

**THE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES SUBORDINATES
VALUE: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ACROSS GENDER AND
NATIONAL CULTURE**

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SHARON GONDONGWE

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Supervisor: Trevor Amos

Abstract

The effectiveness of leadership is largely dependent on whether the leadership competencies exhibited by leaders are congruent with the value system endorsed by subordinates. One of the ways in which leaders can influence subordinates is by understanding the leadership competencies valued by subordinates. Gender and national culture are two of the many factors that have an influence on the leadership competencies valued by subordinates. A large amount of research has been conducted to determine if, indeed, gender and national culture influence the leadership competencies subordinates' value. However, most of this research has been conducted in Europe and North America, places in which national cultures differ significantly from those prevailing in African countries. This study, from a South African and Zimbabwean perspective, attempted to ascertain if gender and national culture influence the leadership competencies they value in their leaders.

Existing studies have indicated that gender and national culture do not influence the leadership competencies valued in a leader. The findings of this study are in accordance with previous research and agree that gender and national culture do not influence the leadership competencies valued in a leader. The results of this study indicated that male and female subordinates value similar leadership competencies. With respect to national culture, both South African and Zimbabwean subordinates value similar leadership competencies. Based on the findings of this study, regardless of gender and national culture, all subordinates value a leader who is loyal, visionary, openly embodies integrity, and is a leader who empowers subordinates.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Preamble

The pursuit of identifying the type of leadership that increases a leader's effectiveness has been a major concern for practicing leaders and scholars alike for several decades.

Literature on leadership has pinpointed the leader as a pivotal actor (Bellou, 2011). However, while the leader is the pivotal actor; leadership lies in the eyes of subordinates (Ali, 2004). Their leadership perceptions are an imperative consideration, as one must first be perceived as a leader to be allowed the necessary discretion and influence to perform effectively (Lord and Maher, 1991). According to Hofstede (1993) cited in Gerstner and Day (1994:2), "leaders derive their *raison d'être* from the people they lead, they are the followers of the people they lead, and their effectiveness depends on the latter". Consequently, the effectiveness of a leader is largely dependent on whether the competencies they exhibit are congruent with the value system endorsed by subordinates (Mellahi, 2000).

A number of factors have been found to influence the leadership competencies valued by subordinates. However, for the purpose of this study the influence of gender and national culture will be explored. The growing presence of women in the workplace has increased the interest in leadership and gender research (Gibson, 1995; Stelter, 2002). Significant changes have occurred over the last two decades that bring into focus the importance of understanding the influence of gender on the leadership competencies valued by subordinates (Gibson, 1995; Cox, 2006). Literature on gender and leadership has mainly focused on male and female leaders and not much consideration has been given to the leadership competencies valued by subordinates, particularly from an African point of view (Cox, 2006; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

Previous research on the influence of gender on leadership has yielded conflicting results. On one hand, some researchers are certain that gender influences the leadership competencies valued by subordinates (Claes, 1999; Cox, 2006; Aldoory and Toth, 2009). On the other hand others have disagreed and believe that gender does not have an influence on the leadership competencies valued (Moran, 1992; Burke and Davidson, 1994; Littrell and Nkomo, 2005;

Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011). This study, therefore, seeks to ascertain if gender will have an influence on the leadership competencies valued by subordinates within a South African and Zimbabwean context.

National culture has been identified as one of the factors that influence the leadership competencies subordinates value. Given the increase in globalisation and increased inter-dependencies among nations, the need for better understanding of national cultural influences on leadership has intensified significantly (Gerstener and Day, 1994; Gibson, 1995). The majority of leadership research has mostly been conducted and established in the United States and Western Europe (Newman and Nollen, 1996). A major issue with applying leadership theories developed and tested in one national culture to other contexts is that they may not be fully applicable to all national cultures. Previous research has demonstrated that what is expected from leaders, what they do and may not do, varies considerably as a result of the cultural forces in the countries or regions in which the leaders function (Newman and Nollen, 1996).

It is imperative that today's leaders understand how individuals from different national cultures view them and interpret their leadership behaviours and styles (Gerstetner and Day, 1994; Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011). Research on the influence of national culture has yielded inconsistent findings; on one hand, some researchers found that national culture has a significant influence on the leadership competencies valued by subordinates (Gerstetner and Day, 1994; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Antonio and Dorfman, 1999; Wallace, 2002). On the other hand some studies found that all subordinates value similar leadership competencies regardless of their national culture (Thomas and Bendixen, 2000; Littrell and Nkomo, 2005; Cox, 2006; Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011; Moan and Hetland, 2012). Building on previous cross-cultural research, this study seeks to ascertain if national culture will have an influence on the leadership competencies valued by South African and Zimbabwean subordinates.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is to understand the leadership competencies valued by subordinates in their leaders. This research seeks to determine if gender and national culture will influence the leadership competencies valued by South African and Zimbabwean subordinates. Furthermore, this research will attempt to understand if there are universal competencies that all subordinates value, regardless of their gender and national culture.

This research will contribute to the knowledge base in human resource management in areas where such research is to date non-existent or minimal. To add on, this research will provide important information for leadership development as it identifies the leadership competencies associated with effective leadership and contextual success. Additionally, this research will provide guidance to current and future organisational leaders to better enable them to work with a diverse labour force. Ultimately, the knowledge gained from this research will enhance existing theories of leadership, making them more comprehensive and universal.

Method of the Study

The positivist research paradigm was proposed for this research. Quantitative research which is based on positivist methodologies is undertaken to answer questions about relationships between the variables. In this study the variables are leadership competencies, gender and national culture. Given the nature of the problem statement and the research in question, the positivist approach seems most appropriate. This methodological approach to identifying relationships between leadership competencies, gender and national culture has been used successfully in previous studies (Cox, 2006; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

This study was conducted on a sample of subordinates of a bank with branches in both South Africa and Zimbabwe. The bank chosen was selected as it is in South Africa and Zimbabwe and this was done to eliminate the possibility that variations could be attributed to organisational differences. The researcher chose South Africa and Zimbabwe as both countries have different national cultures and they are the focus of the researcher's own personal interest. The differences between South Africa and Zimbabwe allow for an appropriate comparative study. Because the researcher is interested in country-level comparisons, the results reported are country-level and are not based on the individual company data.

The data was collected using the survey method through the use of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was based on one originally developed by Salomon and Khabisi (2004) and edited by Cox (2006) which includes thirty-three items of leadership competencies. The final version of the questionnaire consisted of the original thirty-three items and also made provision to capture relevant demographic information (gender and nationality). The participants were asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "no emphasis" to "strong emphasis".

The data collection process began by gaining permission from the two banks to conduct the research. The researcher began by explaining the research goals, research purpose and aims to

two managers, one from each bank. The researcher with the help of an assistant proceeded to collect the data over a period of eight weeks. Subordinates present were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire and the researcher and assistant were available to answer any questions and collect the questionnaires upon completion.

Once the data was collected each questionnaire was numbered and captured onto a Microsoft Excel document and imported into STATISTICA (Version 12) where the analysis of the data took place. Descriptive statistics were used to define the data through histograms and frequency tables. Pearson's chi-square test was utilised to test if there was a relationship between the leadership competencies, gender and national culture. The mean score, standard deviation and ranking for each variable were calculated. The most and least valued leadership competencies were subsequently indicated according to the participants' gender and national culture.

Outline of the Study

This study is divided into eight chapters each making a contribution in determining what leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders and whether national culture and gender influences the leadership competencies subordinates' value in a leader. The chapters are organised as follows:

Chapter two: This chapter will describe research that has been undertaken in leadership thus far, indicating the differences between leadership and management so as to emphasise why leadership and not management is the focus of this study. Thereafter, leadership will be defined. Following this, the leadership theories that have evolved over the years will be discussed. A brief review of key leadership theories will be given. Finally the evolving nature of leadership will be discussed.

Chapter three: This chapter begins by defining leadership competencies. Following this, leadership competency frameworks developed will be presented. Next the benefits of exhibiting leadership competencies valued by subordinates are indicated. Finally, the leadership competencies valued by subordinates are indicated.

Chapter four: This chapter begins by defining gender in the context of this research. Next, the issue of women in leadership will be described from a South African and Zimbabwean perspective and the differences between male and female leadership will also be briefly outlined. Thereafter, the leadership competencies valued by male and female subordinates will be described. Finally, the chapter will end by attempting to give the rationale behind gender differences in leadership.

Chapter five: This chapter begins by defining culture and national culture. Following this, the influence of national culture on the leadership competencies subordinates' value will be discussed. Thereafter, literature on previous cross-cultural studies will be discussed with the specific leadership competencies valued by subordinates from Zimbabwe and South Africa and other national cultures described. This chapter will also highlight the differences in findings of previous cross-cultural research.

Chapter six: This chapter describes the methodology used for this research. This chapter begins by stating the research purpose. Thereafter, the research goals of this study are indicated. The population, target population and sample of the study are defined, as well as the research instrument that was utilised. Following this, the data collection and data analysis will be described outlining the specific steps that were taken for each process. Lastly, the ethical considerations that were taken into account and applied during the data collection and data analysis are indicated, along with the limitations of the study.

Chapter seven: This chapter describes the results of the study. Firstly, the demographic information of the participants is indicated. Secondly, based on the research hypotheses the leadership competencies with and without a significant relationship with gender and national culture are specified. Lastly, the mean and standard deviation for each leadership competence is calculated to establish the most valued and the least valued leadership competencies according to gender and national culture.

Chapter eight: This chapter discusses the implications of the results indicated in chapter seven in accordance with the literature review in previous chapters. This chapter clarifies what leadership competencies subordinates' value and whether or not gender and national culture influence the leadership competencies valued by subordinates. To end this chapter, the implications to leaders and future research ideas are discussed.

Chapter 2

The Nature of Leadership

2.1 Introduction

The pursuit of identifying the type of leadership that increases a leader's effectiveness has been a major concern for practicing leaders and scholars alike for several decades. Formulating the kind of leadership that is effective in today's competitive environment is not an occurrence that develops mystically on its own; it has to be deliberately cultivated. As a result of this motivation to understand, master, cultivate and nurture leadership, an extensive number of leadership theories have been proposed to define the concept and analyse what makes an effective leader (Carlin, 2005).

This chapter will describe the research that has been undertaken in leadership, indicating the differences between leadership and management so as to emphasise why leadership and not management is the focus of this study. Thereafter, leadership will be defined. Following this, the leadership theories that have evolved over the years will be discussed. A brief review of key leadership theories will be given. Finally, the evolving nature of leadership will be discussed.

2.2 Leadership vs Management

The distinction between leadership and management has been a subject of debate for several decades; the two terms have now and again been used interchangeably. The definitions of leadership and management make the assumption that leaders and managers have incompatible ideals and dissimilar behaviours (Kotter, 1990). Leaders focus on people, are risk-tolerant, innovative and visionary, and think long-term whilst managers, on the other hand, focus on processes, are risk-averse (formulistic and objective and think short-term) (Mikoluk, 2013). Managers seek to produce predictability and constancy by setting operational goals, organising, staffing, monitoring and solving problems (Yukl, 2006; George and Jones, 2006). Management relies heavily on the positional power, which is the authority or rank that the individual holds (Yukl, 2006). A leader, however, does not necessarily need positional power; leadership in most instances relies heavily on personal power (Yukl, 2006). Listed below in Figure 2.1 and Table 2.1 is a summary of the differences between leadership and management.

