

**The nature of the relationship between leadership behaviour and
organisational culture in a South African context.**

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by

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This report is dedicated to my wife, Johanneke, and my three daughters, Wilke, Thara and Anne, for all their loyal and trusting support.

Thank you to Jacqueline Fourie for the valuable direction and inputs provided as study leader.

Lastly, I want to express my gratitude to the Lord and Creator of all things, for the opportunities and talents He provided me. This report is an effort at understanding leadership, but I look ahead to knowing completely:
"Now we see but a poor reflection as in a mirror; then we shall see face to face. Now I know in part; then I shall know fully, even as I am fully known" 1 Corinthians 13:12 (NIV)

I certify that the report is my own work and all references used are accurately reported.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'A. J. M.', with a long horizontal line extending to the right from the end of the signature.

ABSTRACT

In South Africa change at the workplace is taking place against a backdrop of radical political and social reform. South Africa is home to a wide variety of languages, cultures and races. To prepare leaders for challenges associated with change and culture in their workplace, the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture requires further examination, and more so in the South African context.

Most studies about leadership and its effect on organisational culture focus on the leadership behaviour of leaders at the higher echelons of management. It appears that middle and senior management are considered not to have a meaningful impact on the culture of the business unit reporting to them. Yet, middle and senior management are often closer to the operation than top management, and as such, have the potential to create sub-cultures by leading through certain leadership behaviours. Hence, the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture within smaller business units forms the central focus of this study.

A two-pronged questionnaire was completed by 51 respondents, measuring their perceptions of organisational culture in their department through the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) and leadership behaviour of their senior manager through the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII (LBDQ XII). The results indicate significant correlations between leadership behaviour and organisational sub-culture on senior management level.

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Leaders are found in every walk of life. Sometimes they are in positions of authority, such as managers or presidents, but often they are not. Leaders influence people, change the environment and impact on the outcome of events. Much research has been undertaken to gain a better understanding of this influence process in order to answer the question: What makes a leader effective? To this effect, the definition of leadership by Yukl (2002:7) sheds light on the processes involved in leadership:

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives.

According to this definition, leadership is a process of influencing people to have a common vision of what needs to be done, and to facilitate the process required to achieve the vision.

It is also proposed that certain organisational cultures are more conducive to strengthening the facilitation process described in the leadership definition above. For instance, Hennessey (1998) discussed the link between leadership, the environment (organisational culture) and organisational change, and concluded that leadership assists in creating an environment where change is more or less likely to be effected.

Schein (1984) described organisational culture as patterns of basic assumptions that people in an organisation hold and share about their organisation. It follows that leaders need to change the patterns of basic assumptions held by the members of the organisation if the organisational culture is to be changed. For example, if these assumptions - which are implied in their shared feelings, beliefs and values, and embodied in symbols, processes, forms and some aspects of patterned group behaviour - hold that change is not something to be afraid of, then it is likely that the organisation will embrace change.

Although leadership and organisational culture are both extensively described in popular and scholarly literature, the leadership-culture connection has been researched to a limited extent only, especially so in South Africa. In contrast to the words of Schein (1985:327): "Leadership and culture are so central to understanding

organizations and making them effective that we cannot afford to be complacent about either one”, the interconnection between leadership and culture constructs remains more of an implicit theory than an empirical finding (Block, 2003).

The following tentative conclusions on leadership and culture underscore the reciprocal nature of the relationship between organisational culture and leadership:

- “The organisation’s culture develops in large part from its leadership while the culture of an organisation can also affect the development of its leadership” and “There is a constant interplay between culture and leadership” (Bass & Avolio, 1994:543).
- Specific leadership behaviours are associated with distinct cultural traits (Lok and Crawford, 1999).
- The behaviours of leaders influence the perceptions of organizational culture among followers (Block, 2003).
- Leaders use their knowledge of organizational culture to affect change (Brooks, 1996).

The degree of consistency in these conclusions is remarkable. Ogbonna & Harris (2000) argue that the impact of leadership on firm performance is mediated by organisational culture, which highlights the importance of understanding the relationship between leadership and organisational culture from a performance point of view.

To summarise: Authors seem to agree that leadership and culture influence each other. It is also proposed that certain leadership behaviours are conducive to a culture where change is embraced and harnessed. Additionally, there appears to be a link between leadership and organisational performance. As such, it is believed that a better understanding of the leadership-culture connection, and improved application of this knowledge by leaders, may lead to improved performance in the organisation, expressed through metrics such as profits, market share and productivity.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

Theory suggests that a leader may have significant influence on the culture of the organisation. Most studies focus on the relationship between leadership on an executive level and organisation culture on an organisational-wide level, for instance,

Sarros, Grey and Densten (2002) stated that only top leaders in an organisation are in a position to significantly influence organisational cultural identity and change.

In contrast, this study will be directed at the senior management level, and as such, will be used to show whether leadership approaches on this management level can be used as a predictor of organisational culture within departments.

The main objective of the present research study is to examine the relationship between the behaviour of leaders on a senior manager – or departmental - level, and organisational sub-culture within the department as perceived by employees. As such, the objective of this study is to answer the following question:

Is there a relationship between different leadership behaviours on senior management level, and the organisational sub-culture in departments within an organisation?

Subsequent to the main question stated above, the nature of the relationships will be investigated and discussed. Specifically, the leadership behaviour of senior managers will be reported along twelve different dimensions, and compared to seven dimensions of the prevailing culture within the various departments.

The study is expected to highlight the potential impact of leadership behaviour in creating a specific organisational sub-culture in the South African context.

It is believed that a better understanding of the leadership-culture connection, and improved application of this knowledge by leaders, may lead to improved performance in the organisation, expressed through metrics such as profits, market share and productivity.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The global business arena is undergoing major change everyday. Business is subjected to large scale socio-political, economical, environmental and technological change every day. To remain relevant and competitive in business today, leaders are required to embrace change and guide their followers through the process of adapting to, and grasping opportunities created by change. Typically, leaders are the initiators of change, and as such, leaders need to know what kind of organisational culture is more conducive to an acceptance and embrace of change, and consequently, what sort of leadership behaviour is required to facilitate the move towards such a change-embracing culture.

In South Africa change at the workplace is taking place against a backdrop of radical political and social reform. To further confuse the business leader of today, South Africa is home to a wide variety of languages, cultures and races. To prepare leaders for challenges associated with change and culture in their workplace, the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture requires further examination, and more so in the South African context.

Most studies about leadership and its effect on organisational culture focus on the leadership behaviour of executive management level, or certainly the higher echelons of leaders. It appears that middle and senior management are considered not to have a meaningful impact on the culture of the business unit reporting to them. Yet, middle and senior management are often closer to the operation than top management, and as such, have the potential to create sub-cultures by leading through certain leadership behaviours. Hence, the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture within smaller business units will form the central focus of this study.

This idea raises some questions about the potential effect of discordance between organisational sub-cultures and the overall or prevailing culture in a specific organisation. Closely related to this, is the effect of substantial differences in leadership behaviour on different levels within an organisation. A possible example of this phenomenon may be a highly productive sub-unit within a largely bureaucratic environment, or vice versa. Although the potential manifestations and effects of substantially different sub-cultures within a broader culture is not the subject of this study, it remains an interesting sub-field of this text. It is important to note that leadership behaviour is but one of many leadership variables, as can be seen in **Figure 1**, which depicts the causal relationships among the primary types of leadership variables.

Situational variables to consider in the present study of leadership and organisational culture are related to the positioning of the subject company, which is a major international automotive manufacturing company with its origins and headquarters in Japan. The local subsidiary, previously privately owned, is now undergoing rapid expansion and is projecting dramatic market growth internationally and locally. The prevailing organisational culture of the local subsidiary is therefore subjected to various national cultural influences, including the Japanese professional culture (with a high premium being placed on work ethic and loyalty to the company), the African culture (such as "ubuntu", or togetherness), and the western culture as

carried by English and Afrikaans speaking employees (characterised by a high emphasis on individualism).

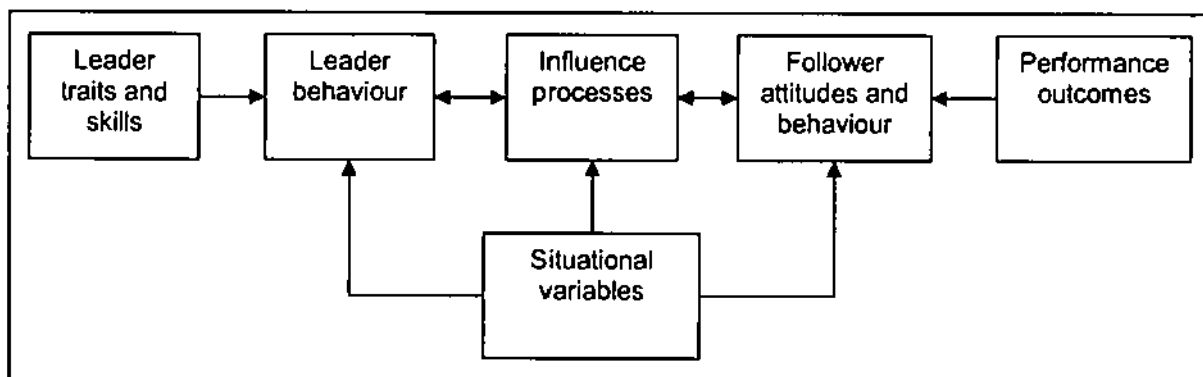


Figure 1: Causal Relationships among Primary Types of Leadership Variables

Source: Yukl, 2003:11

Although the situational variables, such as the cultural backdrop (African, Japanese, Western/European), certainly impacts on the sub-cultures formed in each department under study, the specific effects thereof is not a subject of this study. Instead this study focuses on the impact of the leadership behaviour of senior managers on the organisational sub-culture within their departments.

1.4 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The focus of this study is restricted to the attitudes and perceptions of employees of one specific company at a particular point in time. The company will be undergoing major organisational change at the time of the study, which raises questions about the extent to which findings can be generalised to other South African companies, and even to different departments within the same company. Sub-systems, with significantly different organisational sub-cultures may also exist within the subject departments, which will not be uncovered in this study.

Notwithstanding the limitations mentioned, the findings of this study is expected to provide insight into the mechanics of the connection between leadership and culture, and as such, is expected to provide direction in the challenges associated with leadership in business today.

Although the findings is expected to suggest possible causal relationships between dimensions of leadership behaviour and organisational culture, the explanation of the underlying causes of these phenomena will not be attempted in this study. This aspect could be the focus of future studies.

In this study, reference is made to the relationship between different leadership behaviours and performance, and the potential effect of specific organisational cultures on operational excellence. The reason for these references is to highlight the importance of the leadership-culture connection in achieving a competitive position, but will not be analysed.

It is assumed that culture and leadership style can be measured accurately through the use of surveys, and that participants are able and willing to provide honest answers to questions posed.

Finally, it is assumed that participants have a common understanding of the words or terms used to describe different aspects of organisational culture and leadership behaviour.

1.5 OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

This research report is presented in chapter format. Chapter 1 provides a comprehensive orientation of the study, including sections on the purpose of the study, importance of the study, and the boundaries of the study. Section 1.3 dealt with the problem statement, with reference to the main question of the study: "Is there a relationship between different leadership behaviours on senior management level, and the organisational sub-culture in departments within an organisation?"

Chapter 2 delves into the relevant body of knowledge on leadership and organisational culture in distinct sections. The leadership – culture connection is explored through the discussion of research related to mechanisms of influencing culture, with specific reference of the effect of organisational growth stages on culture.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology followed with regards to data collection, data analysis and research instruments. The study will be conducted in the form of a survey, utilising and combining two research questionnaires. Leadership will be measured by administering the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire Form XII (LBDQ XII), and the organisational sub-culture will be determined by using the Organisational Culture Profile (OCP).

The results of the administered survey are presented in Chapter 4. The methods of data analysis is explained, and relationships are discussed by means of descriptive statistics (mean values, standard deviations) for leadership behaviour dimensions and organisational culture dimensions. Finally, correlation results between leadership

behaviour and organisational culture, as calculated with the Spearman rank-order correlation method, are presented and discussed.

Chapter 5 contains discussions, conclusions and recommendations based on the research results in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the discussion of topics related to leadership behaviour, organisational culture and the leadership-culture connection. Topics are selected based on their relevance to the present study.

It is important to first set the boundaries as to what leadership is and what it is not. Hence, leadership theories and definitions are discussed at length in section 2.2 , followed by a comparison between leadership and management. The manifestation of leadership in the organisation is explained in terms of influence processes, and finally the importance of leadership is portrayed with regards to performance and operational excellence.

Culture is delineated in section 2.3 , which starts off with some broad conclusions from research literature. This is followed by a discussion about the differences and similarities between organisational culture and climate and the links between culture and values. The importance of studying organisational culture is described in terms of culture's impact on performance and organisational change.

