumstances. The will-power to be lonely, because loneliness is often one of the penalties of leadership.

Here is how Gen. De Gaulle aptly puts it:

"The leader must accept the loneliness which is the 'wretchedness' of superior beings. Contentment and tranquility and the simple joys which go by the name of happiness are denied to those who fill positions of great power. The choice must be made, and it is a hard one: whence the vague sense of melancholy which hangs about the skirts of majesty".

The leader must pay the price for leadership which entails long days and sleepless nights, for no man has ever become a great leader on an eight hour day.

11 Flexibility of mind and Resiliency:

The fate of the Dinosaur, the largest prehistoric animal which disappeared due to lack of adaptability, is a fit illustration of this qualification. A great leader needs flexibility of mind for constructive leadership, the willingness to evaluate results and to admit mistakes. This does not mean that principle must yield to expediency but rather that one must be flexible in the accomplishment of well-defined objectives.

If a leader is wrong and is too obstinate to change his mind, then the stronger he is the bigger disaster he may be to his associates.

He must also be flexible enough to use different methods of commanding different people. Auren Uris describes three forms of leadership as

"autocratic", "democratic" and "free-reign" and mentions that the skill of leadership lies largely in knowing when (and with whom) to use which method.

12 Creative Imagination and Visionary Initiative:

There should be little need to stress the importance of vision in leadership. This vision should comprise enough imagination to see trends and anticipate problems. Vision which will force the mind into creativity to meet these problems, and sufficient initiative to set things in motion to solve them. It requires creativity of a very high order and often creates conflicts. Yet without change an organization often sails smoothly into disaster.

And here timing is of the greatest importance. The aero-dynamic type of design which made Volkswagen famous as a utility car in the post-war period failed in the Chrysler "Airflow" in the opulent thirties.

The real test of leadership is the capacity to introduce change at exactly the right moment. It is better to initiate than to act reactively.

13 Balanced Judgement, a sense of Proportion, Common Sense:

A rare attribute with the commonest name, that of "common sense", really implies balanced judgement.

Clear judgement is a combination of intelligence and experience. It can't be taught, but it can be learnt.

It is what the French call "le sens du praticable" the knowledge of what is and is not possible.

14 Understanding:

Placing oneself in the other man's shoes is the basis of all human understanding and leads to a sense of equity. A constructive leader

should have the necessary sensitivity to have empathy - that wonderful quality which evokes "skill in human relations".

Such a leader knows people, their motives, ambitions, aspirations, their strength and their weaknesses. He can therefore encourage and direct them.

He will therefore be able to select the right staff to suit any situation and he will help them grow.

15 Organizing - Delegating, Trusting:

The crispest definition that I can offer of a constructive business leader would be that he is a practical dreamer and a realistic optimist. He should, therefore, have the necessary skill at organizing which really implies that he must also be able to delegate efficiently, for he can only manage and lead as far as he can delegate. And again, the basis for all delegating of authority is trust. He must trust others to be trusted. Trust, like confidence, is contagious.

But he must know whom to trust and therefore selection also forms a basic part of efficient long-range organizing.

16 Decisiveness:

A true leader must have the power of decisiveness when required and also the ability to say "no". One who cannot say no is no leader - at best a "cheer leader".

Clarence Randall, distinguished US business philosopher, pointed out that men who cannot say yes or no, and say it crisply when the right time comes, are unsuited for top posts.

17 Karakter:

Die heel belangrikste bestanddeel van leierskap, volgens Randall, is karakter - een van die uitmuntendste woorde - wat moeilik ontleed of

omskryf kan word. Die goeie leier het feitlik sonder uitsondering 'n kode van waardes wat uit sy etiese en geestelike lewe voortspruit.

Ek sou sê dat hierdie kode van waardes die volgende eienskappe insluit; eerlikheid, integriteit, betroubaarheid, lojaliteit, nederigheid, opregtheid en standvastigheid.

'n Enkele woord oor een of twee van hierdie eienskappe.

In enige onderneming wat lank wil voortbestaan, is eerlikheid inderdaad die beste beleid. En ons moet onthou dat dit lank duur om 'n goeie naam op te bou, maar dat daardie goeie naam binne 'n oomblik kan verdwyn as gevolg van net een wandaad. Betroubaarheid word slegs deur die tyd bewys.

Lojaliteit is een van die mooiste bates in die lewe - die een eienskap wat nie met geld gekoop kan word nie en verdien moet word. Dit is 'n karaktereienskap wat ek bo alle ander stel.

Om oor 'n humorsin te beskik vereis nederigheid, want as 'n mens nie vir jouself kan lag as jy in die spieël kyk nie, het jy geen nederigheid nie. Iemand mag sukses he deur 'n manelpak te dra, 'n pluiskleed op te sit en sy mond dig toe te hou - maar hy sal nooit werklik 'n groot konstruktiewe leier wees nie.

Standvastigheid is daardie wonderlike gawe om kalm te bly te midde van 'n storm.

Dit beteken nie dat 'n mens normaalweg kalm en besadig moet wees nie. Inteendeel, dis dikwels energieke mense, soos wat Churchill was, wat kophou en rustig voortgaan terwyl almal om hulle beangs te kere gaan, maar wat rusteloos en moeilik raak wanneer almal om hom doodkalm en besadig is.

Soos moed nodig is in gevaar, is standvastigheid nodig in teëspoed.

18 Die "Algemenis"

Die laaste eienskap van 'n leier wat ek wil noem, is die vermoë om breed te kyk na die feite tot jou beskikking en daaruit die kern te haal.

Von Clausewitz beskryf heirdie vermoë in sy standaard-handboek oor oorlogvoering wat meer as 100 jaar gelede geskryf is. Hy sê dat die bevelhebber 'n geheeloorsig moet hê, wat hy kry uit 'n natuurlike gawe wat Von Clausewitz "Ortsinn", 'n sin van omgewing, noem. Hierdie vermoë om met sy geestes oog 'n ruimte te sien wat sy oog nie kan verken nie, is 'n daad van die verbeelding. Die waarneming kom deels van die natuurlike oog, deels van die geestes oog, wat die leemtes aanvul met idees wat spruit uit kennis en ervaring.

Dit is wat so nodig in besigheid is - nie soseer 'n insig en volledige kennis van elke klein besonderheidjie nie, maar 'n oorsig van die samehang en verband van al die bestanddele.

In dié verband kan leierskap die beste geïllustreer word deur die voorbeeld van 'n orkesdirigent. Hy hoef nie in staat te wees om elke instrument in sy orkes te bespeel nie, maar hy moet die partituur deeglik ken.

Leierskap is derhalwe dikwels eerder 'n geval van goeie oordeel as van gespesialiseerde kennis. Daarom is die "algemenis" eerder as die spesialis die geskikste vir sakeleierskap.

Ek pleit al jarelank vir veelsydige, ewewigtige en aanpasbare mense - mense wat nie so gespesialiseer is dat hulle persoonlikheid in die proses daaronder ly nie.

U kan sulke leiers wees. Ons hoef nie te wag op 'n krisis in Suid-Afrika vir die nodige leiers om na vore te kom nie. Laat ons nou die leiers kweek wat ons land op elke terrein kan dien en kan help bou aan 'n gelukkige en meelewende gemeenskap.

Die wens van my hart is dat u altyd u prestasies sal meet aan die enigste war maatstaf, naamlik aan dit wat u vir andere doen en nie vir uself nie. Om te lei, is om te dien.

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