Figure 2.1 Leadership vs Management



Adapted from Sichone (2004)

Table 2.1 Leaders vs Managers

Leader	Manager
Visionary	Rational
Passionate	Consulting
Creative	Persistent
Flexible	Problem solving
Inspiring	Tough-minded
Innovative	Analytical
Courageous	Structured
Imaginative	Deliberative
Experimental	Authoritative
Independent	Stabilising
Shares knowledge	Centralises knowledge

Adapted from Dubrin (2001)

While leadership and management are two separate systems, each with its own functions and characteristics, both activities are necessary for the success of an organisation. “Without effective managers, an organisation risks descending into chaos; without effective leaders, the organisation becomes lethargic and fails to progress” (Carlin, 2005:15). Although the differences between leadership and management have been recognised, the two may never be completely separated (Carlin, 2005).

2.3 Defining Leadership

“There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Stodgill, 1974:259). Many of the leadership definitions that exist are similar, yet each has their own unique ideas (Cox, 2006). Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organisation. The numerous definitions of leadership appear to have little else in common. They differ in many respects including who exerts influence, the intended purpose of the influence, the manner in which influence is exerted and the outcome of the influence attempt (Yukl, 2006).

Listed below in Table 2.2 are some of the leadership definitions presented over the years that cover the core elements of leadership.

Table 2.2 Defining Leadership

Leadership Definitions
<ul style="list-style-type: none">❖ “Leadership is the behaviour of an individual, directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal” (Hempill and Coons, 1957:7);❖ “A leader induces followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations, the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers and the genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their followers’ values and motivations” (Burns, 1978:18);❖ “Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal achievement” (Rauch and Behling, 1984:46);❖ “Leadership is about articulating visions, embodying values and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished” (Richards and Engle, 1986:206);❖ “Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation” (House <i>et al.</i>, 1999:184);❖ “Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2004:3).

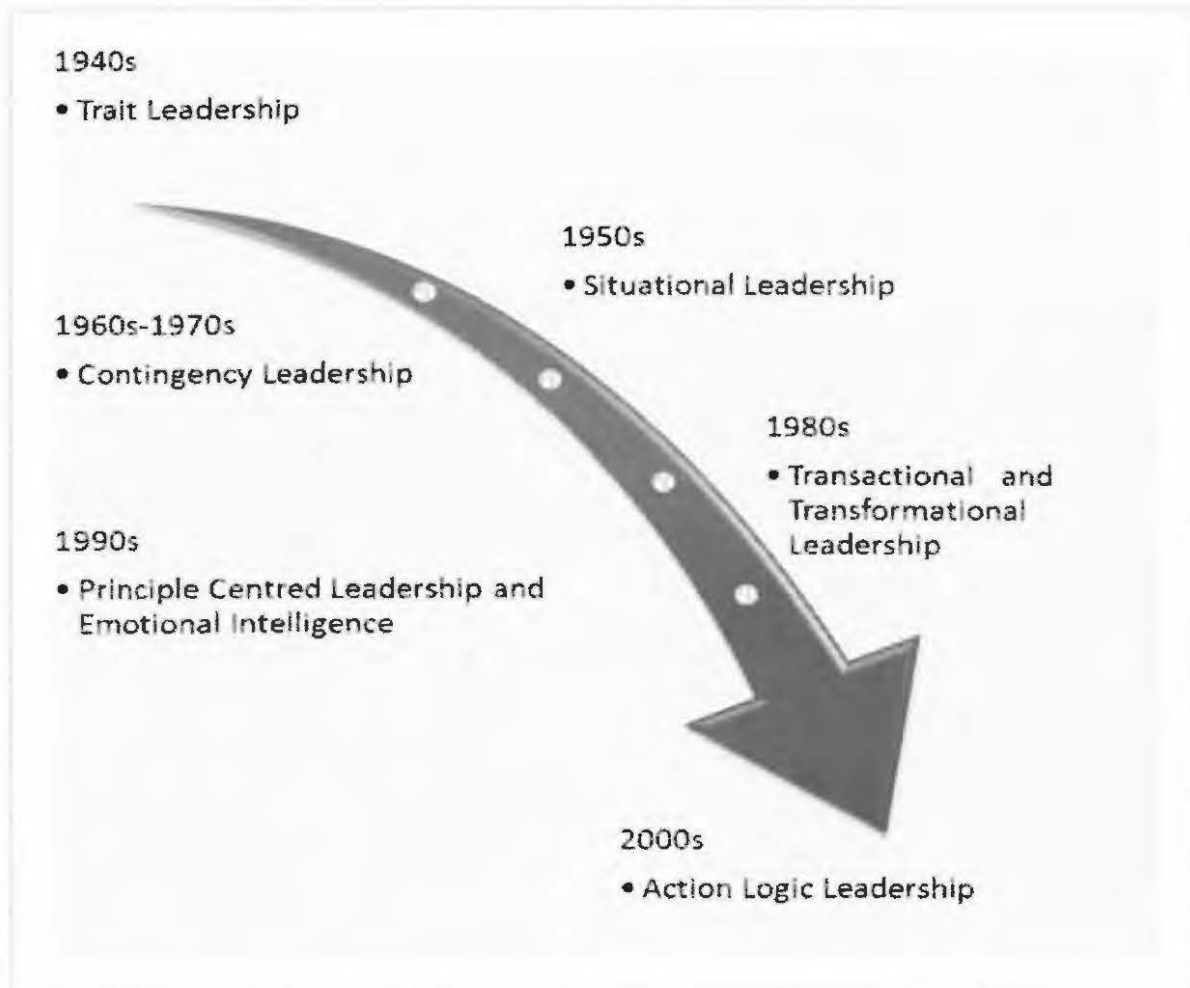
The above definitions demonstrate that leadership involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over followers to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organisation (Yukl, 2006). Now that leadership has been defined, it is important to discuss the key leadership theories that have been developed over the years.

2.4 The Evolution of Leadership Theories

In attempting to better understand the different facets of leadership it is important to look at the leadership theories that have evolved within leadership literature over the years. The various theories of leadership have been categorised as those that are traditional in nature and those that centre on new approaches to leadership (Page, 2011). A review of the massive literature on leadership reveals an evolving series of ‘schools of thought’ from the trait

leadership theory to the more recent action logic leadership theory. Below is a diagrammatic representation of key leadership theories.

Figure 2.2 Leadership Theories



Adapted from Carlin (2005)

2.4.1 Trait Leadership

The trait theory suggests that leadership is based on personality traits and characteristics that leaders possess, giving them the ability to influence followers' beliefs, energies, sentiments, feelings and conduct (Page, 2011). From the beginning of the 20th century to the late 1940s, these trait leadership theories emerged, forming the first attempts at understanding the nature of leadership and included theories such as the 'great man' and the psychological theories (Dannhauser, 2007). According to Dannhauser (2007) the first research on leadership in the early 1900s supported Aristotle's view that leaders are born not made. The assumption is that some individuals are gifted with certain traits and skills that are not possessed by other people which enables them to become better leaders (Northhouse, 2001; Yukl, 2006). The trait theory

highlights the leader's personality, motive, skills and values (Northouse, 2001). Shown below are the leadership traits and skills identified by the trait theory.

Table 2.3 Leadership Traits and Skills

Traits	Skills
Adaptable to situations	Intelligent
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Ambitious and achievement-oriented	Creative
Assertive	Diplomatic and tactful
Cooperative	Organised
Decisive	Socially skilled
Dominant(desire to influence others)	Knowledgeable about group task
Dependable	
Willingness to assume responsibility	
Extroversion	
Adjustment	
Persistent	

Table adapted from Stodgill (1974)

This theory is appealing as it focuses on the leader and provides an in depth understanding of the leader. The trait theory provides a benchmark against which leaders can compare their own capabilities to those 'traits' listed as qualities that make an effective leader (Northouse, 2001; Carlin, 2005). The limitation of this theory, however, is that it does not take into consideration the different situations in which leaders might find themselves in (Carlin, 2005). In addition, this theory does not offer any enlightenment as to how the 'traits' are related to effective leadership (Carlin, 2005). Critics of the trait theory started to look beyond the traits and began to consider how a leader's behaviour predicted how effective the leader was going to be (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman and Humphrey, 2011).

2.4.2 Behavioural Theory

The behavioural theory came about as a result of the shortcomings of the trait leadership theory (Carlin, 2005). This theory was developed in the early 1950s as leadership scholars began to pay much attention to what leaders actually do in their jobs and drew parallels between those specific behaviours and how effective they would be as leaders (Carlin, 2005). The behavioural theory added another dimension to the understanding of leadership, indicating that leadership could be a learned behaviour (Dannhauser, 2007). Some of the main behavioural models included the following:

Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid compares different leadership styles on a grid. The grid illustrates two scopes of leadership behaviour, concern for people on the y-axis and concern for production on the x-axis, each scope ranging from low (1) to high (9) (Dannhauser, 2007). This theory classifies a leader by placing him/her in a position on the grid based on the extent to which a leader's behaviour combines these two leadership styles (Dannhauser, 2007). Blake and Mouton (1964) propose that "Team Management" - a high concern for both employees and production - is the most effective type of leadership behaviour.

The second behavioural leadership model is McGregor's X and Y theory which identifies two types of leadership behaviour (Gosling *et al.*, 2003:7).

The theory X leader believes:

- The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.
- Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort to achieve organizational objectives.
- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all else.

The theory Y leader believes that:

- The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest, and the average human being, under proper conditions, learns not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- People will exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives to which they are committed.
- The capacity to exercise a relatively high level of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population, and the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life.

The behavioural theory broadened the scope of leadership by including the behavioural element. Unlike the trait approach, its degree of reliability was high in that it was supported by a large number of scholars (Northouse, 2001). Furthermore, the behavioural theory provided the basis for the new theories and also provided evidence that suggested that leadership behaviours are crucial predictors of leadership effectiveness (Derue *et al.*, 2011). The limitations of this approach are that it does not take into consideration the situations in which

leadership may transpire and this theory has not been able to ascertain a universal set of behaviours that define leadership effectiveness (Carlin, 2005; Derue *et al.*, 2011).

2.4.3 Situational Leadership

Towards the end of the 1960s leadership researchers began to realise the shortcomings of the trait and behavioural leadership theories. Leadership researchers at this time started to realise the situational nature of leadership (Page, 2011). As a result, previous leadership theories neglecting situational implications were considered inadequate and from the 1960s onwards, attempting to build and improve on the trait and behavioural approaches, leadership researchers expanded their focus to include 'where leadership takes place' (Dannhauser, 2007).

Leadership researchers found that the effectiveness of a leader's behaviour was to a certain extent reliant on a number of situational factors (Yukl, 2006). These factors included the extent of the leader's authority, will and the nature of the external environment. According to situational leadership, if leaders are going to be effective they have to adjust their leadership styles to match the demands of the different situations they find themselves in (Northouse, 2001; Yukl, 2006). Situational leadership has been known to "add value in that it is prescriptive in nature" that is, it prescribes what an individual should/should not do in a particular situation" (Carlin, 2005:24). Despite its strengths this approach also has limitations; unlike other leadership theories it does not have a strong body of research studies to support its assumptions and, as a result, there is an element of ambiguity around the key elements of the theory (Smith and Peterson, 1988; Carlin, 2005).