The discussion turns to the Leadership-Culture connection in section 2.4 , once again considering the results and conclusions of previous studies. The mechanisms of influencing organisational culture are presented, before the discussion touches upon the potential moderating effects of the growth stage of an organisation on leadership and organisational culture.

Section 2.5 summarises the discussion in this chapter.

2.2 LEADERSHIP

2.2.1 *Leadership Theories*

The study of leadership over the past century progressed through various paradigms (Yukl, 2002; Moorhead & Griffin, 1995; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996), which is briefly described below:

The Trait approach - Initial research emphasized attributes or traits of leaders, such as personality, values, skills and motives, under the assumption that some

people are natural born leaders. Researchers in this paradigm attempted to compile a list of universal traits with which to predict future leaders. Hundreds of trait studies were undertaken in the 1930-1940's to uncover the set of skills that predicts good leaders.

However, Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 leadership trait studies undertaken from 1904 to 1948, and reported that he could not support the basic premise of the trait approach that a person must possess a specific set of traits in order to become an effective leader, and found no evidence of a universal set of leadership traits (Stogdill, 1974).

The Behaviour approach – In the early 1950's, when it became apparent that different leaders displayed a wide array of often contrasting traits, researchers started to study what leaders actually do every day, which was the start of the leadership behaviour paradigm. Under this paradigm, researchers examined how leaders and managers spend their time, with specific focus on typical patterns of activities, responsibilities and functions. Therefore, the processes of influencing others and facilitating efforts of employees or followers, are seated mainly in the behaviour of the leader.

This influence process through behaviour of the leader is highlighted in most definitions of leadership. Rost (1991:102) proposes the following definition for leadership:

Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.

The definition of leadership developed by Yukl (2002:7) also highlights the influence process so central to leadership:

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives.

Several key characteristics of leadership are highlighted in both the Yukl and Rost leadership definitions. The influence process underlying leadership is multidirectional between leaders and followers. Followers are depicted as active contributors in the influence relationship, although the leader is bound to exert more influence than followers. Importantly, both leaders and followers are interested in effecting real change and develop mutual purposes around which they build a common mission.

Research showed that leadership effectiveness depends largely on how well a leader resolves role conflict, balances demands, overcomes obstacles and seizes opportunities (Fleishman, 1953; Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Stogdill, 1963, Yukl, 2003).

The present study will be making use of instruments developed in the leadership behaviour paradigm, which was dominated by the influence of early research conducted at the Ohio State University (Stogdill, 1963). Although this paradigm commenced in the 1950's, the behavioural approach to the understanding of leadership remains a current field of study. In addition to this, research instruments developed in the Ohio State University studies are still extensively used to describe and measure leadership influences (multiple examples of current studies exist, which are mentioned in sub-section 3.3.2).

Initial research resulted in a questionnaire of 150 items that appeared to be good examples of important leadership functions (Stogdill, 1963). Factor analysis of the questionnaire responses indicated that leaders' behaviour is perceived primarily in two broadly defined categories (Yukl, 2002:50):

Consideration: The leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, finding time to listen to subordinates' problems, backing up or going to bat for a subordinate, consulting with subordinates on important matters, being willing to accept subordinate suggestions, and treating a subordinate as an equal.

Initiating Structure: The leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group's formal goals. Examples include criticizing poor work, emphasizing the importance of meeting deadlines, assigning subordinates to tasks, maintaining definite standards of performance, asking subordinates to follow standard procedures, offering new approaches to problems, and coordinating the activities of different subordinates.

The relative application of these behaviours translates into different leadership approaches. Some leaders are rated high on both consideration and initiating behaviour, high on one and low on the other, or low on both (which may indicate lack of leadership). Research has shown that effective leaders display a measure of task-oriented behaviour (initiating structure behaviour), but not at the expense of solid relations (consideration behaviour) with colleagues and subordinates (Katz & Kahn, 1952; Likert 1961).

Eventually, the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire Form XII (LBDQ XII) was developed to measure leadership behaviour, in which the scope of consideration and initiating structure was narrowed, and ten additional scales were added (Stogdill, Goode & Day, 1962).

Descriptive studies in the leadership behaviour approach suggest that complementary behaviours are woven together into a complex tapestry such that the whole is greater than the parts (Kaplan, 1986). This indicates that it is not advisable to attempt to examine behaviours individually in an effort to describe leader effectiveness, but rather to examine how leaders use patterns of specific behaviours to influence followers to facilitate the achievement of their goals.

According to Yukl (2003), research on the relationship between leadership behaviour and leader effectiveness tended to focus on the dyadic processes on a micro level perspective. In practise, effective leaders seek to influence people by appealing to ideological values, and to support followers in the process of adapting and embracing change in fast-paced and complex world. These aspects of leadership behaviour are described in leadership theories of transformational or integrative leadership, discussed later in this section.

The Power-Influence approach - This approach built on the behaviour approach by examining the influence processes between leaders and others. Under this paradigm, leadership effectiveness is examined in terms of the type and magnitude of power possessed and used by the leader in the influence process. Exponents of this approach are Davis (1968), Kelman (1958), Likert (1967) and Pettigrew (1972).

The theory of participative leadership, which is concerned with power sharing and empowerment of followers, branched from the power-influence approach, and is contrasted with autocratic leadership. Effective leaders were shown to make more use of participative leadership behaviour (Likert, 1967).

The Situational Leadership approach – In contrast to the previous leader-centered approaches, the contextual factors (situation) that influence leadership processes were examined in the situational leadership approach. The basis of this approach is that different leadership attributes will be effective in different situations (Evans, 1970; Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Kerr & Jermier, 1978).

The Integrative approach (Transformational leadership) - The latest movement in leadership studies includes the consideration of more than one variable in an

integrative approach, such as the theory of transformational leadership. Bass (1985) described leadership behaviour in terms of Transformational and Transactional behaviour, which are said to be distinct but not mutually exclusive processes in the sense that they can be, and are, employed in combination by effective leaders. Newer versions of transformational leadership theory include three categories of behaviours (Bass & Avolio, 1994):

Transformational Leadership Behaviours are used to transform and motivate followers by (1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization, and (3) activating their higher-order needs. Transformational leaders have been characterised by four separate components or characteristics denoted as the 4 i's of transformational leadership. These are 'idealised influence', 'individualised consideration', 'inspirational motivation' and 'intellectual stimulation'. Transformational leadership predicts followers' emotional attachment to the leader and emotional and motivational arousal of followers as a consequence of the leader's behaviour.

Transactional Leadership Behaviours entails an exchange between leader and follower. Leaders reward followers (such as salary increases or prestige) when they act according to their leader's wishes. Under transactional leadership, it is believed that when the job and the environment of the follower fail to provide the necessary motivation, direction and satisfaction, the leader, through his or her behaviour, will be effective by compensating for the deficiencies. The leader determines the performance criteria (what is expected from subordinates), and the reward (what they receive in return).

The third category is called *Laizzes-faire Behaviours*, which is best described as the absence of effective leadership, where indifference about the task and the subordinates are shown. Leaders in this category avoid decision making, and are mostly inactive.

The Transformational Leadership typology is described in terms of the effect on subordinates in a study by Arnold, Barling and Kelloway (2001), who found the levels of trust, commitment and team efficacy to be significantly higher under transformational leadership than under perceptions of an iron cage of control, which can be compared to a transactional leadership style.

The Integrative approach (Principle-centered leadership) – Covey (2004) describes the required change in paradigm from the Industrial Age, where workers

were viewed as 'things' – a one-dimensional view of humans, which resulted in control and close supervision of workers – to the Age of the Knowledge Worker, where humans are viewed as four-dimensional (body, mind, heart and spirit).

In the Industrial Age paradigm, people face increasing pressure to produce more for less in an extremely complex world, yet they are not allowed to make use of all their talents, intelligence and abilities. This causes significant pain and disillusionment, which manifest in people's inability to focus on, and execute their highest priorities (Covey, 2004).

Despite all the technological and innovative gains of the current age, most people are not thriving in their workplace. Instead of being fulfilled and excited, people are frustrated, bogged down and distracted. The failure of organisations to tap into the full potential, talents and intelligence of the workforce, leads to massive direct and indirect costs to the company and the individual (Covey, 2004).

As a solution to the pain and loss described above, Covey (2004) presents the 8th Habit, which is to 'Find Your Voice and Inspire Others to Find Theirs'. The underlying paradigm of the 8th Habit is the 'Whole-person'-view of human nature. Instead of viewing humans as one-dimensional 'things', needing to be motivated and controlled, humans are four-dimensional as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: The Whole-person paradigm

Whole-person dimension	Needs	Underlying principle	Manifestation
Body	To live	Survival	Discipline
Mind	To learn	Growth and development	Vision
Heart	To love	Relationships	Passion
Spirit	To leave a legacy	Meaning and contribution	Conscience

Adapted from Covey (2004)

In this whole person paradigm, the role of a leader changes dramatically. As opposed to the trait paradigm, where the attributes and skills of the leader is central to the influence process, and the behaviour approach, where the style and actions of the leader is central to the influence process, the whole person paradigm seeks to change the way people see themselves:

Leadership is communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves (Covey, 2004:98).

Covey (2004) states that this is the type of leadership that truly endures all sorts of changes and challenges, through communicating the worth and potential of others so

clearly that they come to see it in themselves, thereby setting in motion the process of 'seeing', 'doing' and 'becoming'.

2.2.2 Leadership versus Management

Before continuing the discussion of leadership any further, it is appropriate to highlight the relationship between management and leadership – leadership is conceptually different to management (Sarros, Gray & Densten, 2002).

There is a large body of literature on management topics, such as management practices, management behaviour, - functions, - roles and - skills. The question is: which of these topics are relevant to the current study of the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture? Intuitively, it is obvious that a person can be leading without being a manager; likewise a manager is not always a leader. The controversy in defining management and leadership lies in the degree of overlap between leadership and management (Yukl, 2002).

Some authors hold that management and leadership cannot be practised by the same person, due to incompatible values and personalities. One extreme example of this view that managers cannot be leaders and vice versa, is offered by Zaleznik (1992), who claims that managers value control and order, and are eager to solve, or get rid of problems as quickly as possible. Leaders on the other hand, are likely to tolerate ambiguity, chaos and lack of structure, and strive to understand problems completely before attempting to solve them. As a result of the distinct approaches required to effectively manage or lead, the same person, it is claimed, cannot be both manager and leader.

Kotter (1990) echoes this by saying that managers work hard at ensuring the organisation operates efficiently and effectively, and tend to maintain the status quo through managerial processes such as planning, budgeting, organising, staffing, controlling and problem solving, all of which aim to ensure a degree of consistency and order. Good leaders, on the other hand, are proactive, provocative and prescient, and produce adaptive and constructive change through the provision of direction, which is achieved through the establishment of a corporate vision. Alignment of employees and other shareholders is achieved through focussed and continuous communication. Workers are inspired and motivated through a sense of togetherness in terms of shared direction and common goals.

Moorhead & Griffin (1995: 296) stress the point that “management and leadership is not the same thing”. According to them, management is a formal process, relying on position power to influence people, whilst leadership finds its roots from social influence processes.

As can be seen in the preceding discussion, many authors view management and leadership as mutually exclusive. In contrast, a large body of literature exists to the view that leading and managing are distinct processes, which can take place in, or originate from the same person (Bass, 1994; Mintzberg, 1973).

In support of this view, Ivancevich & Matteson (1996) describes leadership as a narrower concept than management in the sense that leading is part of management, whilst leaders are not always required to perform managerial roles or functions, such as planning, organizing and controlling. As such, leadership is considered to be a sub-topic of the body of management literature.

To summarise this discussion, a concise summary of the differences between leadership and management is provided in *Table 2*.

Table 2: Leadership versus Management

Leadership	<>	Management
People	<>	Things
Spontaneity, serendipity	<>	Structure
Release, empowerment	<>	Control
Effectiveness	<>	Efficiency
Programmer	<>	Program
Investment	<>	Expense
Principles	<>	Techniques
Transformation	<>	Transaction
Principle-centered power	<>	Utility
Discernment	<>	Measurement
Doing the right things	<>	Doing things right
Direction	<>	Speed
Top line	<>	Bottom line
Purposes	<>	Methods
Principles	<>	Practices
On the systems	<>	In the systems
"Is the ladder against the right wall?"	<>	Climbing the ladder fast

Adapted from Covey (2004)

For the purpose of this study, research and literature will only be considered and evaluated insofar its contribution to the field of leadership. Material exclusively related to management will be omitted.

2.2.3 Leadership Influence Processes

This study is aimed at examining the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture. Organisational culture resides in people, hence the pertinent question is: How does leadership behaviour influence followers, and as an indirect result, the culture of the organisation? The specific leadership influence processes are consequently discussed in this section.

Yukl (2002) refers to influence as the essence of leadership. Moorhead and Griffin (1995) call it the cornerstone of leadership processes. This implies that, although various internal and external factors have a certain impact on the nature and/or degree of the outcome, an influence process is a prerequisite for leadership.

Moorhead & Griffin (1995: 296) states that "leadership stems from social influence processes", as opposed to management, which relies exclusively on formal position power to influence or coerce others. As such, leadership is limited to non-coercive influence processes, and excludes the use of force.

Leaders can harness various types of power in exerting influence over followers, therefore it is worthwhile to mention different types of power in organizations in terms of power bases (Moorhead & Griffin: 1995; Yukl: 2002):

- Position power resides in a person's position, and is excluded from most definitions of leadership:
 - Legitimate power, related to one's position;
 - Reward power, related to the extent to which a person controls rewards valued by another;
 - Coercive power, related to someone's ability to punish others;
 - Information power, related to information 'owned' by the position in the company;
 - Ecological power, related to the ability to control the physical environment.

- Personal power resides in the person, and is generally included in definitions of leadership:
 - Expert power, related to knowledge or information a person possesses;
 - Referent power, related to influence or power through identification, including trust, similarity, affection and willingness to follow.

Yukl (2002) presented eleven proactive influence tactics used by leaders in organizations to influence colleagues and followers, which is presented in **Table 3**.

Table 3: Proactive influence tactics

Influence Tactic	Description
Rational Persuasion	The agent uses logical arguments and factual evidence to show a proposal or request is feasible and relevant for attaining important task objectives
Apprising	The agent explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit the target personally or help advance the person's career
Inspirational Appeals	The agent makes an appeal to values and ideals or seeks to arouse the target person's emotions to gain commitment for a request or proposal
Consultation	The agent encourages the target to suggest improvements in a proposal, or to help plan an activity or change for which the target person's support or assistance are desired
Exchange	The agent offers an incentive, suggests an exchange of favours, or indicate willingness to reciprocate at a later time if the target will do what the agent requests
Collaboration	The agent offers to provide relevant resources and assistance if the target will carry out a request or approve a proposed change
Personal Appeals	The agent asks the target to carry out a request or support a proposal out of friendship, or asks a personal favor before saying what it is
Ingratiation	The agent uses praise and flattery before or during an influence attempt or expresses confidence in the target's ability to carry out a difficult request
Legitimizing Tactics	The agent seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request or to verify authority to make it by referring to rules, formal policies, or official documents
Pressure	The agent uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target person
Coalition Tactics	The agent seeks the aid of others to persuade the target to do something or uses the support of others as a reason for the target to agree

Source: Yukl (2002)

These influence tactics may be used on its own or in combination by leaders to motivate someone to support some initiative or proposal. The success of the influence process depends largely on which tactics are selected, as well as the sequence in which they are used. The choice of influence tactics depends to a large extent on whether the target person is a subordinate, peer, or superior.

Many of the influence tactics described in this section are implicitly defined in some of the factors of leadership behaviour derived from the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire Form XII, and is strongly linked to the factor of Persuasiveness, which is described as “using persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions” (Stogdill, 1963:3).

2.2.4 Leadership and Performance

Are certain leadership behaviours or combinations of leadership behaviours more likely to lead to increased individual and organisational performance than others? This section highlights the importance of leadership as a predictor of individual and organisational performance, which is related to the influence processes described in the previous section.

According to Ivancevich & Matteson (1996:152), “empirical evidence of the magnitude of the effects of leadership on performance is modest”. Several reasons are offered for this observation. One possible reason is that leaders are similar in background and qualifications, and tend to select and appoint leaders similar to themselves, which leads to sustained, rather than sudden increases in performance.

Another potential reason is the effect of bureaucracy (the process of approval, review, modifications etc.), which reduces and even nullifies the effect a leader may have had on performance, if given complete freedom of decision making.

Additionally, many factors are external to the control sphere of the leader, such as the general state of the economy, weather, labour markets and politics, which may render the effect of the leader’s efforts to lower than expected performance.

In contrast to the above, the effect of leadership on individual performance was the subject of studies conducted by most notably Densten (2002) and Bass and Avolio (1994), who empirically linked inspirational motivation (which is a construct related to transformational leadership) with extra effort and project success. According to these studies, image-based inspirational motivation should be used more frequently to

encourage followers towards extra effort. Leaders can achieve this by using image-rich words such as 'explore', 'discover', 'achievement', and 'frontier', which may lead to improved overall performance.

Lok (2004) holds that leadership can play a significant role towards success or failure of an organisation, specifically insofar the relationship between leadership behaviours, motivation and employee performance. Once again, transformational leadership attributes, such as empowerment and clear vision, are sited as essential ingredients for successfully motivating employees towards greater effort and performance (Lok, 2004; Bass, 1990).

Yousef (2002) studied the mediating effect of organisational commitment on the relationships between leadership behaviour, job satisfaction and performance. The results suggest that those who perceive their leaders as behaving in a consultative and participative manner, are more likely to be committed to the organisation, are more satisfied with their jobs, and ultimately perform better than followers of leaders who display dictatorial or authoritative behaviour.

Although the relationship between leadership behaviour and individual and organisation performance is not the focus of this study, it is worthwhile to consider the notion that leadership behaviour may have a significant impact on the performance of followers, and hence, the organisation as a whole.

2.3 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

2.3.1 Organisational Culture defined

Yukl (2002) describes organisational culture as the shared values and beliefs of employees about the activities of the organisation and about interpersonal relationships. This view of culture in the organisation emphasise both the roots of culture (values and beliefs) as well as the outcome of culture (activities and relationships).

In terms of viewing organisational culture as something that can be changed or influenced by leaders, the work of Schein (1984) is especially useful; in this, culture is described as patterns of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by some grouping of people, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, is to be taught to new members of the group as the appropriate way to

perceive, think, and feel about the specific problems. These assumptions are implied in their shared feelings, beliefs and values and embodied in symbols, processes, forms and some aspects of patterned group behaviour.

Schein (1984) uses three levels to distinguish between manifestations of organisational culture:

1. Basic underlying assumptions – these are often unconscious, invisible assumptions which drives perceptions, values and behaviour;
2. Values – also invisible concepts or ideas held by individuals;
3. Observable manifestations – also called 'artefacts', things that can be seen and felt, such as dress-code, physical office layout and decorations, which is driven by the underlying assumptions and values of individuals.

Groeschl and Doherty (2000) use the layers of an onion as metaphor to describe the three fundamental levels at which culture manifests itself, as shown in *Figure 2*.

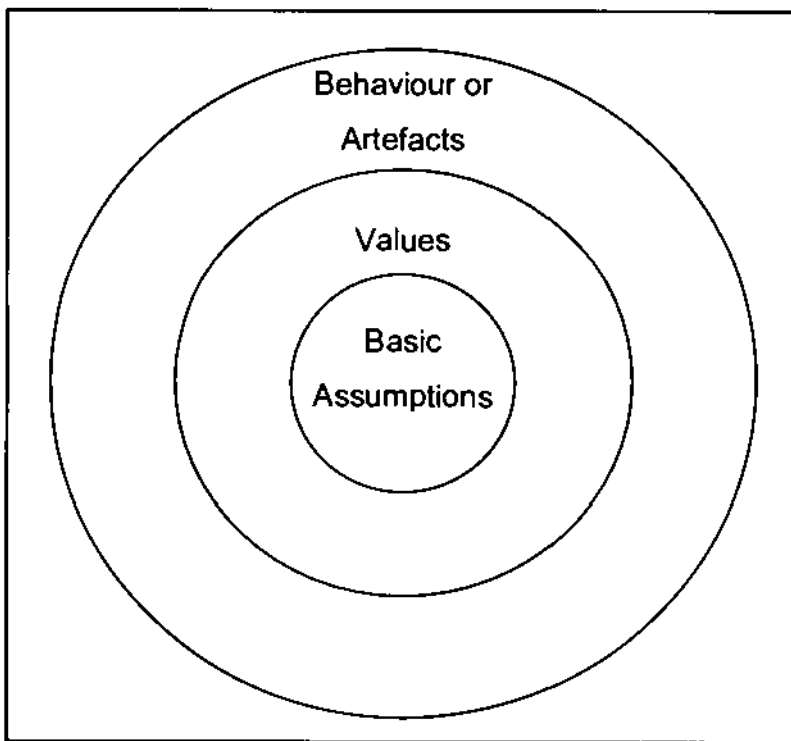


Figure 2: Culture as Layers of an Onion

Adapted from Groeschl & Doherty (2000)

2.3.2 The relationship between national culture and organisational culture

The conceptualisations of organisational culture referenced in this chapter all indicate the shared value systems of employees as central to the culture of the

organisation. These shared value systems are influenced, amongst other factors, by every employee's individual value system, which, inter alia, is influenced by the prevailing culture and norms of the broader society. This inter-relatedness between national culture and organisational culture is depicted in *Figure 3*.

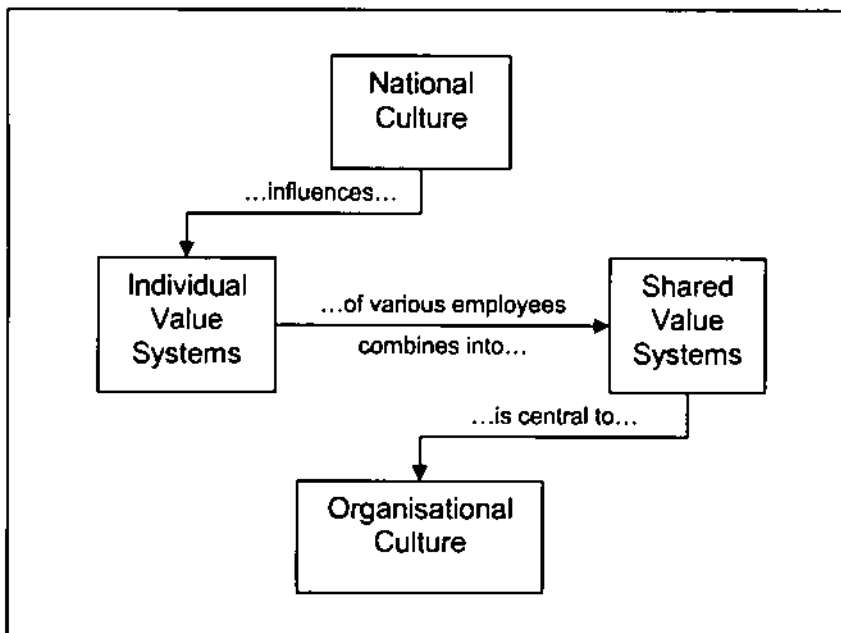


Figure 3: Relationship between National Culture and Organisational Culture

To illuminate this relationship between national and organisational culture, the discussion will now briefly turn towards national culture. National culture is described by Hofstede (1980) in terms of four dimensions:

The first dimension of '**Power distance**' relates to how a society deals with the mental and physical inequality between people. A society that allows such inequalities to grow into unequal power and wealth will be referred to as a high power distance culture. The second dimension, namely '**Individualism**', is measured along a continuum from individualistic (high premium on individual performance, individual decision making and individual reward) to collectivist (the group decides, the group performs and the group is rewarded). Thirdly '**Uncertainty avoidance**' relates to the premium placed by members of society on security on the one end of the scale (high uncertainty avoidance) and risk-taking (low uncertainty avoidance) on the other. The fourth dimension, called '**Gender egalitarianism**' considers the relationship between work roles and gender. Masculine cultures are characterised by sharply differentiated sex roles, achievement and power plays. Little differentiation is made between males and females in the same job in more feminine cultures.

Despite suggestions of limitations in the work done by Hofstede, his work is widely acknowledged, with 1063 direct references in journals from 1980 to 1983 and 61 replicative studies (Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999).

Although national cultures will not be measured in this study, the potential influence of national cultural diversity - as found in South Africa, and more specifically within the subject company - on organisational culture should be noted. Furthermore, national culture also impacts on leadership, as described by Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders (1990), who linked leadership practices with underlying values and assumptions in the workplace, which, as shown above, is influenced by national culture.

2.3.3 Organisational Culture in Terms of the Transformational and Transactional Leadership Model

Bass and Avolio (1994) strongly emphasize the link between organisational culture and leadership by describing organisational culture in terms of the influence of the leadership style on the formation of different ways of behaving in an organisation. According to this model an organisation is depicted in terms of the organisational culture mixture between transformational culture, transactional culture and the absence of both (Laizzes faire culture).

In this model of Transformational and Transactional Culture, the culture of an organisation is measured through the Organizational Description Questionnaire (ODQ), which generates two scores – the transactional culture score (TA) and the transformational culture score (TA). This provides a picture of the prevailing leadership and culture in an organisation, and can be used to determine strategies to change the organisational culture towards an idealised organisational culture, which should be determined by the leadership of an organisation.

Different combinations of culture are derived as depicted in **Table 4**, with the majority of organisations somewhere between loosely guided (low in transactional culture, moderate in transformational culture), coasting (moderate in both transactional and transformational culture) or contractual (high in transactional and low in transformational culture).