2.4.4 Contingency Leadership

The contingency models offered by Fiedler (1964), House (1971) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) contended that leadership effectiveness is an interaction of the characteristics of the leaders and the situation in which the leader has to operate (Yukl, 2006). Leader characteristics and the demands of the situation interact to warrant that the leader characteristics match the task at hand. Fiedler's (1964) Contingency Leadership Model was based on the notion that leadership effectiveness was dependent on how prepared the leader was to address effectively a host of situational variables (Gosling *et al.*, 2003). According to House (1971:324), "the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en

route". The leader's task is, therefore, to make sure subordinates understand their goals and minimise as much as possible any obstructions to goal attainment (Yukl, 2006).

The Path-Goal Theory developed by House (1971) is based on the leader's influence on followers' perceptions of work goals, self-development goals and goal attainment (Page, 2011). This theory proposes that effective leaders make clear the paths or behaviours through which followers can achieve their goals, thus increasing followers' motivation and satisfaction (Page, 2011). Consequently, leaders need to adjust their leadership styles to best suit the situation in order to increase effectiveness (Page, 2011). This includes adopting any of the four desirable leadership styles; supportive leadership, participative leadership, directive leadership and achievement-oriented leadership (Page, 2011). The Decision Making Model noted that it was important for a leader to determine how much participation subordinates would have in the decision making process (Vroom and Yeton, 1973). The decision making model was centred on the notion that there was a direct link between subordinates' acceptance of decisions and their productiveness (Yukl, 2006).

2.5. New Leadership Theories

Since the first leadership studies in the early 1900s there have been considerable developments in 'what is leadership' (Page, 2011). The reason for this is that just as organisations have needed to transform to keep up-to-date with modern times, so has leadership (Dannhauser, 2007). Consequently, as times have changed, the current knowledge and practice of leadership has had to develop to accommodate these changes (Sarros and Santora, 2001). Leadership has advanced from traditional trait theories and situational and contingency approaches, to new leadership theories, where traditional autocratic and hierarchical styles of leadership have yielded and still are slowly yielding to newer, more contemporary styles of leadership (Dannhauser, 2007). The focus of these new leadership theories is on the relational aspect of leadership, that is, how leaders and subordinates interact and influence one another (Page, 2011). These new leadership theories have been dominated by two basic views of leadership, namely transactional and transformational. Different leadership theories have continued to emerge as modern day changes bring with them new forms of leadership (Page, 2011).

2.5.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership was first developed by Burns (1974) and later elaborated by Bass (1985). Transactional leadership centres on the exchange theory, the perceptions and subordinate's expectations regarding the actions of their leaders (Yukl, 2006). The

transactional leadership style is described as being founded on more traditional, bureaucratic authority and is focused on maintaining the status quo by influencing follower behaviour (Dannhauser, 2007). Transactional leaders concentrate on task completion and control, exerting their influence and gaining compliance by setting goals and then either exchanging rewards or dispensing punishment based on how satisfactory followers' performance is (Dannhauser, 2007). Transactional leadership includes transactional behaviour styles which include *contingent reward* which describes the extent to which effective transaction and exchange is set-up between a leader and his/her subordinates. To add on, the next behaviour style is *management-by-exception* which defines whether the leaders act to either prevent (active management) or resolve (passive management) problems as they arise (Miles, 2007).

The advantage of transactional leadership is that it is clear and easy to follow. Transactional leadership if applied appropriately is a powerful motivator as money and other tangible rewards are a proven and reliable motivator (Travis, 2013). In addition, the transactional approach to leadership gets results fast especially with short term goals (Travis, 2013). The transactional leadership style is flawed in that it only motivates subordinates at base level. Rewards and punishment do not motivate subordinates at the higher levels of development (Turner, 2012; Travis, 2013).

2.5.2 Transformational Leadership

At its core just like transactional leadership, transformational leadership revolves around leaders and subordinates (Gosling *et al.*, 2003). Transformational leadership is made up of four transformational components. The first component is *idealised influence* which is the leader's ability to engage the subordinate's emotions. The second dimension is *intellectual stimulation* which changes the subordinate's world view into one that filters success through the leader's organisational vision. The third dimension is *individualised consideration* which is the direct interaction between the leader and his/her subordinates for direction, guidance, support and motivation. Finally, the last dimension is the sharing of the vision and strategy to achieve that vision (Gosling *et al.*, 2003; Carlin, 2005; Yukl, 2006; Miles, 2007).

Transformational leadership places emphasis on subordinates' needs and values (Das, 2010; Carlin, 2005). Furthermore, transformational leadership has been widely researched with most scholars agreeing that it is the most appropriate style of leadership (Carlin, 2005). Transformational leadership enables leaders to encourage behavioural changes and motivates subordinates to higher levels of personal achievement (Gosling *et al.*, 2003). The shortcomings

of transformational leadership are that it lacks conceptual clarity, it totally depends on the leaders' abilities and, in some instances, and leaders might lack the required characteristics to be transformational leaders (Das, 2010).

2.5.3 Principle Centred Leadership

The turn of the 1990s saw the development of Covey's principle centred leadership (Carlin, 2005). Principle Centred Leadership is a theory that was developed by Stephen Covey in the 1990s. It identifies 8 principles that are associated with effective leadership. Principle Centred Leadership contends that the possession of these 8 traits characterise effective leadership (Covey, 1990).

Table 2.4 Principle Centred Leadership

8 Characteristics of Principle Centred Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Continually Learning-Learn from their experiences ▪ Service Oriented-Life is a mission ▪ Positive Energy-Cheerful and optimistic ▪ Believe in other-See the potential in others and help to achieve ▪ Lead Balanced Lives-Stay current in social events ▪ See Life as an Adventure- Savour life ▪ Synergistic-Creative change agents ▪ Exercise Self -Renewal-Physical, mental, emotional, spiritual

Adapted from Covey (1990)

In summary, principle centred leadership is based on the notion that “effective leaders are those that continually learn; believe in other people; are active socially, intellectually and physically; are synergistic, that is, they believe that the whole is more than the sum of its parts, and take steps to build on team strengths and complement weaknesses” (Carlin, 2005:29).

2.5.4 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence includes several interrelated components. The first component of emotional intelligence is *self-awareness* which is an understanding of one's own moods and emotions, how they evolve and change over time and their implications for task-performance and interpersonal relationships (Mayer and Salovey, 1993; Goleman, 1998). A second component of emotional intelligence is *empathy* which is the ability to recognise moods and emotions. The third component of emotional intelligence is *self-regulation* which is the ability

to channel emotions into behaviour that is appropriate for the situation, rather than responding on impulse. The fourth element of emotional intelligence is *motivation* which is the passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status and the inclination to pursue goals with energy. The final component is *adeptness in relationships* which is finding common ground and building rapport with subordinates (Goleman, 2004; Carlin, 2005).

Leaders who are high on emotional intelligence understand the emotions surrounding creative endeavours, to be able to awaken and support the creative pursuits of their subordinates and to provide the kind of support that enables creativity to flourish in organisations (George and Jones, 2006). Wong and Law (2002) found that emotional intelligence was related to subordinates' job satisfaction and performance. Leaders with high emotional intelligence perform significantly higher in terms of goal achievement as compared to leaders with low emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998).

2.5.5 Action Logic Leadership

Action logic leadership contends that individuals' ways of thinking will lead them to interpret their environment in particular ways. The way individuals interpret their environments will, therefore, lead them to exhibiting a specific leadership style (Rooke and Torbet, 2005). The 'action logic leadership' framework proposes that individuals can transform from one 'action logic' to another based on the perceived effectiveness of a particular leadership style (Rooke and Torbet, 2005; Carlin, 2005). The leadership styles proposed by this framework include:

1) Opportunist

The opportunist will approach and interpret the outside world in terms of controlling external events and will adopt a leadership style based on the principles of 'winning any way'. The opportunist focuses on short term goals and manages emergencies perfectly (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

2) Diplomat

The diplomat is controlling in terms of his/her behaviour and will adopt a leadership style that is based on the need to belong and maintain the status quo in terms of group norms and avoidance of conflict. The diplomat observes protocol and is committed to routines (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

3) Expert

The expert will interpret the outside world in terms of expertise, knowledge and skills and will adopt a leadership style characterised by logic and expertise. The expert is interested in problem solving and is a perfectionist (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

4) *Achiever*

The achiever will interpret the situation at hand in terms of the contribution others can make to the achievement of goals and will adopt a leadership style that challenges and supports individuals in a team. The achiever focuses on long term goals and the future is a vivid inspiration for the achiever (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

5) *Individualist*

The individualist will interpret the situation at hand in terms of personal understanding of how things should be done and will adopt a leadership style that may ignore the rules and needs of others (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

6) *Strategist*

The strategist will interpret the outside world by considering wider organisational constraints and perceptions and will adopt a leadership style that focuses on getting others to see the bigger picture (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

7) *Alchemist*

The alchemist interprets the outside world by dealing simultaneously with many situations at multiple levels and will adopt a leadership style that integrates individual needs, managerial requirements and organisational demands (Rooke and Torbet, 2005).

The strength of this approach to leadership lies in the fact that different leadership styles are adopted as the effectiveness of a style is largely dependent on a given situation. Leaders are able to be adaptive and innovative in changing environments (Outhwaite, 2009). In terms of shortcomings 'action logic leadership' does not acknowledge the emotional aspects of leadership in describing each of the styles (Rooke and Torbet, 2005; Carlin, 2005).

2.6 Reviewing the Evolution of Leadership Theories: Key Observations

The above literature reveals the rich history of research on leadership and highlights the large number of variables that have throughout the years been identified to explain what makes an effective leader. In reviewing the above approaches to leadership, the following observations were noted:

- The concept of leadership has advanced over time. As new components are recognised, new theories seem to emerge.
- There are deviations in the focus of each of the leadership theories as they attempt to define and explain the concept of leadership.
- The theories, lack of unison and often conflicting content between the leadership theories have the potential to create further misunderstanding and disagreement around what make an effective leader.
- Most leadership theories emphasise the characteristics and actions of the leader without much concern for subordinates' perceptions and preferences; only a small number of the leadership theories emphasise the role of subordinates.
- Theories that focus almost exclusively on the leader are less useful than theories that offer a more balanced explanation and focus on subordinates as well.

Based on the above brief review it is now important to discuss the evolving leadership requirements as leadership as a concept has advanced; new components that define leadership need to be identified and added to the theories (Carlin, 2005).

2.7 Evolving Leadership Requirements

As evident from the above literature, as leadership requirements evolved so did the concept of leadership. In today's world to support changes in organisational systems, leaders need to embrace new ways of leading their subordinates (Carlin, 2005). As new elements of leadership (skills and behaviours) are identified, they are added to the leadership theories (Carlin, 2005). Key changes in organisational systems create new demands on leaders. It is a result of these new demands that leaders are required to embrace diverse leadership styles and approaches (Carlin, 2005). In recent years there have been changes in organisational systems that, in turn, have put pressure on leaders to adjust their leadership styles and approaches (Carlin, 2005).