Table 4: A Typology of Transformational and Transactional Organisational Cultures

Transformational Score (TF)	High	Predominantly Transformational	Moderately Transformational	High Contrast
	Moderate	Loosely Guided	Coasting	Moderately Contractual
	Low	Garbage Can	Pedestrian	Predominantly Contractual
		Low	Moderate	High
		Transactional Score (TA)		

Adapted from Bass & Avolio (1994)

2.3.4 Culture versus Climate

Much has been written about the similarities and differences between culture and climate. Despite the vast volume of literature on climate, no generally accepted definition exists that clearly distinguishes the construct of climate from culture (Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999). According to Denison (1990) the debate is not so much about what to study as how to study it. Climate researchers are concerned with how specific organisational settings relate to universal dimensions and principles. Culture researchers are studying the basic values and assumptions that individual members of organizations attach to the social systems they are part of, as well as the relevant importance this meaning has for the functioning of the organization (Denison, 1990).

Organisational climate is conceptualised through shared perceptions, whereas organisational culture is rooted in the shared assumptions of members of the organisation. Most authors add values and beliefs to the cultural roots, resulting in

culture being described as rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by employees about their company and leadership. Through socialisation and interaction, a virtual world is created in the workplace, which is contained both in individuals and the collective organisation (Denison, 1990; Lewis, 1992; Schein, 1984).

Climate is perceived to be a more temporal phenomenon than culture, with climate being subjected to direct control of leaders or managers. Climate is mostly limited to the aspects of the social environment that members can consciously perceive (Denison, 1990). This leads to the view that climate is more easily changed or adapted to suit a specific set of conditions or influences than is the case with organisational culture, which is rooted in values, beliefs and assumptions. Organisational culture is viewed to be less adaptable than organisational climate, thus organisational culture will be expected to be more stable and less subject to short term fads.

A study conducted on the Australian Victorian Police by Wallace, Hunt and Richard (1999) suggests the existence of inter-relationships between climate, culture and managerial values, which according to Wallace et al (1999) is a tentative indication that climate and culture may not be entirely discrete constructs.

Wallace et al (1999) hold that climate is held to be a perception of how an organisation deals with its members and environment. As such, climate develops mainly from internal management influence. By contrast, organisational culture is shaped through a wide array of internal and external factors, often outside the control span of managers and leaders of the organisation. However, this view appears to be inconsistent to those of other authors when considering the widely accepted definition of organisational culture as defined to be rooted in values, beliefs and assumptions (Schein, 1984), which can to a significant extent be influenced by leaders (Denison, 1990).

In the light of these results it appears as if the debate between culture and climate does little to increase managers' understanding of these two closely related concepts. For the purpose of this study, culture will include in broad terms all the values, beliefs and assumptions held by employees. Climate is viewed as the narrower construct when compared to culture, related to those aspects of culture that are visible manifestations of the perceptions of humans in the organisational setting.

In the discussion about organisational culture, 'values' is consistently identified as a key variable in the study of culture. The next section unpacks the relationship between culture and values.

2.3.5 Culture and Values

Hofstede (1980) describes values as consisting of broad non-specific feelings of good and evil, beauty and ugliness, rationality and irrationality, and is believed to be central to culture. Values themselves cannot be observed directly, but can only be inferred from their manifestations through behaviour of the members of the group under study. To understand the differentiation between the observable behaviours (the visible component of culture) and the unseen components of culture (assumptions, beliefs and values), the analogy of an iceberg is useful (Wallace et al, 1999):

- The tip of the iceberg: visible, observed behaviour and artefacts;
- The invisible bulk of the iceberg: the underlying assumptions, values and beliefs.

From the above, values are important drivers of human behaviour. Values are concepts or ideas that are important to an individual, which lead to specific behaviour patterns. It can be said that a constant interplay between different value systems exists in each individual. Each person tends to display behaviour consistent with values derived from various, sometimes opposing value systems and experiences:

- Value systems and experiences on a personal level - values taught and observed in family life, education and religion;
- Value systems on organisational level – based on experiences in the organisation; and
- Value systems on a national level – as contained in Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of 'power distance', 'individualism', 'uncertainty avoidance' and 'masculinity'.

Hofstede (1980) differentiates between the value components of culture at the occupational, organisational and national level. This is important towards the understanding of values from different levels merging in the organisational setting. In other words, manifestation of values in the behaviour of members of a specific group is a mixture of values from various aspects of each individual member's background.

To make sense of these potentially opposing value systems on an individual level (within the same person), and on a collective level (the level of congruence between value systems of more than one person), a number of studies were aimed at

constructing value dimensions (Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999; Flowers and Hughes, 1978). Most notably, Flowers and Hughes developed a set of 12 values portrayed in the organisational setting:

- Power
- Elitism
- Reward
- Effectiveness
- Efficiency
- Economy
- Fairness
- Teamwork
- Law and Order
- Defence
- Competitiveness
- Opportunity

Leaders should be conscious of the 'values' portrayed by their behaviour. For example: a leader may be trying to improve teamwork, but if followers infer a sense of elitism and defence from the leader's behaviour, the teamwork effort will probably be unsuccessful.

The notion of 'values' being one of the building blocks, or layers, of organisational culture, renders it particularly relevant to the present study. Leaders are likely to portray a specific set of values, as manifested through their behaviour. The extent of alignment between leaders' and followers' values may determine the success or failure of a specific leadership initiative.

2.3.6 Culture and Performance

Peters and Waterman (1982) provide strong arguments in support of organisational culture as a potential lever in gaining competitive advantage, when they conclude that a strong culture is the key to corporate success (here, 'strong culture' implies a culture accepted and supported by the majority of the group). As a result of this point of view,

according to Lewis (1996), many companies have embarked on drives to change their corporate culture towards a quest for excellence. Unfortunately, many companies were not even sure what it was they wanted to change in their cultures. As a result, many of these culture change drives were considered failures, which were explained away by stating that changing an organisation's culture is a time consuming process, and success cannot be expected on the short term (Lewis, 1996).

Several authors warn against using organisational culture as a tool to improve performance, and states that organisational culture is often reduced to a means to control members of the organisation (Lewis, 1996). Denison (2005b) infers that research on the links between culture and performance is often intended to legitimate the direct managerial control of organisational cultures.

In contrast to the words of caution above, a performance enhancing culture may not be considered exploitation of human capital in most instances. Increased performance is mostly achieved through increased effort by the members, or better utilisation of their skills and talents. If improved performance is achieved only by working harder, without increasing the sense of purpose and worth of the members of the organisation, it is probably true to say that organisational culture is reduced to a method of control. This type of exploitation is unlikely to be sustainable in any event. Instead, the creation of an organisational culture where members of the organisation feel comfortable to utilise their skills and talents to the best of their ability, can hardly be seen as an effort to exploit people to their detriment. It seems that the cautionary views described above, may be overly protective.

2.3.7 Culture and Organisational Change

To further stress the relevance of organisational culture in business today, it is worthwhile to consider the relationship between culture and change in the organisation.

Denison (1990) highlights the merits of using culture as a lever for driving organisational change. According to him, common misconceptions of organisational culture, exacerbated by the absence of a unanimous, all-encompassing definition of organisational culture led to culture as a lever to influence change processes often being viewed as something that is nice to have, hence not receiving high priority. To make organisational culture relevant to the change process, five important lessons should be noted:

- Taking the native's point of view seriously – to provide leverage for organisational change, conclusions from research must be presented in a form that can be understood by members of the organisation (the natives).
- Creating a systems perspective – do not fall in the trap of viewing culture as distinct divisions or levels (artefacts, espoused values, assumptions), but rather view culture as linked between underlying assumptions, values, behaviour and visible manifestations.
- Providing a comparative benchmark, but acknowledging uniqueness – it seems to be common belief that all companies are unique in terms of culture, which leads managers to think that lessons learned and research conclusions reached in other organisations, do not apply to their organisation. The point is made that a comparative approach to studying culture is viable, as well as valuable when the purpose is to promote change.
- Focus on performance implications – most managers and executives are highly instrumental (transactional approach of punishment and rewards) and narrowly focussed in their drive towards better results. These managers must be shown that a focus on organisational culture could provide a strong lever for increased performance.
- Highlighting symbols and contradictions – members of the organisation need to understand that within the same organisation, contradictions exist, and symbols will often be understood differently by different parties.

Denison (1990) continues his discussion of organisational culture as a lever for change, by proposing a model which measures the culture of an organisation or group in terms of four cultural traits:

- Involvement, measured by indexes of empowerment, team orientation and capability development;
- Consistency, measured by indexes of core values, agreement, coordination and integration;
- Adaptability, measured by indexes of creating change, customer focus and organisational learning; and
- Mission, measured by indexes of strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision.

The Denison model forms the base for a diagnostic process that allows these traits to be measured, and is considered to be a valuable tool to suggest some clear links to action in creating a culture suitable for driving organisational change. The ability to adapt to change, or to create change, is especially relevant in terms of the fast-paced change experienced in the world today. It follows that an organisation which succeeded in creating an organisational culture in which members are able to embrace, and even create change, may well experience a competitive advantage linked to the ability to implement change initiatives speedily, successfully, and even happily.

2.3.8 Methods for Measuring Organisational Culture

Authors disagree about the most suitable method for measuring organisational culture. The survey method of measuring organisational culture is met with resistance from various researchers. In a study by Locatelli and West (1996), it was argued that the research of culture is often limited to interpretation of local data for the wider population – seemingly, the authors are uncomfortable with the generalisation of sample results to the wider population. Lewis (1996) went further by stating that research techniques in the study of culture invariably include a study of behaviour, and argues that behaviour is not always a good indicator of values and assumptions, and that the interpretation of behaviour is not always as simplistic as researchers would make it to be.

Authors such as Wallach (1983) proposed a culture profile approach, or a culture index, which is closely related to a survey approach. However, when considering the work of Schein (1984, 1985), which stated that culture is based on the assumptions and beliefs held by individuals, and that such assumptions are often unconscious, it is doubtful whether questionnaires or surveys alone will uncover culture (Lewis, 1996).

Pettigrew (1979) held that culture finds manifestation in myths, stories, legends, rituals, ideologies and symbols. According to Louis (1981), culture should be viewed as a whole by considering all components, including the history of how it evolved, current manifestations and effects. As such, surveys will only provide a partial picture of culture. Lewis (1996) maintained that although surveys and cultural profiles may provide valuable information to management, they are not comprehensive enough to uncover culture. Rather, a combination of methods should be employed to adequately

describe organisational culture, and even then a certain amount of intuition is required to do so.

In light of the preceding discussion, it is clear that the majority of researchers agree that culture profiles and surveys provide only a limited evaluation of organisational culture. This limitation is however applicable to most, if not all, abstract fields. Surveys and questionnaires continue to play an important role in research towards better understanding of organisational culture, and remain scientifically powerful tools in assessing various constructs throughout a great variety of abstract fields (Cooper and Schindler, 2003), although cognisance of the limitations of the research instruments in use should be taken.

The current study utilises the abbreviated Organisational Culture Profile (OCP) to measure organisational culture (discussed at length in section 3.3.1). The OCP was developed to measure organisational and personal culture orientations (Cable and Judge, 1997; Sarros, Grey & Densten, 2002).

2.4 LEADERSHIP – CULTURE CONNECTION

2.4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the relationship between leadership and organisational culture is illuminated through discussion of various important sub-topics. The discussion starts with mechanisms of influencing culture, which are specific potential leadership interventions towards changing the culture of the organisation. This culture specific influence discussion should not be confused with earlier discussions on leadership influence tactics, which were directed at leadership influence in a much broader, generic sense.

The growth stage of a company is shown to have a mediating impact on the relationship between leadership and organisational culture. Hence, this important topic is discussed in 2.4.3 Leadership, Culture and Growth Stages of Organisations.

Finally, a summary of academic conclusions from literature is provided in section 2.4.4 Conclusions from Literature.

2.4.2 Mechanisms of Influencing Culture

In section 2.2.3 , titled 'Leadership Influence Processes', the various types of influencing techniques or methods available to leaders were discussed. The focus of that discussion was mainly related to the influencing of individuals or followers, which may or may not result in change in organisational culture.

The current section has a specific focus on mechanisms to influence culture directly. Much in line with the conclusions on the leadership–culture connection listed earlier in this chapter, Schein (1985) formulated five primary and five secondary mechanisms through which leaders can influence culture.

Schein (1985) lists the following primary mechanisms of influencing culture:

- **Attention** – Followers perceive what is important to leaders by taking note of those things leaders pay attention to. For instance, if leaders proclaim that employees welfare is important to them, but don't pay attention to the upgrade of ablution facilities during a major expansion project, employees will perceive leaders to pay lip service only. Through the entire management process, from planning activities to monitoring operations, leaders communicate to followers those items deemed to be important by the leader.
- **Reaction to crises** – A crisis is often emotionally charged, hence a leader's response to crises can potentially be a strong indication of the values and assumptions held by the leader. If, in times of crisis, the leader's response is in line with formally communicated values and beliefs, the culture is strengthened. The opposite may also be true: leaders who react to crises in new or contradictory ways, may harm the perceived values and beliefs held by employees. A leader that faithfully supports espoused values even when pressurised to take expedient action communicates clearly that the existing values are important.
- **Role modelling** – Leaders should take cognisance of the effect of their actions on followers. Through actions, leaders display their priorities and values. It is a common adage that "action speaks the loudest". A leader who institutes a policy or procedure but fails to act in accordance thereof, communicates the message that the policy is not really important.
- **Allocation of reward** – Leaders should allocate rewards in accordance with the values and beliefs prevalent in the organisation. Employees will perceive

as important those actions, results and values which are rewarded by leaders. Formal recognition in ceremonies and informal praise sends a strong message of the priorities and values of a leader. In contrast, failure to recognise contributions and achievements sends a message that they are not important. Finally, differential allocation of rewards and status signifies the relative importance of some members compared to others.