The first key change is the shift in organisational structures. Many large organisations are moving away from the top heavy hierarchical organisational structure towards a flat organisational structure (Stelter, 2002; Carlin, 2005). According to Carlin (2005) in the 'old world' the autocratic authority relationship between leaders and their subordinates, strict and rigid decision making structures and autocratic leadership styles and behaviours served to make sure that organisations performed. However, in the 'new world' leaders need to be able to create organisations that allow for all individuals in the organisation to be able to express themselves (Carlin, 2005). This shift requires leaders to consider the ideas, beliefs and perceptions of their

subordinates more than they had to in past. The flatter the organisational structure becomes the more leaders and subordinates work together closely as partners (Carlin, 2005). According to Kelley (1998:194) “leaders are partners who simply do different things than followers”, both adding value and contributions are necessary for success”.

Regarding the second key change that has occurred in recent years, as a result of advancement in technology and shifts in social, economic and political factors, national and international boundaries that previously isolated organisations have disappeared (Gibson, 1995). All organisations are now faced with managing cultural diversity and having to listen to the voices of those from different cultural backgrounds. Because of these changes the interactions between individuals from different cultures has increased significantly. If leaders and organisations are going to be effective, they need to be fully aware of how these changes will affect their leadership (Gibson, 1995; Newman and Nollen, 1996).

Moreover, another key change that has resulted from the shift in social and economic factors is the significant increase in the number of women in the workforce (Gibson, 1995). Women are continuously making a major impact through their participation in organisations. It is, therefore, reasonable to assume that the number of women in organisations will continue to increase in the future. If leaders and organisations are going to be effective, they need to be fully aware of how these changes will affect their leadership (Gibson, 1995; Cox, 2006).

The above highlighted changes contribute to the understanding of leadership. Leadership as a concept is evolutionary in nature, that is, leadership does not sit in isolation, but rather impacts upon and is impacted upon by the environment. It is crucial that today’s leaders be aware of these changes to allow them to react accordingly and lead accordingly.

2.8 Conclusion

Leadership theories have over the years evolved to match the evolving leadership requirements. Most leadership theories emphasise the characteristics and actions of the leader without much concern for subordinates’ characteristics; only a small number of the leadership theories emphasise the role of subordinates. To date the changes have included the flattening of organisational structures which have required leaders to pay particular attention to their subordinates. The increase in globalisation and economic and social factors require today’s leader to work more closely with individuals from different national cultures and with more women than they did in the past. This study will, based on the evolving leadership requirements, proceed to discuss how these changes impact leaders and subordinates.

2.9 Chapter Summary

The Nature of Leadership : Key Observations

- ❖ Leadership and management are two separate concepts, each with its own functions and characteristics, both necessary for the success of an organisation.
- ❖ A number of leadership theories have emerged that analyse the concept of leadership.
- ❖ *Trait Theory* - the underlying assumption of trait leadership effectiveness is that leaders should embody certain traits in order to be effective.
- ❖ *Behavioural Leadership* - assumes that effective leaders are those that maximise their efforts on tasks and show concern for others.
- ❖ *Situational Leadership* assumes that effective leadership is reliant on situational factors.
- ❖ *Contingency Leadership* - assumes that leadership effectiveness is as a result of an interaction between the characteristics of the leader and the situation that the leader will operate in.
- ❖ *Transactional Leadership* - assumes that subordinates are motivated by rewards and punishment.
- ❖ *Transformational Leadership* - focuses on team-building, motivation of subordinates and collaboration to accomplish change.
- ❖ *Principle Centred Leadership* - assumes that effective leaders are those who continually learn; believe in other people; are active socially, intellectually and physically; are synergistic, that is, believe that the whole is more than the sum of its parts, and take steps to build on team strengths and complement weaknesses.
- ❖ *Emotional Intelligence* - results in an increase in performance and job satisfaction; this, in turn, may lead to effective leadership.
- ❖ *Action Logic Leadership* - assumes that effective leadership is accomplished as a result of the leader adopting a leadership style that matches how he/she interprets the environment he/she works in.
- ❖ In recent years there have been changes in organisational systems that, in turn, have put pressure on leaders to adjust their leadership styles and behaviours.

Chapter 3

Leadership Competencies

3.1 Introduction

Leadership is the process of being perceived by others as a leader (Lord and Maher, 1991). A person does not become a leader by virtue of possessing a combination of traits and skills; the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and preferences of their followers (Lord and Maher, 1991). To be effective, leaders need to be aware of their own leadership styles and be able to work towards aligning their styles and behaviours with the leadership styles subordinates would want to see them exhibit (Cox, 2006).

This chapter begins by defining leadership competencies. Following this, leadership competency frameworks developed will be presented. Next the benefits of exhibiting leadership competencies valued by subordinates are specified. Finally, the leadership competencies valued by subordinates are indicated.

3.2 Defining Leadership Competencies

A competency is the capacity to use knowledge and other skills necessary for the successful and effective accomplishment of an appointed task, transaction of work, goal realisation or performance of a role in the business process (Gruban, 2003). Leadership competencies are a combination of leadership skills, qualities, behaviours and gathered knowledge that contribute to superior performance and effective leadership (Medves, 2006). Leadership competencies can be classified into the following categories: conceptual, technical and interpersonal (Yukl, 2006; Medves, 2006). Figure 3.1 and Table 3.1 shows the classification of leadership competencies.

Figure 3.1 Leadership Competencies



Table 3.1 Leadership Competencies

Interpersonal	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Foster relationships• Demonstrate respect for others• Create an environment where the leader is approachable and open to new ideas• Be an effective team member• Create an environment that values the diversity of others• Identify personal strengths• Be an effective mentor• Demonstrate empathy for others• Be an effective team leader• Identify strengths and weaknesses in others
Technical	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Possess knowledge about methods and processes• Managerial skills• Decision making skills• Technological skills (IT)
Conceptual	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Create a long term vision for the organisation• Communicate an organisational vision for others• Create an environment where all people take ownership of the vision• Think strategically• Think critically• Think creatively• Set goals• Achieve goals• Help others support organisational goals• Think abstractly as well as linearly

Table adapted from Moor and Rudd (2004) and Medves (2006)

3.3 Leadership Competency Frameworks

A number of organisations have through research developed leadership competency frameworks that are used as guiding principles for leaders. These frameworks are used as a basis for leadership development, outlining the behaviour that is required to achieve business success. To achieve a high standard of people management, some organisations have such frameworks in place. The leadership frameworks listed below highlight the competencies leaders should possess to enable them to lead effectively. Below are illustrations of some of the frameworks developed (Gosling *et al.*, 2003).

3.3.1 Hay McBer Model

This model highlights some of the leadership competencies one must possess to enable one to lead effectively. The leadership competencies in the Hay McBer Model are as follows (Adapted from Gosling *et al.*, 2003):

- Analytical thinking
- Challenge and support
- Confidence
- Developing potential
- Drive and improvement
- Holding people accountable
- Information seeking
- Initiative
- Integrity
- Personal convictions
- Respect for others
- Strategic thinking

3.3.2 Hamlin's Generic Model of Managerial and Leadership Effectiveness

This leadership model differentiates between positive and negative indications of leadership. (Adapted from Gosling *et al.*, 2003):

- **Positive indicators:**
 - Effective organising and planning/proactive management
 - Participative and supportive leadership/proactive team leadership
 - Empowerment and delegation

- Genuine concern for people/looks after the interests and development needs of subordinates
- Open and personal management approach/inclusive decision making
- Communicates and consults widely/keeps people informed
- **Negative indicators:**
 - Shows lack of consideration or concern for subordinates/ineffective autocratic or dictatorial style of leadership
 - Uncaring, self-serving management/undermining, depriving and intimidating behaviour
 - Tolerance of poor performance and low standards/ignoring and avoidance
 - Abdicating roles and responsibilities
 - Resistant to new ideas and change/negative approach

3.3.3 Federal Express Leadership Qualities

(Adapted from Gosling *et al.*, 2003):

- Charisma
- Individual consideration
- Intellectual stimulation
- Dependability
- Flexibility
- Integrity
- Judgement
- Respect for others

Now that the illustrations of different leadership competency frameworks have been presented that show the leadership competencies some organisations expect their leaders to exhibit, it is now crucial to shift focus to subordinates and discuss leadership competencies they value in their leaders.

3.4 Leadership Competencies and Subordinates

“The effectiveness of a leader is determined in great part by the perception of what others have about him or her” (Torres, 2009:4). This means that the leader’s effectiveness depends on the leader’s ability to implement the leadership style and behaviour their subordinates value (Haslam, 2004). It follows then that those who can fulfil the expectations of the subordinates

will be considered leaders and their effectiveness as leaders largely depends on how much they can fulfil those expectations (Torres, 2009).

According to Erez and Early (1993) leadership is evaluated by subordinates in terms of the potential contribution the leadership behaviour and style makes to the subordinates' sense of well-being and self-worth. Leadership that contributes to the fulfilment of the needs of the subordinates are evaluated favourably as they initiate feelings of satisfaction and motivate subordinates to contribute to the organisation. This increased and improved subordinates' performance serves as a stimulus to the leader, who then continues to exhibit the particular leadership behaviour that elicited the improved performance (Erez and Early, 1993).

If a leader is going to effectively lead his/her subordinates, it is crucial that they strive to display the leadership competencies subordinates value (Cox, 2006). There are many different reasons why leaders should work hard to fulfil their subordinates' expectations. Firstly, subordinates become fully aware of and support the organisational objectives and these objectives become personally important to them. Subordinates' behaviour will be consistent with the mission and objectives of the organisation. To add on, a leader who adopts the leadership competencies valued by subordinates will find it easier to create a working environment that encourages creativity and innovation amongst subordinates (Yukl, 2006; Nyanga, 2013). In an organisation where the leader strives to display the leadership competencies valued by subordinates, communication is most likely two-way and effective. In addition, little resistance is shown to leaders who exhibit the leadership competencies valued by subordinates. It is therefore important for leaders to strive to exhibit the leadership competencies their subordinates value, as a misalignment between the two will in most instances lead to ineffective leadership (Yukl, 2006; Cox, 2006; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011; Nyanga, 2013). It is now important to discuss these leadership competencies.

3.5 Leadership Competencies Valued by Subordinates

A number of studies have been conducted to determine the leadership competencies valued by subordinates.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) and Army (2012) found that subordinates value leaders who are authentic, empathetic, reliable, humble and compassionate. Subordinates in a study described their ideal leader as passionate, relationship-oriented, charismatic, loyal, caring, mentoring, passionate, reliable, communicative and leaders who give credit when due. In his study Johnson (1986) observed that subordinates value a leader who is cheerful, has a sense of humour, a

leader who strives to create an informal working environment. In his study Mellahi (2000) found that the five most important leadership competencies to subordinates are visionary, delegate, share power, consistent and technical capability and the least important competencies are religious, conformity, forgiveness, tolerance and harmony.

In a study conducted by Nyanga (2012), the results revealed that subordinates value a leader who appreciates and acknowledges the contribution they make to the organisation. Nyanga's (2012) study also revealed that subordinates value leaders who are able to freely interact with their subordinates. Furthermore, Nyanga (2012) observed that subordinates value leaders who are light hearted, and relax control from time to time and break the routine occasionally. Moreover, this study showed that a leader with high expectations keeps subordinates with a hunger to perform to the best of their abilities and the study revealed that subordinates want that from their leaders as it challenges them (Nyanga, 2012).