- Criteria for selection and dismissal – By choosing certain criteria for selection, promotion and dismissal, leaders influence the culture of the organisation.

In addition to the primary mechanisms, Schein (1985) described five secondary mechanisms, which, when compared to the primary mechanisms, is essentially more of an indirect influence mechanism:

- Design of systems and procedures – Formal planning, budgeting, reports and performance rewards can be used to emphasise some activities and criteria, while also helping to reduce role ambiguity.
- Design of organisation structure – The design of structure is often influenced more by assumptions about internal relationships than by actual requirements for effective adaptation to the environment. A centralised structure is often seen to reflect the beliefs that only the leader can determine what is best, whereas a decentralised structure are seen to reflect the beliefs that followers can also contribute in terms of individual initiative and shared responsibility.
- Design of facilities – Although seldom done as an intentional strategy, leaders can design facilities to reflect basic values. For example, an open plan office indicates the value of open communication.
- Stories, legends, and myths – Stories about important events and people in the organisation help transmit values and assumptions. However, stories and myths are more a reflection of culture than a determinant of it. The potential use of this mechanism by leaders to influence culture is very limited in any organisation where open communication makes it possible to detect a false story. To be successful one must be clear about values, and describe a real event.
- Formal statements – A public statement of values by a leader and written value statements, charters, and philosophies can be useful as a supplement

to other mechanisms. However, formal statements usually describe only a small portion of an organisation's cultural assumptions and beliefs, and they have no credibility unless the words are supported by leader actions and decisions.

In this analyses by Schein, the influence process is one-way (leader influences culture), while researchers seem to be share the view that the influence process is reciprocal (leader and culture influence each other) (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Block, 2003; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Sarros et al, 2002). Nevertheless, the mechanisms provide clear and easily understood ways for leaders and managers to change the culture of their organisation.

2.4.3 Leadership, Culture and Growth Stages of Organisations

Even though literature points to a clear relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture, the specific development stage of the organisation appears to have a potential mediating effect on the leadership–culture connection. According to Yukl (2002), the impact of leadership influence on organisational culture is much stronger in a newly founded organisation going through the introduction and growth phases. The founder-leader of such an organisation has great potential to influence the culture of the fledgling company. This does not suggest that establishing a culture in a new organisation is necessarily an easy process, as conflict may arise between the founder and other powerful leaders or players in the organisation if the vision is not shared.

In contrast, changing a culture, or creating a new culture in a mature organisation is much more difficult. The challenges associated with such a culture make-over stems from the implicit and unconscious nature of the beliefs and assumptions shared by the members of an organisation. These assumptions are often a matter of pride, based on past achievements. More importantly, cultural values influence the selection of, and role expectations of leaders.

In a mature organisation, culture is mostly stable, and is more likely to influence leaders, as opposed to leaders influencing the culture. Often, it requires a crisis to set a change of culture in motion, and even then changes may be incremental, rather than discontinuous in nature (Yukl, 2002).

The current study is aimed at a mature organisation, going through major discontinuous change in its drive towards global competitiveness. As such, the development stage of the organisation is expected to mediate the relationship between culture and leadership behaviour, although this expected effect will not be formally examined and measured in the study.

2.4.4 Conclusions from Literature

Reference to, and speculation about the nature of the connection between leadership and organisational culture are to be found in many books and journals, but limited systematic research exists to explain this relationship. The reasons for this apparent contradiction may well be related to the abstract nature of leadership and culture. Both these constructs are open to a wide variety of interpretation and definition. However, in the words of Schein (1985:327): "Leadership and culture are so central to understanding organizations and making them effective that we cannot afford to be complacent about either one".

Many quotes and statements related to the nature of the relationship between leadership and organisational culture are encountered in literature, which highlight the concept of the iterative, integrated and reciprocal nature of this relationship (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Block, 2003; Brooks, 1996; Lok & Crawford, 1999; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000).

In a study conducted by Block (2003) in a Canadian privately owned sales and service company, the leadership-culture connection was examined. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) and the Organisational Culture Survey were completed by a total of 782 employees. As expected, the study indicated that the leadership-culture connection was the strongest between employees and direct superiors. This result is particularly relevant to the present study, where the impact of leadership behaviour on organisational culture is studied on senior management level, as opposed to the more popular approach of studying this phenomenon on an executive level.

The link between culture and leadership is described in terms of transactional versus transformational leadership by Bass and Avolio (1994:542): "Transformational leaders integrate creative insight, persistence and energy, intuition and sensitivity to the needs of others to forge the strategy-culture alloy in their organisation... Transactional leaders ... work within the existing culture framing their decisions and

actions based on the operative norms and procedures characterising their respective organisation". Bass and Avolio used the Organizational Description Questionnaire to measure the extent of the transformational and transactional culture in an organisation. It should be noted that the exact nature of the relationship between leadership and organisational culture was not empirically tested in this study. As such, the study provides a framework for investigating organisational cultures in parallel with the factors used to describe leadership styles under the transformational-transactional leadership model (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

In a study conducted by Sarros, Grey and Densten (2002), 1918 members of the Australian Institute of Management were surveyed using the MLQ (5X) (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5X) and OCP (Organizational Culture Profile) instruments. The study revealed strong and positive relationships among leadership and organisational culture. A mixture of transactional and transformational leadership approaches was positively associated with a culture with the emphasis on rewards. Cultures characterised by supportiveness and social responsibility were best predicted by transformational leadership approaches. Leadership style predicted culture variations in more cases than the reverse.

2.5 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

From the reviews of literature of organisational culture and leadership in the preceding sections, it is generally agreed that organisational culture and leadership impact strongly on each other, and should be thoroughly considered in the journey towards greater organisational effectiveness. Further to this, leaders should be attentive to the resistance of followers to change beliefs, values, assumptions and rites that make up an integral part of the culture of an organisation. The culture can in some instances hinder the development and change initiatives undertaken. To counter this, leaders need to shape the culture in a way that will assist the required change process.

It is important to note that change in values and assumptions is often a slow and gradual, yet never-ending process. Therefore, leaders should never lead themselves to believe that culture change is a discrete event that has been completed. The very same forces that helped to shape the existing culture will combine with other forces to continuously change and adapt the culture as personified by beliefs, values, rites and artefacts.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 DATA COLLECTION

In this study, the leadership behaviour of senior managers on one hand, and organisational sub-culture within the senior managers' departments as perceived by subordinates on the other, are measured using two appropriate questionnaires. The results from the survey at a public multi-national company are used to test correlations between different aspects of the constructs of leadership and organisational sub-culture. As such, this is a descriptive, ex-post facto study, and the causality of such correlations will not be attempted in this study.

The survey method (as opposed to personal interviews, group discussions or focus groups) was chosen as a means of gathering data for analysis due to time constraints, cost considerations and ease of analysis of data.

The survey was carried out once; hence as a cross-sectional study it represents a snapshot of respondents' views and attitudes at a specific point in time. The results of the study may be used to identify and implement certain interventions to change leadership style and/or organisational culture in the company under review, in which case it may be worthwhile to repeat the study at a later stage to measure the success of said intervention. However, this will not form part of this study.

A sample was surveyed to reduce cost and time required, and as such this is a statistical study where the population's characteristics are inferred from a sample's characteristics (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

3.2 SAMPLING

According to Fletcher (2006) sample size is closely related to the precision of the estimator, which approximates $1/(n^{1/2})$, where n is the sample size. This means that the precision of estimating a population parameter increases when the sample size is increased. In this study, means of more than two variables are compared. The rule of thumb (Fletcher, 2006) here is to have at least thirty (30) observations in each group under observation.

Data was collected about respondents' views and attitudes on leadership styles of the senior manager and organisational sub-cultures in their department. A sample was

selected by answering the following questions as suggested by Cooper and Schindler (2003):

1. Who is the relevant population?

The organisation is divided into separate divisions, with a total of approximately 7000 permanent employees. The Logistics Division, with a total of 711 permanent employees will constitute the focus population of the study.

The Logistics Division is divided into three distinct departments, headed by senior managers. The employees reporting directly and indirectly to the senior managers were asked to complete a survey to determine their views and perceptions of leadership behaviour of the senior manager and the organisational sub-culture within the department.

2. What are the parameters of interest?

The following biographical information was collected during the survey: age, length of service, gender and level of seniority (team member, team leader, administrative clerk, group leader, manager). The summary of this data will be used to gather a sense of the representation value of the sample.

3. What is the sampling frame?

The sampling frame is a complete list of all permanent employees in the chosen population, which equates to 711 employees in the Logistics Division.

4. What is the type of sample?

A proportionate stratified probability sample was used to ensure each stratum is properly represented, and probability-based confidence estimates of parameters can be made. Each senior manager heads a department, which represents a stratum.

The population is divided into three sub-populations, or departments. A random, proportionate sample is drawn from each department, through utilisation of a randomly generated list of numbers.

5. What size sample is needed?

As stated earlier, if the aim is to compare factors from different strata, thirty (30) observations per stratum is a generally accepted rule of thumb (Fletcher, 2006). Adding proportionate sampling to this rule of thumb, with thirty (30) observations from the sampling frame of the smallest department (Logistics Planning, 221 employees), equating to 13.6%, and applying this percentage to the other two strata or departments, the sampling size is calculated as shown in *Table 5*.

Table 5: Planned Sample Size

Department/ Subpopulation	Total Employees in Stratum	Planned Sample Size	Planned % of Stratum
Logistics Planning	221	30	13.6%
Local Parts Supply	258	35	13.6%
Imported Parts Warehouse	232	31	13.4%
Total	711	96	13.5%

Halpin (1954) suggest a number between four (4) and ten (10) respondents per leader as being sufficient for a stable result of leadership behaviour when using the LBDQ XII instrument. Based on this guideline the minimum of 30 observations per senior manager was considered adequate to obtain reliable results for the leadership behaviour displayed by the senior managers.

6. How much will it cost?

The cost was restricted to the cost of making copies of the questionnaires. The researcher distributed and collected questionnaires in his own time.

3.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Organisational culture and leadership behaviour was measured by two distinct instruments, namely:

- Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) - This instrument is discussed in section 3.3.1 below and is presented in Appendix C
- Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII (LBDQ XII) - This instrument is explained in section 3.3.2 below, and is presented in full in Appendix B.

The two instruments were combined into one booklet with a cover page (presented in Appendix A), explaining the purpose of the study, requesting demographic information (Senior Manager; Own Position; Own Age; Own Gender), and thanking the respondent for his/her participation.

3.3.1 Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)

The focus of this study is to examine organisational culture as perceived by individuals. The Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991), is a means of assessing culture on the basis of aggregated value orientations of individuals in organisations, which is summarised along eight factors (Innovation, Attention to Detail, Outcome Orientation, Aggressiveness, Supportiveness, Emphasis on Reward, Team Orientation and Decisiveness). Reliability coefficients of 0.88 (O'Reilly et al, 1991) and 0.86 (Vandenberghe, 1999) are reported for the OCP.

An abbreviated version of the original OCP was developed by Cable and Judge (1997) with a test-retest reliability of 0.87 (Sarros, Grey & Densten, 2002). The abbreviated OCP utilises a five point Likert scale (1=Not-At-All, 2=Minimally, 3=Moderately, 4=Considerably, and 5=Very-Much) to assess the respondents perception of the organisation's cultural values.

Based on recommendations to examine the structure of the OCP in more detail (Howard, 1998; Vandenberghe, 1999), Sarros et al (2002) further developed the abbreviated OCP (presented in Appendix C), and reduced it to a 28 item, seven scales test (reliabilities shown in parentheses): Competitiveness (.75), Social Responsibility (.74), Supportiveness (.87), Emphasis on Rewards (.80), Innovation (.80), Performance Orientation (.74) and Stability (.66).

The seven scales for the new abbreviated study, and their properties (Sarros et al, 2002), are shown in **Table 6**.