Shown below in Table 3.2 is a summary of the leadership competencies subordinates' value.

Table 3.2 Leadership Competencies Valued

Leadership Competencies	
Authentic	Honest
Empathetic	Encouraging
Reliable	Visionary
Humble	Delegate
Compassionate	Forgiving
Charismatic	Tolerant
Loyal	Pleasant
Caring	Communicative
Reliable	Share-power
Passionate	Empowering

In their study Ehrhart and Klein (2001) emphasised the differences in the leadership competencies valued by subordinates. The study sought to understand subordinates' perceptions of charismatic leadership, task-oriented leadership and relationship-oriented leadership (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001). According to this study, a charismatic leader is one who "communicates high performance expectations to his/her subordinates, shows his/her subordinates that they have confidence in their abilities to achieve their work goals, takes risks and is innovative" (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001:158). In addition, a relationship-oriented leader is "one who treats subordinates with respect and thoughtfulness, values communication with and

listening to his/her subordinates, shows trust and confidence in his/her subordinates and finally shows appreciations for subordinates' work efforts" (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001:158). Finally a task oriented leader "is one who guides subordinates in setting goals and objectives that are realistic and still challenging at the same time, provides necessary supplies and resources and technical assistance" (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001:159). Shown below in Table 3.3 are the results of this study.

Table 3.3 Ehrhart and Klein's Study

Leader	Participants with high preference	Participants with low preference
<i>Charismatic</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encouraging • Team-oriented, empowering • Goal-oriented, creative • Creative, adaptive and open-minded • Creative, innovative, committed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ambitious, zealous and arrogant • Too pushy • Overbearing, over-enthusiastic • Over-confident, all talk and narrow-minded
<i>Relationship-oriented</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friendly, trusted, reliable, accountable, flexible • Caring, kind, thoughtful • Conscientious, sympathetic, trusting, supportive • Generous, friendly • Considerate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal, too much drive, underachiever • Nice, emotional and naïve • Flimsy, soft, people-oriented • Condescending • Unassertive, over-trusting • Overbearing and domineering • Boring, rigid and controlling
<i>Task-oriented</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efficient, respected • Realistic, explicit, technically perfect • Hard worker, good people skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Untrusting, pushy, strict • Dictatorial, too assertive • Dogmatic, overbearing

Adapted from Ehrhart and Klein (2001)

The results of this study revealed subordinates favour different leadership competencies and evaluate similar leadership behaviours in a different way (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001). For instance the charismatic leader who is perceived by some subordinates as encouraging, empowering, team-oriented and committed is viewed by other subordinates to be zealous, arrogant, too pushy and overbearing. The relationship-oriented leader who is friendly, reliable,

caring, sympathetic and supportive to one subordinate is regarded as naïve, an under-achiever, and unassertive by other subordinates. Furthermore, the task-oriented leader who is perceived as efficient, organised, hardworking and efficient is viewed as being pushy, strict, too assertive and overbearing by other subordinates (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001).

The findings of this study reveal that subordinates differ in their preferences for different types of leadership. These results show how important it is for leaders to be aware of the leadership competencies subordinates look for in them and how their leadership styles and behaviours are evaluated by subordinates. A leader may be satisfying, inspiring and motivating to some subordinates but be dissatisfying and demotivating to other subordinates (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001). A leader may act in an identical manner towards all subordinates but not all subordinates will evaluate the leader's behaviour similarly. The results of this study reveal that subordinates may differ in their perceptions and interpretations of identical sets of leader behaviour (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001). It is, therefore, important for a leader to be aware of the leadership competencies subordinates value and strive to display these leadership competencies (Ehrhart and Klein, 2001; Cox, 2006; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

3.6 Conclusion

In today's world it is important for leaders to pay close attention to their subordinates and recognise what it is they look for in them. It is important to note that effective leadership is not merely about adopting the leadership traits and skills that are said to be the makings of an effective leader but it is about exhibiting the actual leadership competencies that subordinates value. Because subordinates are likely to value different leadership competencies, it is crucial that leaders be aware of the leadership competencies their subordinates value in them in order to be effective.

There are a number of factors that influence the leadership competencies an individual values in their leader. Some of the factors that influence the leadership competencies that subordinates value include age, race, organisational culture, educational background, national culture, gender, personal values and beliefs, to mention just a few. Since organisations are becoming more diverse in terms of women and different individuals from diverse national cultures, it was decided that the leadership competencies valued by subordinates based on their gender and national culture would be the focal point of this study.

3.7 Chapter Summary

Leadership Competencies - Key Observations

- ❖ The effectiveness of a leader is determined in great part by the perceptions of what others have about him/her.
- ❖ In order to be effective it is important for leaders to pay close attention to the leadership competencies valued by subordinates.
- ❖ Leadership competencies are a combination of skills, traits, behaviours and gathered knowledge that contribute to superior performance and effective leadership.
- ❖ Subordinates value leaders who are: authentic, reliable, compassionate, empathetic, humble, passionate, relationship-oriented, task-oriented, inspirational, honest, cheerful, appreciative, caring, trustworthy, sense of humour, good mentor, visionary, and objective, competent, loyal, self-confident, ethical, intelligent, nurturing, charismatic, empowering and respectful.
- ❖ Subordinates may differ in their perceptions and interpretation of identical sets of leader behaviour.
- ❖ A leader may be satisfying and inspiring and motivational to some subordinates and dissatisfying and demotivating to other subordinates.
- ❖ Subordinates are likely to value different leadership competencies; it is crucial for leaders to be aware of the leadership competencies valued by their subordinates in order to be effective.

Chapter 4

The Influence of Gender on Leadership

4.1 Introduction

Significant changes have occurred over the last two decades that bring into focus the importance of understanding the influence of gender on leadership (Gibson, 1995). As more women gain the work experience and education necessary, organisations are subsequently called on to establish and expand their notions of what constitutes effective leadership as it relates to gender (Stelter, 2002). As women become more prevalent in South African and Zimbabwean organisations, research relevant to gender and leadership continuously becomes more important (Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011). While research on leadership and gender continuously increases, much of the research has been conducted in Western countries and not much research has been carried out on leadership and gender from an African perspective, particularly in South Africa and Zimbabwe (Cox, 2006; Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011). It is for this reason that this study will seek to understand the influence of gender on the leadership competencies subordinates value.

This chapter begins by defining gender in the context of this research. Next, the issue of women in leadership in South Africa and Zimbabwe and the differences between male and female leaders will be briefly outlined. Thereafter, the leadership competencies valued by male and female subordinates will be described. Finally, the chapter will end by attempting to give the rationale behind the gender differences in leadership.

4.2 Defining Gender

'Gender' and 'sex' are terms that have now and again been frequently used interchangeably and a distinction between the two needs to be made. Gender as a concept includes the expectations society holds on the behaviour of males and females (Nwobodo, 2008). According to Nwobodo (2008:5) "gender is not inborn but is cultivated, nurtured and cultured as part of the socialisation progression". Gender determines what is expected and acceptable in a woman or a man in a given context (Nwobodo, 2008). Sex, on the other hand, is 'a biological type' where individuals are born with either a male or female sex type (Cox, 2006). According to Nwobodo (2008:4) sex refers to the "biological/physiological differences between a male and a female". This difference between gender and sex is highlighted more clearly by Abercrombie, Hill and Turner (1984:95) who state that, "the sex of a person is biologically determined and the gender of a person is culturally and socially constructed".

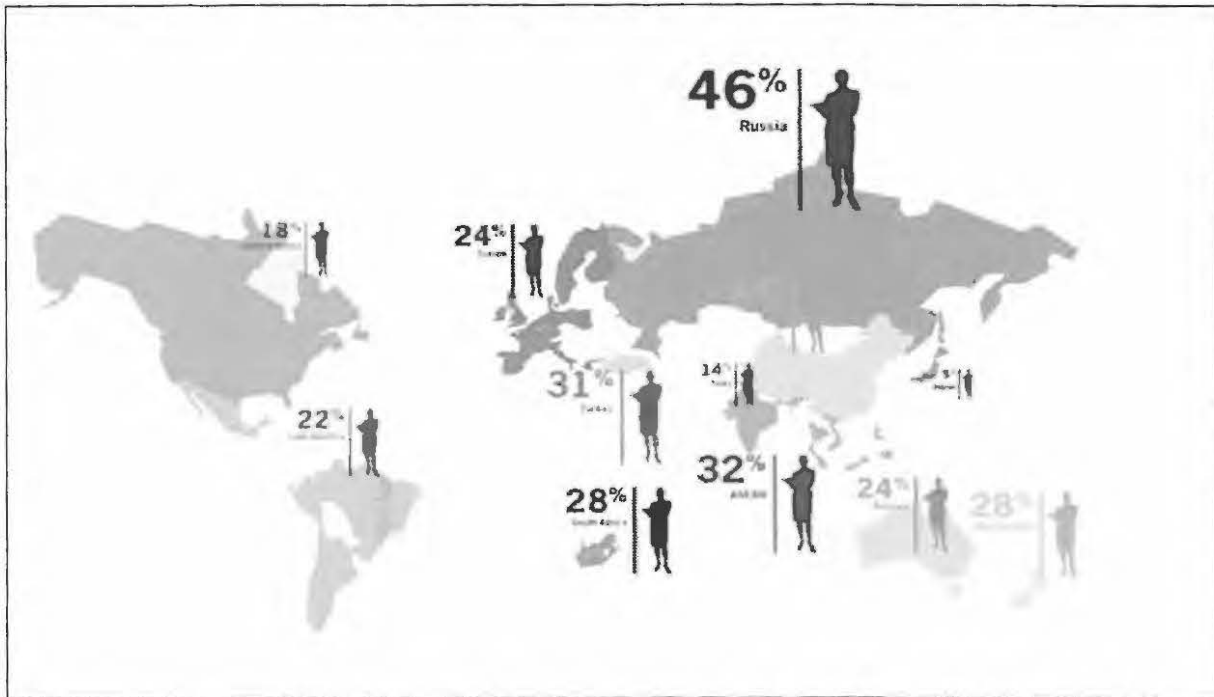
Differentiating between genders is called *gender stereotyping* and is used to identify the psychological characteristics that are used to differentiate between males and females (Bellou, 2011). Based on the gender stereotypes men are considered to be dominant, objective, aggressive, impersonal, analytical, decisive, intuitive, rational, logical, assertive, confident, ambitious and independent. Women, on the other hand, are considered to be sociable, nurturing, intuitive, sensitive, submissive, warm, tactful, emotive, friendly, empathetic, caring and sensitive (Williams and Best, 1990; Eagly and Wood, 1991; Gibson, 1995; Park, 1996; Osland, Snyder and Hunter, 1998; Cox, 2006).

4.3 Leadership and Gender

According to Stelter (2002) the comparative scarceness of women in senior leadership positions is not a new occurrence and can be confirmed both nationally and internationally. This could be explained by the 'glass ceiling' effect. The glass ceiling effect is a term often used to describe the invisible barriers that women face as they climb the corporate ladder. It has been defined as "a barrier to entry into top-level leadership positions based on attitudinal or organisational bias simply because they are women rather than because they lack the ability to handle higher level jobs" (Zinyemba, 2013:5). These barriers are seen as blocking women leaders from moving up the corporate ladder.