Table 6: Organisational Culture Dimensions Properties

Dimension	Properties
Competitiveness	Achievement orientation An emphasis on quality Being distinctive - being different from others Being competitive
Social Responsibility	Being reflective Having a good reputation Being socially responsible Having a clear guiding philosophy
Supportiveness	Being team oriented Sharing information freely Being people oriented Collaboration
Innovation	Being innovative Quick to take advantage of opportunities Risk taking Taking individual responsibility
Emphasis on Rewards	Fairness Opportunities for professional growth High pay for good performance Praise for good performance
Performance Orientation	Having high expectations for performance Enthusiasm for the job Being results oriented Being highly organized
Stability	Stability Being calm Security of employment Low conflict

Source: Sarros et al (2002)

3.3.2 Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ XII)

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII (LBDQ XII) was used in this study to measure employees' perception of the leadership behaviour of their senior manager (LBDQ XII presented in Appendix B). The LBDQ was developed by the Ohio State University in 1963, and is used to describe the behavior of the leader(s) in any type of group or organization, provided the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group.

The LBDQ XII has been utilised to measure leadership behaviour in a number of recent studies. Lok (2004) examined the effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and commented that the LBDQ XII was considered to be a well established questionnaire, extensively used in the past.

Similarly, Littrell and Nkomo (2005) used the LBDQ XII in their study of gender and race differences in leader behaviour preferences in South Africa. Additionally, the

LBDQ XII has been extensively used to study leadership behaviour by Littrell and others (Littrell (2002), Littrell and Valentin (2005), Schneider and Littrell (2003)).

Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) reported on the relationships between the LBDQ dimensions of 'Consideration' and 'Initiating structures' and relevant organisational criteria, which indicated that higher LBDQ scores on the above dimensions were positively correlated to increased leader effectiveness.

The LBDQ XII comprise of 12 subscales. Each subscale is composed of either five or ten items from the questionnaire. The following brief definitions of the subscales are taken from the LBDQ XII manual, published by the Ohio State University (Stogdill, 1963):

- Representation – speaks and acts as the representative of the group. (5 items)
- Demand Reconciliation – reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system. (5 items)
- Tolerance of Uncertainty – is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset. (10 items)
- Persuasiveness – uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions. (10 items)
- Initiation of Structure – clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected. (10 items)
- Tolerance of Freedom - allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action. (10 items)
- Role Assumption – actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others. (10 items)
- Consideration – regards the comfort, well being, status, and contributions of followers. (10 items)
- Production Emphasis – applies pressure for productive output. (10 items)
- Predictive Accuracy – exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcome accurately. (5 items)
- Integration – maintains a closely knit organization; resolves inter-member conflicts. (5 items)

- Superior Orientation – maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status. (10 items)

Although results for studies utilising the LBDQ XII have been weak and inconsistent in terms of identifying leadership characteristics as **predictors of performance** (Yukl, 2002), the LBDQ XII is considered a useful tool to **describe the leadership behaviour** employed by the selected leaders (Stogdill, 1963). In this study, leadership behaviour is tested for possible relationships to organisational culture.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 ACTUAL SAMPLE RETURNED

The actual sample size, which is the number of completed questionnaires returned, came to fifty-one (51) as indicated in *Table 7*. The implication of this reduced sample is that the leadership behaviour and organisational culture cannot be compared between departments (or strata) on a statistically meaningful level. Instead, the leadership behaviour and organisational culture dimensions will be analysed and discussed by internally comparing data sets or pairs of the same respondent, and accumulating the correlations on an aggregate level.

Table 7: Actual Sample Returned

Department/ Subpopulation	Total Employees in Stratum	Planned Sample Size	Planned % of Stratum	Actual Sample Size	Actual % of Stratum
Logistics Planning	221	30	13.6%	16	7.2%
Local Parts Supply	258	35	13.6%	18	7.0%
Imported Parts Warehouse	232	31	13.4%	17	7.3%
Total	711	96	13.5%	51	7.2%

4.2 CLEANING THE DATA

After capturing all data (responses from respondents), the data was first checked for errors through application of the following steps:

- Step 1: The Excel spreadsheet were formatted (conditional formatting) to highlight any entries outside the applicable range, for instance, where the scale is 1-2-3-4-5, any values outside this range, such as 6, will be highlighted automatically.
- Step 2: A sample of 10% were checked for errors in data capturing. No errors were found, subsequently no further error checking were conducted.
- Step 3: The LBDQ XII had a number of negative questions which were reversed scored. A 10% sample was double checked specifically on these questions. No errors were found.

4.3 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The responses gathered through the survey were captured on an Excel spreadsheet. Individual responses from the LBDQ XII were used to calculate scores for each factor of leadership behaviour. Likewise, the responses from the OCP were used to calculate scores for each factor of organisational culture. This was done on Excel, through the use of formulae. The result of this analysis is discussed in section 4.4 , titled 'DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS'.

Subsequently, the calculated scores for the organisational culture and leadership behaviour factors were uploaded onto SPSS (v11.5), and tested for correlation with the Spearman correlation method, which is discussed in section 4.5 CORRELATION RESULTS: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE. The Spearman rank-order correlation test measures ranks between two ordered variables, and reports it as 'rho' (ρ)

. Rho (ρ) value of +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation between two data sets. Rho (ρ) value of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation, and rho (ρ) equal to 0 indicates zero correlation. SPSS provides a correlation report in tabular form that indicates:

- the rho correlation value ρ between each pair of variables (value between -1 and +1);
- the significance of the correlation (P), which is an indication of confidence level of the stated correlation (P<0.01 indicates a confidence level of 99%, P<0.05 indicates a confidence level of 95%);
- the sample size (n) used in calculating the correlation values of rho (ρ)

The Spearman correlation method was chosen for the following reasons:

- It is widely accepted as one of the most widely used correlation tests when data requires ordinal measures (Cooper & Schindler, 2003);
- It does not require the assumption of a bivariate normal distribution, as such it is a robust correlation method (Van der Waal, 2006);
- It makes fewer assumptions about the data distribution as for instance the Pearson method, which results in a more pure correlation value (Van der Waal, 2006).

4.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

4.4.1 Biographical Information of Respondents

The summary of biographical background is provided in **Table 8**. As can be expected from a male dominated manufacturing organisation, male respondents accounted for 84.3% of the total.

Table 8: Biographical Information of Respondents

Age	Respondents	% of Total
<20	2	3.9%
21-25	8	15.7%
26-30	7	13.7%
31-35	7	13.7%
36-40	5	9.8%
41-45	8	15.7%
46-50	5	9.8%
>50	9	17.6%
Total	51	

Position	Respondents	% of Total
Manager	5	9.8%
Group leader	7	13.7%
Team leader	14	27.5%
Admin	25	49.0%
Total	51	

Gender	Respondents	% of Total
Male	43	84.3%
Female	8	15.7%
Total	51	

As can be seen from **Figure 4**, based on age, the biggest group of respondents – 17 – are 30 years or younger, which equates to 33% of the total.

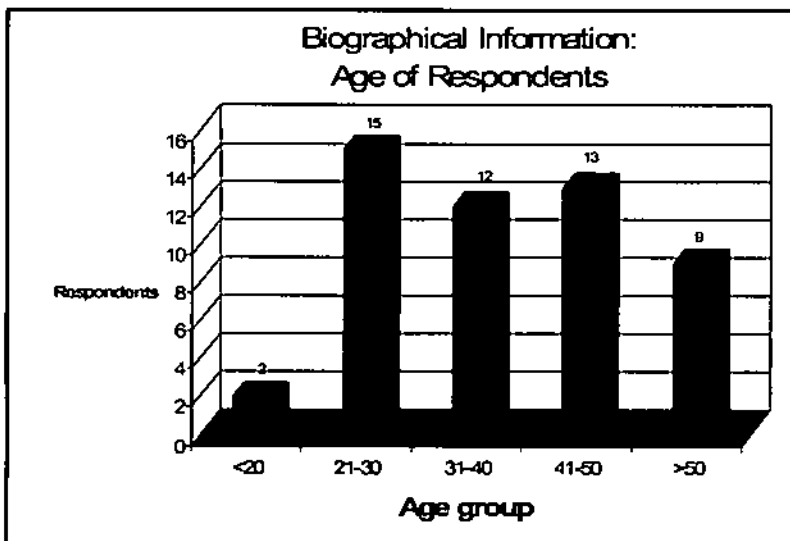


Figure 4: Age Distribution of Respondents

In terms of the distribution of respondents based on 'position', a typical hierarchical shape is seen in **Figure 5**, with managers the lowest on five respondents, group leaders accounting for seven respondents, 14 team leaders, and 25 admin personnel.

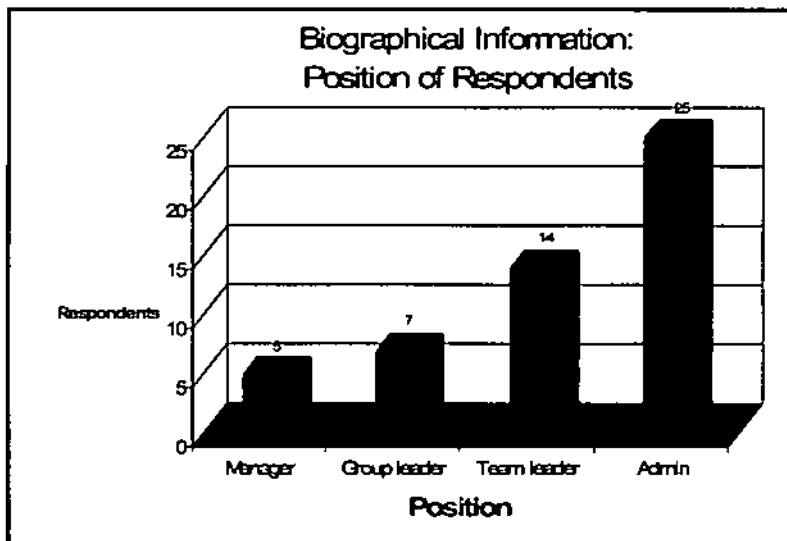


Figure 5: Position Distribution of Respondents

4.4.2 Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire

Recorded responses from the completed questionnaires were summed as per instructions in the LBDQ XII manual (Stogdill, 1963), and mean values and standard deviations for summed responses were calculated for the group as a whole, which are presented in **Table 9**, and ranked from highest mean (m) to lowest mean (m). The ranked list of factors of leadership behaviour is a good indication of the relative prevalence of certain leadership behaviour of the observed senior managers as perceived by followers.

Table 9: LBDQ XII Descriptive Statistics (n=51)

Leadership Behaviour Factor	Rank	Mean	Std Dev
Initiating Structure	1	3.93	0.73
Role Assumption	2	3.74	0.61
Production Emphasis	3	3.73	0.75
Superior Orientation	4	3.52	0.64
Persuasiveness	5	3.50	0.76
Representation	6	3.44	0.90
Integration	7	3.38	0.82
Reconciliation	8	3.23	0.87
Predictive Accuracy	9	3.17	0.70
Tolerance of Freedom	10	3.16	0.57
Consideration	11	3.09	0.76
Tolerance of Uncertainty	12	2.61	0.71

The three highest ranked leadership behaviour factors are 'initiation of structure' (m=3.93), 'role assumption' (m=3.74), and 'production emphasis' (m=3.73). Put together, this translates to a leader who clearly defines his own role, as well as the roles expected of others, who does not share the leadership and decision making with others, with a great drive for productive output.

The three lowest ranked leadership behaviour factors ('tolerance of freedom' (m=3.16), 'consideration' (m=3.09) and 'tolerance of uncertainty' (m=2.61) paints a picture of a leader perceived not to allow followers much room for initiative, innovation and decentralised decision making, with an inability or unwillingness to tolerate ambiguity, and low regard for the comfort, well being and contributions of followers.

The leaders in the present study are perceived to strongly display behaviours consistent with the broad definition of 'Initiating Structure', as described in section 2.2.1 Leadership Theories (The Behaviour Approach):

The leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group's formal goals. Examples include criticizing poor work, emphasizing the importance of meeting deadlines, assigning subordinates to tasks, maintaining definite standards of performance, asking subordinates to follow standard procedures, offering new approaches to problems, and coordinating the activities of different subordinates (Yukl, 2002:50).

Additionally, the observed leaders are not perceived to be considerate towards followers, as the comparison of the three lowest ranked factors with the broad category of 'Consideration' (also refer to 2.2.1 Leadership Theories (The Behaviour Approach)) as worded by Yukl (2002:5) reveals:

The leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, finding time to listen to subordinates' problems, backing up or going to bat for a subordinate, consulting with subordinates on important matters, being willing to accept subordinate suggestions, and treating a subordinate as an equal (Yukl, 2002:50).

The preceding discussion depicts a leader with extreme task and result orientation with limited attention to building relationships with followers. This is very much in line with the description of a transactional leader as opposed to the idealised transformational leader (see section 2.2.1 Leadership Theories). Transactional leaders determine the performance criteria (which translates to 'role assumption',

'initiating structure' and 'production emphasis') and the reward received in return, whilst transformational leaders lead through the arousal of emotions and motivation of followers, which is often achieved through relationships and consideration for higher order needs of followers, with predicted emotional attachment to the leader and the leader's vision.