Although women account for 47% of the global labour force, they only account for 5% of top leadership positions (Zinyemba, 2013). Figure 4.1 shows a diagrammatic representation of women in top leadership positions worldwide.

Figure 4.1 Women in Leadership



Adapted from Kasperkevic (2012)

Before discussing the influence of gender on leadership it is crucial to describe women in leadership from a South African and Zimbabwean perspective.

4.3.1 Women in Leadership: A South African Context

The South African government since 1994 has placed a lot of focus on achieving gender equality. This effort has subsequently led to the significant rise in the number of women joining the workforce (Cox, 2006). It is, however, important to note that, though there are more women joining the workforce, there is still a significant misrepresentation of women in top leadership and senior managerial positions (Littrell and Nkomo, 2005). In 2012 a census on the proportion of women in senior leadership positions in South Africa was conducted. The census found that women occupied only “3.6% of Chief Executive Officer (CEO), 5.5 % of chairperson posts, 17.1 % of directorships and 21.4% of executive management positions in South Africa” which is a significant increase over the years (Business Women’s Association, 2012). For instance, in 2004 when the first national survey on the status of corporate women was conducted, the results showed that only seven companies had female Chief Executive Officers (CEO), 15% women were in executive management and only 7% were in directorship (Business Women’s Association, 2005). Research suggests women in South Africa face similar barriers to their progress and upward mobility as their female counterparts in the rest of the world (Littrell and Nkomo, 2005).

4.3.2 Women in Leadership: A Zimbabwean Context

The Zimbabwean government after gaining independence in 1980 took a proactive approach to addressing gender equality issues (Makombe and Geroy). According to Mandaza (1986) pressure to address gender disproportions arose from a historical conception of women's active participation in the fight for national liberation in Zimbabwe. Because of the equality that was prevalent amongst the genders during the liberation struggle, there was intensifying pressure to restore the existing gender inequalities in Zimbabwe (Makombe and Geroy). This saw a noteworthy number of women in Zimbabwe enter the workforce as several regulations and strategies were applied to improve the circumstance of women in Zimbabwe (Makombe and Geroy). However, while women in Zimbabwe have managed to join the workforce, a small number of women have gained access to senior and top leadership positions in organisations. According to Makombe and Geroy, there is very little empirical research on women in leadership in Zimbabwe. The last empirical research was conducted by Zigomo-Nyatsanza (2001) which dates back to 2001 and the results showed that women senior managers in the public and private service constituted 19.7% of total management (Makombe and Geroy). A similar study conducted in 2004 yielded similar results and concluded that women are still underrepresented in top leadership positions (Zinyemba, 2013).

4.3.3 Male vs. Female Leadership

Based on the above evidence, although the percentage of women in top leadership positions is increasing, there are still hesitations about women's leadership capabilities and leadership is still defined in masculine terms. Slowly the situation continues to change as more women attain top leadership positions (Stelter, 2002). It is now important to discuss the findings of previous research on leadership and gender.

Research on male and female leadership has yielded conflicting findings. On the one hand, some researchers have found that male and female leaders adopt similar leadership competencies whilst other researchers found that one's gender does not influence the leadership competencies they will exhibit. For instance, Rosener's study (1990) found that men and women incline toward opposite leadership styles. The study revealed that female leadership is characterised by attempts to encourage participation, power-sharing, heighten the self-worth of others and behaviours that are interrelated to transformational leadership. The study found male leadership to be characterised by transactional leadership, offering rewards in exchange for services rendered or punishment for inadequate performance (Rosener, 1990). Research also revealed that female leaders are more emphatic and more willing to take risks than male

leaders (Nwobodo, 2008). Female leaders are compassionate and flexible and are characterised by heightened interpersonal skills. Bass and Stogdill (1990) found specific gender differences in leadership style. Women leaders can be described as charismatic, caring and taking nurturing relationships with their subordinates seriously. Male leaders are directive and bureaucratic (Bass, 1990; Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Rigg and Sparrow (1994) in their work found that women leaders emphasise the importance of collaboration and are usually associated with personal leadership, whereas men are usually associated with professional leadership.

Shown below in Figure 4.2 are the results of a study conducted on the differences in male and female leadership (Zenger and Folkman, 2012).

Figure 4.2 The Top 16 Competencies Top Leaders Exemplify Most

The Top 16 Competencies Top Leaders Exemplify Most			
	Male Mean Percentile	Female Mean Percentile	T value
Takes Initiative	48	56	-11.58
Practices Self-Development	48	55	-9.45
Displays High Integrity and Honesty	48	55	-9.28
Drives for Results	48	54	-8.84
Develops Others	48	54	-7.94
Inspires and Motivates Others	49	54	-7.53
Builds Relationships	49	54	-7.15
Collaboration and Teamwork	49	53	-6.14
Establishes Stretch Goals	49	53	-5.41
Champions Change	49	53	-4.48
Solves Problems and Analyzes Issues	50	52	-2.53
Communicates Powerfully and Prolifically	50	52	-2.47
Connects the Group to the Outside World	50	51	-0.78
Innovates	50	51	-0.78
Technical or Professional Expertise	50	51	-0.11
Develops Strategic Perspective	51	49	2.79

Source: Zenger Folkman Inc., 2012

Adapted from Zenger and Folkman (2012)

Based on the results of this study, women scored higher on the ability to take initiative, the ability to drive for results, build relationships, being able to inspire and motivate others, communicate powerfully and prolifically and the ability to develop others, while men scored higher on the ability to develop strategic perspectives.

Shown below in Table 4.1 is a summary of the leadership competencies indicated in the above literature.

Table 4.1 Male and Female Leadership

Female Leaders	Male Leaders
Empathetic	Dominant
Charismatic	Independent
Nurturing	Self-reliant

Compassionate	Self-sufficient
Democratic	Autocratic
Interpersonal skills	Strict
Empowering	Dominant
Relationship-oriented	Task-oriented

It is apparent from the above literature that there are many ideas regarding the leadership competencies adopted by male and female leaders, keeping in mind that the focus of this particular research is on the leadership competencies subordinates' value. The specific competencies that are valued by subordinates will now be discussed.

4.4 Competencies Valued in a Leader

A number of leadership and gender research studies focusing on subordinates have found that that male and female subordinates value different leadership competencies (Brownell, 1994; Kent and Moss, 1994). Studies revealed that female subordinates value passion, kindness, respect, motivation, enthusiasm, interpersonal skills and ambition in their leaders (Brownell, 1994; Cox, 2006). Female subordinates value a leader who is caring, participative, people-oriented and considerate and adopts a transformational style of leadership (Claes, 1999). Male subordinates, on the other hand, value a leader who is independent, loyal, autocratic, assertive and confident, and adopts a transactional style of leadership (Claes, 1999; Cox, 2006).

The gender-centred model (Lewis and Fagenson-Eland, 1998) that highlights feminine and masculine tendencies, points out that there are psychological differences between men and women. These psychological differences are the reason men and women favour different leadership competencies. The gender-centred model indicates that men prefer task-oriented behaviours, whilst women prefer relationship-oriented behaviours (Hammick and Acker, 1998; Lewis and Fagenson-Eland, 1998; Cox, 2006).

In their study Aldoory and Toth (2009) found that more women agreed that effective leaders are those that strive to create personal connections with subordinates. More women valued leaders who create good rapport with their subordinates, leaders who share decision-making power, leaders who value two-way communication and, lastly, leaders who "look out for people whether they work under you or not" (Aldoory and Toth, 2009). The study revealed that more men than women valued a leader who uses tangible rewards as incentives for motivation.

It can, therefore, be concluded that female subordinates value leadership competencies associated with female leadership and male subordinates' value the leadership competencies associated with male leaders. This further emphasises the notion that gender has an influence on leadership competencies valued by subordinates and leadership competencies adopted by male and female leaders (Cox, 2006). Shown below in Table 4.2 is a summary of the leadership competencies male and female subordinates' value based on the above literature.

Table 4.2 Leadership Competencies Valued by Male and Female Subordinates

Female Subordinates	Male Subordinates
Passion	Independence
Kindness	Loyalty
Respect	Authoritative
Ambitious	Strict
Enthusiasm	Dominant
Caring	Objective
Participative	Ambitious
People-oriented	Self-reliant
Considerate	Assertive
Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership

4.5 Conclusion

It is clear from the above literature that women are significantly misrepresented in leadership positions. Women account for 47% of the global labour force; they only account for 5% of top leadership positions. A number of studies have compared and contrasted male and female leadership. These studies have concluded that men and women incline toward opposite leadership styles. Female leadership is characterised by empathy, compassion, and personal communication, relationship-building and transformational leadership. Male leadership, however, is characterised by transactional leadership, dominance, independence and assertiveness.

Several studies have also noted the differences between the leadership competencies males and females value. These studies have revealed that female subordinates value feminine qualities and male subordinates value masculine qualities. Although several studies have contended to the notion that male and females favour different leadership competencies, some researchers do not agree. According to some leadership researchers, gender does not influence the

leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders. It is, therefore, crucial to ascertain if similar results will be found in this study.

4.6 Chapter Summary

The Influence of Gender: Key Observations

- ❖ Although the number of women joining the workforce continues to increase, women in top leadership positions continue to be misrepresented with very few women making it to top leadership positions.
- ❖ A number of studies have also been conducted on the leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders.
- ❖ Studies conducted found that female subordinates value leaders who are: humble, reliable, empathetic, nurturing, caring, trustworthy, charismatic, sensitive, emotive, kind, and respectful, adopt transformational leadership, and are relationship-oriented.
- ❖ Male subordinates value leaders who are: assertive, aggressive, dominant, authoritative, objective, independent, loyal, task-oriented, and authoritative and adopt a transactional leadership style.
- ❖ The notion that female and male subordinates value different leadership competencies is by no means a unanimous view. Some researchers believe that there are no differences between the leadership competencies male and female subordinate's value.
- ❖ A number of theoretical models have been used to explain the rationale behind gender differences in leadership.
- ❖ *Social-role Theory*: gender differences can be accounted for by socialisation of the individual genders.
- ❖ *Relational Theory*: this theory contends that the primary human motivation is to develop and maintain relationships; men and women approach this motivation differently.
- ❖ *Attachment Theory*: an independent behavioural system organised by and around specific early caregiver relationships that results in various combinations of interpersonal relation styles and men and women approach attachment aspects differently.
- ❖ *Structural Theory*: people's behaviours are usually highly specific to the situations that they find themselves in, so men and women who find themselves in similar organisations are likely to exhibit similar behaviours and have similar values, beliefs and preferences.

Chapter 5

The Influence of National Culture on Leadership

5.1 Introduction

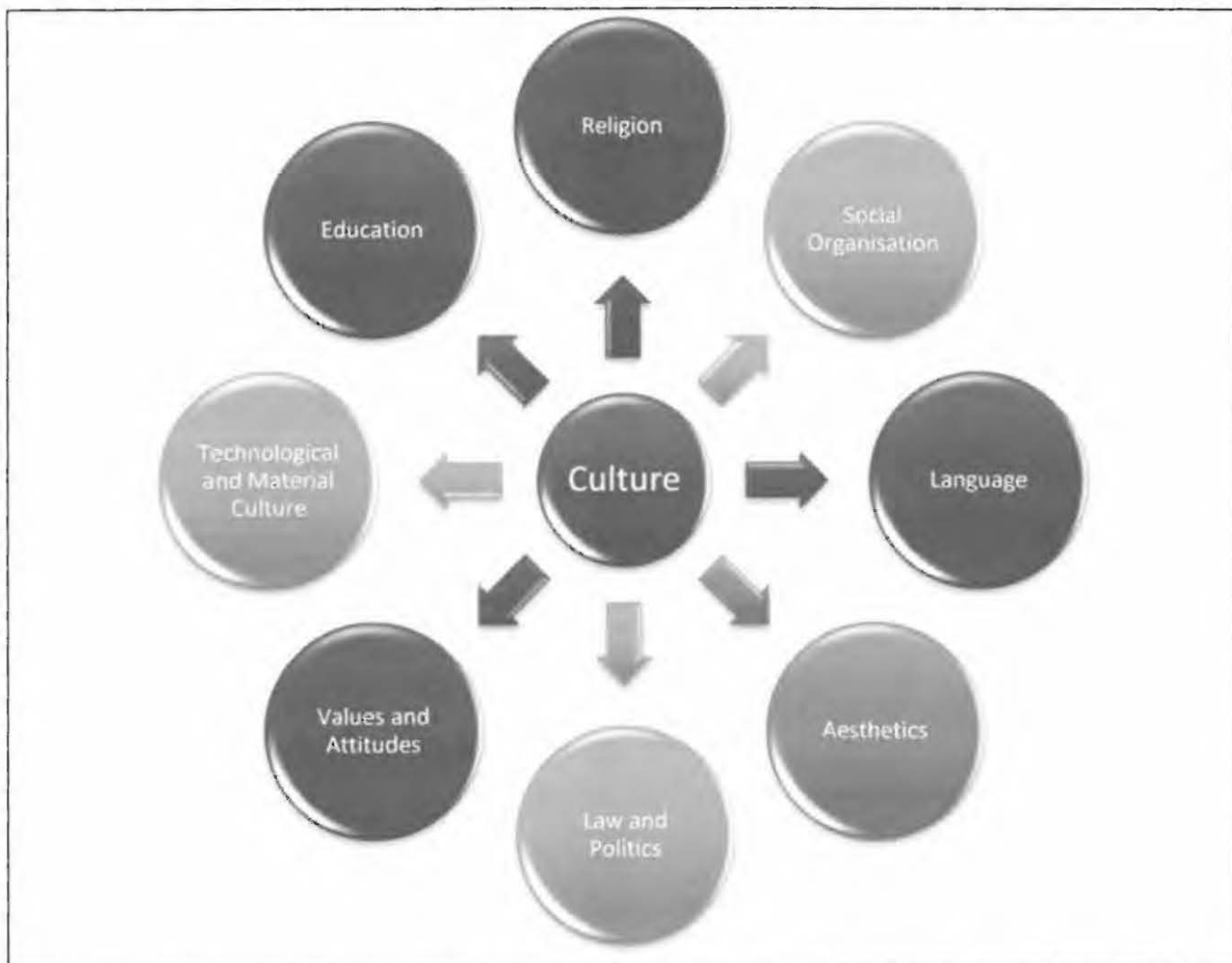
The study of leadership is deeply attached to national culture. Leadership style, behaviour and the leadership competencies subordinates' value undoubtedly mirror what is regarded as effective and appropriate within a national culture (Shahin and Wright, 2004). It is for this reason that leaders need to be conscious of the competencies that subordinates from different national cultures value as so to lead them appropriately.

This chapter begins by defining culture and national culture. Following this, the influence of national culture on the leadership competencies valued by subordinates will be discussed. Thereafter previous literature will be discussed regarding the specific leadership competencies valued by subordinates from different national cultures indicated. This chapter will also highlight the differences in findings of previous cross-cultural research.

5.2 Defining Culture

According to Hofstede (2001) culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes individuals of one group to another. Adler (2002:1) defined culture as “a way of life of a group of people; it is a set of parameters of collectives that differentiate the collectives from each other in meaningful ways”. Culture includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and other experiences and customs acquired by man as a member of a society (Holmberg and Akerblom, 2006). Based on the above definitions; culture is a shared way of life where individuals that belong to a group of individuals share certain values, beliefs and behaviours (Hofstede, 2001; Adler, 2002; House *et al.*, 2004; Holmberg and Akerblom, 2006). The eight categories of culture are presented below in figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Categories of Culture



Adapted from Terpstra and Sarathy (2000)

5.2.1 Defining National Culture

For the purpose of this study the researcher will focus on South African and Zimbabwean subordinates and the national cultural differences between the two. It is therefore important to define national culture.

National culture is the “collective programming of the mind that differentiates individuals of one nation from another” (Hofstede, 1980). Individuals belonging to one national culture develop a ‘collective programming’ as a result of the experience that they share as a nation (Hofstede, 1980). Beck and Moore (1985) defined national culture as “the beliefs, values and norms learned in early childhood that differentiate one group of people from another”. National culture comprises values, beliefs, attitudes, norms and the behavioural patterns of individuals from a country. National culture is shaped by factors such as ecological factors, educational systems, technological development, shared history, government and legal systems, political structures, language and religions (Hofstede, 1980; Adler, 2002; Singh and Parashar). The intertwined nature of national culture is clarified by Mullins (2010) below in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 Categories of National Culture



Adapted from Mullins (2010)

5.2.2 National Culture: A South African Context

South Africa's population is estimated to be 52 million and is made up of many different cultures and sub-cultures. Almost 79.2 % of the population are Africans (blacks), 8.9% are Whites, 8.9 % Coloureds, 2.5% Indians and Asians, and 0.5 are Other/Unspecified (StatsSA, 2011). There are 11 official languages: Afrikaans, English, Zulu, Xhosa, Venda, Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tswana, Ndebele, Swazi and Tsonga (StatsSA, 2012). The adult literacy rate in South Africa is 92.9 % (Pretorius, 2013). In terms of religion South Africa is a secular democracy with freedom of religion. Many religions are represented in the ethnic and regional diversity of South Africa's population (International Religious Freedom Report, 2007). South Africa is a parliamentary representative democratic republic. In terms of the legal system, the Constitution of South Africa is the supreme rule of law in the country. The primary sources of South African law are Roman-Dutch mercantile law and personal law with English Common law, as imports of Dutch settlements and British colonialism (Barratt and Snyman, 2002).

5.2.3 National Culture: A Zimbabwean Context

Zimbabwe's estimated population is 13 million and consists of many different cultures and sub-cultures. Nearly 98% are Black Africans (ZimStats, 2012). Of the remaining 2% the great bulk are Whites and the remainder are Coloureds and Asians. Almost 70% of the Black African population is Shona speaking, 20% is Ndebele and the remainder includes Chewa, Kalanga, Ndau, Sotho, Tonga, Venda, Xhosa, Shangani and Nambya (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013). In terms of education, due to large investments in education since independence Zimbabwe has one of the highest adult literacy rates in Africa which in 2013 was 90.70% (The African Economist, 2013). In terms of politics, Zimbabwe is a republic with a presidential system of government (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2005). The legal system is based on Roman-Dutch law with South African influences. It is estimated that between 60 and 70 % of Zimbabweans belong to mainstream Christian denominations such as the Roman Catholic, Anglican and Methodist Churches; however, over the years a variety of indigenous churches and groups have emerged from these mainstream denominations. Islam accounts for 1 % of the population (International Religious Freedom Report, 2007).

5.2.4 Sophisticated Stereotyping

Based on the above, there are many different cultures and sub-cultures that exist in South Africa and Zimbabwe. However, for the purpose of this study the researcher will employ the use of *sophisticated stereotyping*. *Sophisticated stereotyping* is the assumption made by

national cultural scholars that national culture is homogenous, that is, individuals from one country have similar beliefs and values and share a “national character” (Hofstede, 1980; Singh and Parashar). *Sophisticated stereotyping* is understood as “the phenomenon of reducing the complexities of culture to a simpler and generalised description” (Singh and Parashar). *Sophisticated stereotyping* is useful in making comparisons between national cultures; it makes use of more generalised descriptions of culture and does not attempt to understand the wide variations of behaviours within a single culture (Singh and Parashar). *Sophisticated stereotyping* offers a basic cultural knowledge for leaders and the complexities found within cultures are not delved into (Singh and Parashar). The benefit of *sophisticated stereotyping* is that it offers a basic cultural knowledge and is useful for leaders to deduce the cultural behaviours in a given country.

While *sophisticated stereotyping* assumes that national culture is homogenous, this is largely questioned by many scholars, as countries are characterised by diverse cultures within the national culture (Singh and Parashar). It is important to note that cultures can run over national borders and differ within national borders as well (Gibson, 1995; Adler, 2002). *Sophisticated stereotyping* does not convey the complexities found within cultures (Singh and Parashar). For the purpose of this study the researcher will use *sophisticated stereotyping* and assume that individuals of the two countries each share a “national character” (Singh and Parashar).

5.3 Leadership and National Culture

The majority of research on leadership has been conducted and established in the United States and Western Europe (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Yan and Hunt, 2005; Cox, 2006). This has resulted in leaders and academics in Africa having to turn to the leadership theories from the West. A major issue with applying theories on leadership developed and tested in one national culture to another is that it may not be fully applicable to all national cultures (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Yukl, 2006).

According to Newman and Nollen (1996) “there is empirical evidence that national cultures vary and that a variety of leadership practices and human resource management differs by national culture”. Different national cultures will value different leadership competencies and subordinates from the same national cultures are likely to be motivated by similar leadership competencies (Fontaine and Richardson, 2003). It is important for leaders to have a deep understanding of the role national culture plays in influencing the leadership competencies valued by subordinates (Newman and Nollen, 1996, Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

There are many forces that contribute to an organisation's success and, since national culture is one of them, it is important that organisations review how leaders treat their subordinates from different national cultures (Petrov, 2006; Tarras *et al.*, 2011). Organizations should consider finding innovative ways to retain capable, skilful subordinates otherwise they run the risk of losing them to competitors (Petrov, 2006). The more diverse a work team is, the more effective it can be if the leaders can recognise the contributions of those who are different from them (Petrov, 2006). Leaders that accept that national cultural differences exist are able to identify important benefits and strengthen long-term competitiveness (Petrov, 2006).

Taras, Steel and Kirkman (2011) designed a model that illustrates the relationship between national culture and its influence on subordinates' job performance. According to Taras *et al.* (2011) national culture is strongly related to emotions, followed by attitudes and perceptions, then behaviours and, finally, by job performance. These directly reflect the fundamental influence of national culture (Taras *et al.*, 2011).

Figure 5.3 Process Model of National Cultural Value Effects on Job Performance



Adapted from Taras, Steel and Kirkman (2011)

If leaders are going to be successful in leading subordinates from different national cultures, the influence national culture has on the leadership competencies they value should be taken into consideration (Cox, 2006).

5.4 Competencies Valued in a Leader: A Zimbabwean and South African Perspective

While there have not been a large number of cross-cultural studies conducted on South Africa and Zimbabwe, there have been a few studies that describe the leadership competencies South African and Zimbabwean subordinates look for in their leaders.