4.4.3 Organisational Culture Profile

Answers to the questions in the OCP questionnaire were summed; means and standard deviations per organisational culture factor were calculated, and ranked from highest to lowest mean (m) as can be seen in **Table 10**. The organisational culture factors of 'performance orientation' (m=3.82) and 'competitiveness' (m=3.68) received the highest means and are closely grouped. The next two highest ranks are closely grouped, which is the third and fourth highest ranks of 'stability' (m=3.35) and 'social responsibility' (m=3.29). The last three factors' mean values are also closely grouped: 'supportiveness' (m=3.19), 'innovation' (m=3.13) and 'emphasis on rewards' (m=3.08).

Table 10: OCP Descriptive Statistics (n=51)

Organisational Culture Factor	Rank	Mean	Std Dev
Performance Orientation	1	3.82	0.78
Competitiveness	2	3.68	0.73
Stability	3	3.35	0.68
Social Responsibility	4	3.29	0.84
Supportiveness	5	3.19	1.02
Innovation	6	3.13	0.83
Emphasis on rewards	7	3.08	1.06

Due to the closeness of the mean values of the top two factors on the one hand, and the lowest three factors on the other, the discussion will be focussed on these factors.

The organisational culture of the subject company is clearly perceived to be relatively high on 'performance orientation' and 'competitiveness'. The organisational culture factor of 'performance orientation' describes a culture of goal setting, high levels of task-orientation, high focus on results and performance, with high levels of organisational structure.

'Competitiveness' refers to the competitive nature of the organisational culture, with distinct efforts of differentiating oneself from other individuals, teams, departments or companies through superior achievements.

The subject company's culture is perceived to have relatively low levels of 'supportiveness', 'innovation' and 'emphasis on rewards'. 'Supportiveness' is described by terms such as 'being team and people oriented', 'free sharing of information' and 'collaboration'. 'Innovation' is about being innovative and opportunistic and about taking risks, while 'emphasis on rewards' relates to fairness, pay and praise for performance, and growth opportunities.

In summary, the organisational culture of the subject company is perceived to be highly geared towards task and target setting, result-driven and achievement oriented, with limited concern for relationships and freedom in decision making.

4.4.4 Preliminary Conclusions based on Descriptive Statistics

There appears to be a high correlation between the leadership behaviours of the observed leaders and the organisational culture prevalent in the subject company as perceived by the respondents.

When comparing the different factors of leadership behaviour and organisational culture based on a classification of means (high, medium and low), a compelling picture of the relationships is derived (refer to **Table 11**).

Table 11: Correlation: Leadership Behaviour and Organisational Culture (means)

Mean value	Leadership Behaviour Factor	Organisational Culture Factor
High	Initiating Structure	Performance Orientation
	Role Assumption	Competitiveness
	Production Emphasis	
Medium	Superior Orientation	
	Persuasiveness	Social Responsibility
	Representation	Stability
	Integration	
	Reconciliation	
Low	Tolerance of Freedom	Supportiveness
	Consideration	Innovation
	Tolerance of Uncertainty	Emphasis on rewards

Leadership behaviour is leaning strongly towards an initiating structure, with high emphasis on task- and goal setting. Leaders are not perceived to be intent on building relationships based on consideration, support and collaboration.

Organisational culture is perceived to have the same dimensions as the observed leadership behaviour, with the culture being perceived as strongly performance oriented with a strong sense of competitiveness, coupled with low emphasis on supportiveness and innovation.

4.5 CORRELATION RESULTS: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

In the subsequent discussion of the correlation results between Leadership Behaviour and Organisational Culture, the leadership dimension is mentioned first, followed by the correlating organisational culture dimension (refer to *Table 12*). The Spearman rho (ρ) value is placed in brackets after the organisational culture dimension (all correlations are measured as significant at the 0.01 level of confidence). Spearman rho (ρ) values higher than 0.70 are interpreted as very strong correlation, higher than 0.60 are taken as strong correlation, with values higher than or equal to 0.50 indicating correlation of moderate strength (Van der Waal, 2006) (note that all significant correlations are positive).

- 'Representation' is strongly correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.611$) and 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.601$), and moderately correlated with 'Supportiveness' ($\rho=0.508$).
- 'Demand Reconciliation' is strongly correlated with 'Social Responsibility' ($\rho=0.629$), and moderately correlated with 'Innovation' ($\rho=0.527$).
- 'Tolerance of Uncertainty' is moderately correlated with 'Stability' ($\rho=0.500$).
- 'Persuasiveness' is moderately correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.537$), 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.517$) and 'Innovation' ($\rho=0.585$).
- 'Initiation of Structure' is moderately correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.575$) and 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.516$).
- 'Tolerance of Freedom' is moderately correlated with 'Social Responsibility' ($\rho=0.548$) and 'Stability' ($\rho=0.500$).
- 'Role Assumption' is strongly correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.628$) and 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.603$).

Table 12: Correlation results (Leadership Behaviour and Organisational Culture)

Dimensions of Leadership Behaviour	Dimensions of Organisational Culture							
	Metrics	Performance Orientation	Social Responsibility	Supportiveness	Emphasis on Rewards	Stability	Competitiveness	Innovation
Representation	P	0.611	0.398	0.508	0.382	0.143	0.601	0.451
	P	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.006	0.318	0.000	0.001
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Demand Reconciliation	P	0.480	0.629	0.429	0.355	0.389	0.479	0.527
	P	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.011	0.005	0.000	0.000
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Tolerance of Uncertainty	P	-0.140	0.255	0.181	0.181	0.500	-0.327	-0.154
	P	0.326	0.071	0.203	0.205	0.000	0.019	0.280
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Persuasiveness	P	0.537	0.290	0.425	0.327	0.082	0.517	0.585
	P	0.000	0.039	0.002	0.019	0.567	0.000	0.000
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Inflation of Structures	P	0.575	0.429	0.432	0.198	0.113	0.516	0.322
	P	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.163	0.429	0.000	0.021
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Tolerance of Freedom	P	0.179	0.548	0.438	0.470	0.500	0.144	0.287
	P	0.298	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.314	0.005
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Role Assumption	P	0.628	0.308	0.417	0.342	0.059	0.603	0.437
	P	0.000	0.028	0.002	0.014	0.680	0.000	0.001
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Consideration	P	0.494	0.587	0.751	0.640	0.412	0.299	0.404
	P	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.033	0.003
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Production Emphasis	P	0.535	0.096	0.234	0.331	-0.057	0.608	0.288
	P	0.000	0.504	0.098	0.018	0.683	0.000	0.042
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Predictive Accuracy	P	0.565	0.513	0.564	0.493	0.301	0.588	0.555
	P	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.032	0.000	0.000
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Integration	P	0.579	0.619	0.709	0.604	0.438	0.488	0.509
	P	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Superior Orientation	P	0.703	0.584	0.588	0.486	0.313	0.622	0.620
	P	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.025	0.000	0.000
	n	51	51	51	51	51	51	51

- 'Consideration' is very strongly correlated with 'Supportiveness' ($\rho=0.751$) and strongly correlated with 'Emphasis on Rewards' ($\rho=0.640$).
- 'Production Emphasis' is strongly correlated with 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.608$) and moderately correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.555$).
- 'Predictive Accuracy' is moderately correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.565$), 'Social Responsibility' ($\rho=0.513$), 'Supportiveness' ($\rho=0.564$), 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.588$) and 'Innovation' ($\rho=0.555$).
- 'Integration' is very strongly correlated with 'Supportiveness' ($\rho=0.709$), strongly correlated with 'Social Responsibility' ($\rho=0.619$), 'Emphasis on Rewards' ($\rho=0.604$), and moderately correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.579$) and 'Innovation' ($\rho=0.509$).
- 'Superior Orientation' is very strongly correlated with 'Performance Orientation' ($\rho=0.703$), strongly correlated with 'Competitiveness' ($\rho=0.622$) and 'Innovation' ($\rho=0.620$), and moderately correlated with 'Social Responsibility' ($\rho=0.584$) and 'Supportiveness' ($\rho=0.588$).

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

A comparison of the average mean values for leadership behaviour factors and organisational culture factors provides strong indication of a relationship between the behaviour of the leader and the organisational culture. The direction of this relationship was not studied in this research effort.

What can be derived from the comparison of means, is that the subject company's culture is, relatively speaking, characterised as relatively higher performance oriented, with a strong sense of competition, coupled with a relatively lower focus on innovation, supportiveness and emphasis on rewards. It can be said that the culture is geared towards getting the maximum effort from each employee, with limited emotional support, and little room for doing things your own way.

This organisational culture seems to mirror what Stephen Covey calls "the 'Thing' mind-set of the Industrial Age" (Covey, 2004:15), which relates to the concept of machines and capital (things) being the main assets and drivers of the Industrial Age. In this model, people were seen as necessary, but replaceable as workers to keep the machine running.

According to Covey, this view of people as 'things' influenced the way people were managed:

- People can and should be controlled;
- People are seen as an expense on the income statement, while machines are seen as assets on the balance sheet;
- People are motivated with a carrot-and-stick approach, with a carrot in front (some monetary award), and a stick from behind (some threat of punishment).

The carrot-and-stick approach (as indicated by relatively higher mean values of leadership behaviour factors of 'initiation of structure, role assumption and production emphasis, and relatively low mean values of leadership behaviour factors of 'tolerance of freedom', 'consideration' and 'tolerance of uncertainty') resembles a leader behaving

in the Transactional Style of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Not surprisingly, the leadership behaviour of the senior managers under review in this study, was consistent with the style of Initiating Structure as described by Yukl (2002:50):

The leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group's formal goals. Examples include criticizing poor work, emphasizing the importance of meeting deadlines, assigning subordinates to tasks, maintaining definite standards of performance, asking subordinates to follow standard procedures, offering new approaches to problems, and coordinating the activities of different subordinates.

The three leadership behaviour factors with the highest relative means (initiation of structure, role assumption and production emphasis), shows the strongest correlation with the two organisational culture factors with the highest relative means (performance orientation and competitiveness) as indicated in *Table 13*.

Table 13: Correlation Factors with highest mean values

Dimensions of Leadership Behaviour	Metrics	Dimensions of Organisational Culture	
		Performance Orientation	Competitiveness
Initiation of Structure	p	0.575	0.516
Role Assumption	p	0.628	0.603
Production Emphasis	p	0.555	0.608

The organisational culture dimensions of 'performance orientation' and 'competitiveness' is also strongly correlated to the leadership behaviour dimensions of 'representation' (p=0.611 for 'performance orientation', p=0,601 for 'competitiveness') and 'superior orientation' (p=0.73, 0.622) (refer to *Table 12* on page 54). 'Representation' relates to the leader speaking and acting as the representative of the group, once again depicting a very active, visible leadership style. 'Superior orientation' is an indication of a leader who has influence with his superiors, and strives for higher status. Putting this together, a performance oriented, competitive organisational culture is strongly correlated to leadership behaviours of representation of the group, providing initiating structure in terms of target setting, defining own role as well as those of followers, actively and visibly exercising the leadership role, and applying pressure for productive output, using influence with superiors to win promotion.

As shown in **Table 14**, for the factors with the lowest relative means for both leadership behaviour and organisational culture, the correlation results are not as strong as the highest factors in terms of mean values. The leadership behaviour factor of 'tolerance of uncertainty' shows correlation values close around zero for the organisational culture factors of 'supportiveness', 'innovation' and 'emphasis on rewards', which is an indication of very weak, or even no correlation.

However, leadership behaviour dimension of 'tolerance of freedom' shows significant correlations with the three organisational culture factors with the lowest means and the leadership behaviour factor of 'consideration' is highly correlated with the organisational culture factors of 'supportiveness' and 'emphasis on rewards'.

Table 14: Correlation Factors with lowest mean values

Dimensions of Leadership Behaviour	Metrics	Dimensions of Organisational Culture		
		Supportiveness	Innovation	Emphasis on Rewards
Tolerance of Freedom	p	0.438	0.387	0.470
Consideration	p	0.751	0.404	0.640
Tolerance of Uncertainty	p	0.181	-0.154	0.181

The organisational culture dimensions of 'supportiveness' and 'emphasis on rewards' show very strong correlation with leadership behaviour dimension of 'integration' (p=0.709 for 'supportiveness', p=0,604 for 'emphasis on rewards') (refer to **Table 12** on page 54), which relates to the leader maintaining a closely knit organisation with strong focus on resolving conflicts within the group.

Leadership behaviour dimensions of 'integration' and 'demand reconciliation' are also correlated to organisational culture dimension of 'social responsibility' (p=0.619, 0.629). This is to be expected when considering the descriptions for the different dimensions: 'integration' is about behaving as if the group is a family, which relates to organisational cultural values in the dimension of 'social responsibility', such as having a clear guiding philosophy, which, in turn, relates to 'demand reconciliation' leadership behaviours such as reducing disorder and reconciling conflicting demands.

Covey (2004) describes the downward spiral resulting from managing people as things. People come to think that only those in positions of power can decide what should be done and how it should be done. This reluctance of the general workforce to take initiative, only 'confirms' the view of those in positions of power that they need

to direct, supervise and co-ordinate all activities and tasks of their subordinates, and so the perpetual downward spiral of co-dependency is born.

Putting the correlation results and the 'downward cycle of co-dependency' together, it appears that the leadership behaviour and the organisational culture in the subject company, stems from a Industrial Age view that people are things that should be managed and controlled to ensure high production outputs. This is maybe not surprising in light of the fact that the subject company is an automotive manufacturer, where standardised work, high efficiency and productivity of labour are pre-requisites for being competitive in a highly competitive industry.

However, this one-dimensional view of human nature limits the ability of an organisation to embrace the vast talents of its workforce. Covey (2004) paints a vivid picture of how an organisation can draw out the talent, creativity and ingenuity of its people by viewing human nature as four-dimensional – body, mind, heart and spirit.

From **Table 12**, one more correlation result warrants discussion. The correlation between leadership behaviour dimension 'superior orientation' and organisational culture dimensions 'performance orientation; and 'competitiveness' has been discussed earlier in this section. In addition, 'superior orientation' is also correlated to organisational culture dimension 'innovation'. At first glance this seems surprising, when considering that 'superior orientation' is described as 'maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status', and 'innovation' is about 'being innovative, quick to take advantage of opportunities, risk taking, and taking individual responsibility'. This correlation may be related to the risk taking, or opportunistic character of the leadership behaviour dimension of 'superior orientation' and organizational culture dimension 'innovation'.

5.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.2.1 Sample size

The planned sample size was 96, which would have made it possible to compare leadership behaviour and organisational culture within and between departments. However, the returned questionnaires amounted to 51, or 53%, which meant that leadership behaviour and organisational culture could only be analysed and compared on an individual respondent level, and aggregate level, and not between departments.

Care should be taken in future studies to ensure allowance is made for a reduced response rate. In this study, the author erroneously assumed that all respondents in the sample will be willing to complete and return the questionnaires if asked personally.

5.2.2 External validity

The present study was carried out in one company in one country, resulting in high internal validity but limited external validity.

The study should be repeated across different companies in different industries, and in various countries before being able to state whether the results can be generalised to hold for most or all organisations and leaders.

5.2.3 Causality

The direction of the relationship between dimensions of leadership behaviour and organisational culture was not part of the design of this study. As a result, it is not possible to reach any conclusions on the causality of the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational culture.

The causality of the relationship between leadership and organisational culture could be the subject of future studies.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

As can be seen in **Table 12**, there are numerous significant correlations between leadership behaviour and organizational culture that were not discussed in this report. As such, this is not meant to be an exhaustive discussion of the results, but rather, the dimensions with the relative highest and lowest means from both the LBDQ XII and the OCDP were discussed in terms of the correlations with other dimensions. Furthermore, the highest remaining correlation values were extracted and discussed.

What is important, is that the correlation study revealed significant correlations between dimensions of leadership behaviour and organizational culture. The rich and strong correlations point to a definite relationship between how leaders behave on the one hand, and the prevalent organizational culture on the other.

The study was concerned with the relationship between behaviour of senior managers, and the organizational culture within their departments. Most studies so far have concentrated on the upper echelons of leadership, and organizational culture at a

macro level. Some researchers went so far as to say that only at this level, can leaders have a meaningful impact on organizational culture. In contrast, the results in this study strongly indicate that middle management has a potentially significant impact on the organizational sub-culture within their sections.

The results of this study can be utilised by management to ascertain whether the current organisational culture, as measured with the Organisational Culture Profile, is appropriate to provide them with the competitive edge required in the automotive industry now and in the future. If interventions are warranted, this could be achieved through changing the leadership behaviour throughout the organization towards behaviour that it strongly correlated to the ideal organisational culture dimensions as perceived by management.

Periodic replications of this study could be carried out to ascertain the progress towards the ideal organisational culture as perceived by management, and to modify or change leadership behaviours, or leaders as required.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Cover page for questionnaire

The nature of the relationship between leadership behaviour and Organizational culture in a South African context.

This booklet contains two questionnaires on Leadership behaviour (100 questions) and Organizational culture (38 questions). The survey is conducted as part of a Research Project in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Masters Degree in Business Leadership, University of South Africa.

Important information:

- Your responses will be treated as absolutely confidential, and will only be viewed by the researcher.
- You are not required to provide your name or company number – your responses are anonymous.
- No names of respondents will be recorded or made available to any other party.
- No individual results will be used in the research, nor provided to any other party.
- Results of this study will be presented in summarised version only.
- Please complete all questions as truthfully as possible.
- Note that you should answer what you believe to be true, and not what you think your manager or someone else wants you to answer.
- There are no right or wrong answers.
- Thank you for your valuable time in completing this questionnaire.

Demographic information (for statistical purposes only)

Department: _____

Senior Manager: _____

Your Age (tick):

- 20 years and younger
- 21 to 25
- 26 to 30
- 31 to 35
- 36 to 40
- 41 to 45
- 46 to 50
- Older than 50

Your Gender (tick):

- Male
- Female

Your Own position (tick)

- Manager
- Group leader
- Team leader
- Admin

Appendix B: Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire – Form XII

Originated by staff members of

The Ohio State Leadership Studies

And revised by the Bureau of Business Research

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your SENIOR MANAGER. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your SENIOR MANAGER. Note: The term, "group" as employed in the following items, refers to the department that is supervised by the SENIOR MANAGER being described. The term "members," refers to all the people in the DEPARTMENT that is supervised by the SENIOR MANAGER being described.

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DIRECTIONS:

READ each item carefully.

THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

DECIDE whether he/she (A) Always, (B) Often, (C) Occasionally, (D) Seldom or (E) Never act as described by the item.

DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you selected.

MARK your answers as shown in the examples below.

Example: Often acts as described A B C D E

Example: Never acts as described A B C D E

Example: Occasionally acts as described A B C D E

QUESTIONS:

A: Always B: Often C: Occasionally D: Seldom E: Never

1. Acts as the spokesperson of the group. ----- A B C D E
2. Waits patiently for the results of a decision ----- A B C D E
3. Makes pep talks to stimulate the group ----- A B C D E
4. Lets group members know what is expected of them ----- A B C D E
5. Allows the members complete freedom in their work ----- A B C D E
6. Is hesitant about taking initiative in the group ----- A B C D E
7. Is friendly and approachable ----- A B C D E
8. Encourages overtime work ----- A B C D E
9. Makes accurate decisions ----- A B C D E
10. Gets along well with the people above him/her ----- A B C D E
11. Publicizes the activities of the group ----- A B C D E
12. Becomes anxious when he/she cannot find out what is coming next ----- A B C D E
13. His/her arguments are convincing ----- A B C D E
14. Encourages the use of uniform procedures ----- A B C D E
15. Permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems ----- A B C D E
16. Falls to take necessary actions ----- A B C D E
17. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group ----- A B C D E
18. Stresses being ahead of competing groups ----- A B C D E
19. Keeps the group working together as a team ----- A B C D E
20. Keeps the group in good standing with higher authority ----- A B C D E
21. Speaks as a representative of the group ----- A B C D E
22. Accepts defeat in stride ----- A B C D E
23. Argues persuasively for his/her point of view ----- A B C D E
24. Tries out his/her ideas in the group ----- A B C D E
25. Encourages initiative in the group members ----- A B C D E
26. Lets others persons take away his/her leadership in the group ----- A B C D E
27. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation ----- A B C D E
28. Needles members for greater effort ----- A B C D E
29. Seems able to predict what is coming next ----- A B C D E
30. Is working hard for a promotion ----- A B C D E
31. Speaks for the group when visitors are present ----- A B C D E
32. Accepts delays without becoming upset ----- A B C D E
33. Is a very persuasive talker ----- A B C D E
34. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group ----- A B C D E
35. Lets the members do their work the way they think best ----- A B C D E
36. Lets some members take advantage of him/her ----- A B C D E
37. Treats all group members as his/her equals ----- A B C D E
38. Keeps the work moving at a rapid pace ----- A B C D E
39. Settles conflicts when they occur in the group ----- A B C D E
40. His/her superiors act favorably on most of his/her suggestions ----- A B C D E
41. Represents the group at outside meetings ----- A B C D E
42. Become anxious when waiting for new developments ----- A B C D E
43. Is very skillful in an argument ----- A B C D E
44. Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done ----- A B C D E
45. Assigns a task, then lets the members handle it ----- A B C D E
46. Is the leader of the group in name only ----- A B C D E
47. Gives advance notice of changes ----- A B C D E
48. Pushes for increased production ----- A B C D E
49. Things usually turn out as he/she predicts ----- A B C D E

A: Always B: Often C: Occasionally D: Seldom E: Never

50. Enjoys the privileges of his/her position ----- A B C D E
51. Handles complex problems efficiently ----- A B C D E
52. Is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty ----- A B C D E
53. Is not a very convincing talker ----- A B C D E
54. Assigns group members to particular tasks ----- A B C D E
55. Turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it ----- A B C D E
56. Backs down when he/she ought to stand firm ----- A B C D E
57. Keeps to himself/herself ----- A B C D E
58. Asks the members to work harder ----- A B C D E
59. Is accurate in predicting the trend of events ----- A B C D E
60. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members ----- A B C D E
61. Gets swamped by details ----- A B C D E
62. Can wait just so long, then blows up ----- A B C D E
63. Speaks from a strong inner conviction ----- A B C D E
64. Makes sure that his/her part in the group is understood by the group members ----- A B C D E
65. Is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action ----- A B C D E
66. Lets some members have authority that he/she should keep ----- A B C D E
67. Looks out for the personal welfare of group members ----- A B C D E
68. Permits the members to take it easy in their work ----- A B C D E
69. Sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated ----- A B C D E
70. His/her word carries weight with superiors ----- A B C D E
71. Gets things all tangled up ----- A B C D E
72. Remains calm when uncertain about coming events ----- A B C D E
73. Is an inspiring talker ----- A B C D E
74. Schedules the work to be done ----- A B C D E
75. Allows the group a high degree of initiative ----- A B C D E
76. Takes full charge when emergencies arise ----- A B C D E
77. Is willing to make changes ----- A B C D E
78. Drives hard when there is a job to be done ----- A B C D E
79. Helps group members settle their differences ----- A B C D E
80. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors ----- A B C D E
81. Can reduce a madhouse to system and order ----- A B C D E
82. Is able to delay action until the proper time occurs ----- A B C D E
83. Persuades others that his/her ideas are to their advantage ----- A B C D E
84. Maintains definite standards of performance ----- A B C D E
85. Trusts members to exercise good judgment. ----- A B C D E
86. Overcomes attempts made to challenge his/her leadership. ----- A B C D E
87. Refuses to explain his/her actions. ----- A B C D E
88. Urges the group to beat its previous record. ----- A B C D E
89. Anticipates problems and plans for them. ----- A B C D E
90. Is working his/her way to the top. ----- A B C D E
91. Gets confused when too many demands are made of him/her. ----- A B C D E
92. Worries about the outcome of any new procedure. ----- A B C D E
93. Can inspire enthusiasm for a project. ----- A B C D E
94. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations. ----- A B C D E
95. Permits the group to set its own pace. ----- A B C D E
96. Is easily recognized as the leader of the group. ----- A B C D E
97. Acts without consulting the group. ----- A B C D E
98. Keeps the group working up to capacity. ----- A B C D E
99. Maintains a closely knit group. ----- A B C D E
100. Maintains cordial relations with superiors ----- A B C D E

Appendix C: Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)

Indicate by circling the appropriate number the extent to which you perceive each Organizational culture item is characteristic of your department and its values.

	Not At All	Minimally	Moderately	Considerably	Very Much
	1	2	3	4	5
To what extent is your department recognised for its...					
1. Stability	1	2	3	4	5
2. Being people - oriented	1	2	3	4	5
3. Being innovative	1	2	3	4	5
4. Fairness	1	2	3	4	5
5. Being calm	1	2	3	4	5
6. Being reflective	1	2	3	4	5
7. Achievement orientation	1	2	3	4	5
8. Quick to take advantage of opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
9. Having high expectations for performance	1	2	3	4	5
10. High pay for good performance	1	2	3	4	5
11. Security of employment	1	2	3	4	5
12. Enthusiasm for the job	1	2	3	4	5
13. An emphasis on quality	1	2	3	4	5
14. Risk taking	1	2	3	4	5
15. Being distinctive-different from others	1	2	3	4	5
16. Having a good reputation	1	2	3	4	5
17. Being team - oriented	1	2	3	4	5
18. Being results - oriented	1	2	3	4	5
19. Having a clear guiding philosophy	1	2	3	4	5
20. Being competitive	1	2	3	4	5
21. Sharing information freely	1	2	3	4	5
22. Being highly organised	1	2	3	4	5
23. Being socially responsible	1	2	3	4	5
24. Low conflict	1	2	3	4	5
25. Opportunities for professional growth	1	2	3	4	5
26. Collaboration	1	2	3	4	5
27. Praise for good performance	1	2	3	4	5
28. Taking individual responsibility	1	2	3	4	5