In his study Manwa (2002) found that Zimbabwean subordinates value logic, aggressiveness, competitiveness, objectivity and intuition in their leaders. The results of this study also indicated that Zimbabwean subordinates consider emotional expressiveness as the least important leadership competency (Manwa, 2002). Zimbabwean subordinates value a leader who is respectful, light hearted, passionate about their work, self-confident, gives credit when its due, cheerful and a leader who strives to create a 'spirit of collegiality'. Zimbabwean subordinates favour a leader who freely mixes and mingles with subordinates, which in turn helps to remove a tense and intimidating work environment (Nyanga, 2013). Furthermore, the results of Nyanga's study (2013) showed that Zimbabwean subordinates value a leader who is caring, willing to reach out to subordinates and provide needed assistance in practical ways, such as attending their weddings and funerals.

A number of studies have been conducted in South Africa on the leadership competencies valued by subordinates in their leaders. According to Martins and Coetzee (2007), South African subordinates value a leader who is positive and supportive, respectful, a leader who communicates effectively, a leader who involves subordinates in the decision making processes that affect them (Martins and Coetzee, 2007). South African subordinates value a leader who is extremely driven and shows a hunger and a strong desire to achieve their goals. They also appreciate a leader who encourages them to be innovative, forward thinking, critical and analytical and a leader who builds confidence in his/her subordinates (Martins and Coetzee, 2007). According to Carlin (2005) South African subordinates value a leader who tolerates and embraces individuals from different cultural backgrounds. In their study on the leadership competencies in South African MBA programmes, Salomon and Khabisi (2004) found that the most important leadership competencies valued in a leader are individualistic, religious, traditional, conformity, perceived external control and strict.

Based Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe's (2011) study, Zimbabwean and South African subordinates' value performance, visionary, survival, delegate, inspirational, loyalty, integrity, empowering, collaborative, politeness, solidarity, emotional and openness. The study also

found that South African and Zimbabwean subordinates ranked the following leadership competencies as least important to them: self-centred, self-sacrificial, religious, perceived external control, perceived internal control, strict and autocratic (Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

5.5 Competencies Valued In a Leader: A Review of Previous Cross-Cultural Studies

A number of studies have been conducted that show the influence of national culture on leadership. Research findings have shown that nations differ in terms of their perceptions, values and beliefs. Gerstener and Day (1994) and Antonio and Dorfman (1999) support the view that national culture will determine the leadership competencies subordinates value in their leaders.

Mellahi (2000) investigated the compatibility of leadership competencies taught in the United Kingdom (UK) MBA programmes and the leadership competencies accepted in three non-western cultures (Mellahi, 2000). The leadership competencies valued by subordinates were categorised into two groups, namely Western and Indigenous (Asian, Arab and African). These leadership competencies are illustrated below in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Leadership Competencies Valued

Western	Indigenous
Delegate	Conformity
Logical	Consensus
Performance	Consistent
Share Power	Emotional
Strict	Face-Saving
Technical Capability	Forgiveness
Visionary	Harmony
	Kindness
	Loyalty
	Politeness
	Religious
	Tolerance

Adapted from Mellahi (2000)

Wallace (2002) supports the notion that the leadership competencies valued by subordinates are influenced by their national culture. The results of his study revealed that Japanese subordinates value a leader who is philosophical and profound more than any other national culture. The study also revealed that subordinates from Indonesia value a leader who is religious and is perceived to have an 'authoritative bearing'. This study also showed that Indian

subordinates value a leader who is highly motivated, energetic and ambitious. Finally, the results of this study showed that American subordinates value a leader who directly and openly expresses his/her opinions and encourages subordinates to do the same (Wallace, 2002). Based on the findings of this study, it is suffice to say that one's national culture influences the leadership competencies one values in their leaders (Gerstener and Day, 1994; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Antonio and Dorfman, 1999; Wallace, 2002; Cox, 2006; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

In their study, Den Hartog *et al.* (1999) found that in some national cultures a leader needs to be autocratic to be regarded as a leader while in other national cultures a democratic and team approach may be perceived as ideal. In a national culture that recommends autocratic leadership, compassion and empathy will be interpreted as weak, whereas in a national culture that endorses a more democratic, participative and nurturing leadership style, the same compassion and empathy are likely to prove vital for effective leadership (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999). Leadership competencies such as self-protective, face saving and being status conscious are leadership competencies that in Germany and other European cultures are seen as extremely hindering to effective leadership which is not the same in Asian cultures (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999).

Leadership behaviours such as autocracy, directive and controlling are in most national cultures viewed in a negative light, but in countries like Mexico and Taiwan they are seen in a positive light. In Columbia a leader who is viewed as cunning is viewed in a positive light and is most likely going to be effective but in most countries like Switzerland it is viewed in a negative light inhibiting effective leadership (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999). It is important to note that some leadership competencies may be effective and viewed in a positive light in some national cultures and be totally ineffective in other national cultures (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999). It is imperative that leaders become culturally sensitive as some leadership competencies may be deemed inappropriate in other national cultures (Newman and Nollen, 1996).

The GLOBE study (2001) is to date the biggest cross-cultural study; shown below are the leadership competencies said to be having a strong relationship to national culture.

Table 5.2 Culturally Contingent Leadership Competencies

Ambitious	Sincere
Autonomous	Status conscious
Logical	Subdued

Self-sacrificial	Ruler
Compassionate	Micro-manager
Cunning	Indirect
Enthusiastic	Formal
Evasive	Orderly
Independent	Procedural
Individualistic	Sensitive
Domineering	Risk-taker

Source: GLOBE (2001).

Although most cross-cultural studies share the notion that the leadership competencies subordinate's value are influenced by one's national culture, this is by no means a unanimous view. A number of leadership scholars are of the belief that a number of leadership competencies are universally endorsed, that is, regardless of their national culture all subordinates will value similar leadership competencies (Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011; Moan and Hetland, 2012). One such study that contends to this notion is that of Thomas and Bendixen (2000). Their study revealed that there are no cultural differences in the leadership competencies valued by subordinates from different national cultures. Their study revealed that a leader who adopts a participative and democratic style of leadership is likely to be regarded as an effective leader by all subordinates regardless of their national culture (Thomas and Bendixen, 2000).

A number of studies have been conducted that share a similar notion that all subordinates regardless of their national culture value similar leadership competencies. Based on previous research all subordinates value the following leadership competencies: empathy, openness, persistence, sensitivity to diversity, respectful, two way communication, intellectual capacity, self-confidence, emotional stability, integrity, sharing leadership, ability to bring out the best in people and works as an equal with others (Harris and Moran, 1987; Moran and Riesenberger, 1994; Jordan and Cartwright, 1998; Jokinen, 2004).

The GLOBE study (2001) put together all the leadership competencies they viewed to be universally endorsed by all subordinates regardless of their national culture. Listed below are the universally endorsed leadership competencies (GLOBE, 2001).

Table 5.3 Universal Leadership Competencies

Trustworthy	Decisive
Just	Excellence-oriented
Honest	Dependable

Foresight	Intelligent
Plans ahead	Effective bargainer
Encouraging	Administratively skilled
Positive	Communicative
Dynamic	Informed
Motive arouser	Coordinator
Confidence builder	Team-builder
Motivational	

Source: GLOBE (2001)

While most cross-cultural studies have supported the notion that leadership competencies valued by subordinates are specific to national culture, some have argued for the notion that leadership competencies are universally endorsed. A number of studies have revealed mixed findings (Moan and Hetland, 2012). In their study Holmberg and Akerblom (2006) showed that leadership competencies valued by subordinates are both culturally specific and universally endorsed. Casimir and Waldman's (2005) study revealed findings that show some aspects being culturally specific and some aspects being universally endorsed.

Blakely and Bigoness (1996) found mixed results in their study; some leadership competencies are culturally specific while some are universally endorsed across all national cultures. According to their study all the subordinates from the different national cultures ranked forward-thinking, proficient, and courageous as the most important leadership competencies they value in a leader (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). The leadership competencies all the subordinates ranked second were imaginative, independent and intelligence (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). The leadership competencies that that were ranked third were politeness, accountable and self-discipline. Finally, the lowest ranked leadership competencies are cheerful, forgiving, helpful and loving (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). Based on the findings of this study, subordinates regardless of their national culture value similar leadership competencies (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996).

Although the same study seemed to agree on the preferred leadership competencies, not all findings proved the notion that leadership competencies are universally endorsed. Some aspects of the study highlighted that leadership competencies valued by subordinates are influenced by their national culture (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). The study revealed that being cheerful, forgiving helpful and loving were ranked as the least important of the leadership competencies and subordinates did not think that these leadership competencies were as

important as being broadminded, capable and being courageous (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). Japanese leaders ranked these competencies (cheerful, loving, and forgiving) as way more important than did any other national cultures in this study (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). Furthermore, the following leadership competencies: broadminded, capable and courageous, were considered to be significantly less important by the individuals from the United States (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996). The above study is one of the many studies that has found mixed results and is a representative of some of cross-cultural leadership studies that have been conducted in the past and found mixed conclusions (Blakely and Bigoness, 1996).

5.6 Conclusion

Based on the results of the above mentioned studies, it can be concluded that one's national culture has an influence on the leadership competencies they will value in their leaders. Different national cultures will value different leadership competencies and subordinates from the same national cultures are likely to be motivated by similar leadership competencies. It is imperative for leaders to be aware of leadership competencies that are viewed by individuals of a specific national culture in a positive light and the same leadership competencies may be totally inappropriate to individuals from a different national culture. It is, therefore, crucial that leaders be open to cultural diversity and be aware of what leadership competencies subordinates from different national cultures value.

Although the categorisation of national culture is broadly defined as there are many cultures that exist in South and Zimbabwe, there is still an indication that national culture will have an influence on the leadership competencies subordinates from these countries will value in their leaders. With the core concepts of the literature established, it is now necessary to analyse the methodology of the study.

5.7 Chapter Summary

The Influence of National Culture - Key Observations

- ❖ The rise in globalisation has resulted in an increase in the body of research on cross-cultural studies.
- ❖ It is vital that today's leaders be able to understand how individuals from different national cultures view them and how they interpret their leadership style and behaviours.
- ❖ National culture scholars assume that national culture is homogenous, that is individuals from one country have similar beliefs and values and share a 'national character'.
- ❖ Subordinates from different national cultures are likely to value different leadership competencies; leaders are, therefore, discouraged from treating all their subordinates in a similar manner.
- ❖ Previous studies conducted found that Zimbabwean subordinates value leaders who are: respectful, logical, objective, aggressive, competitive, cheerful, have a sense of humour and leaders who give credit when it is due.
- ❖ Previous studies conducted found that South African subordinates value leaders who are: positive, supportive, respectful, innovative, democratic, forward-thinking and leaders who adopt a participative leadership style.
- ❖ There is empirical evidence that suggests that national cultures vary and that a variety of leadership practices differ by national culture.
- ❖ The view that national culture influences the leadership competencies subordinates will value in their leaders is by no means a unanimous view, some researchers contend to the notion that leadership competencies valued by subordinates are universal.
- ❖ Studies that contend to the universal notion contended that all subordinates regardless of their national culture value the following leadership competencies: openness, persistence respect, empathy, intelligence, self-confidence, honesty, integrity, dependability, and motivational.
- ❖ Some researchers are of the notion that the leadership competencies valued by subordinates are both universal and specific to national culture.

Chapter 6

Research Methodology

6.1 Introduction

Now that the relevant literature has been reviewed it is important to outline the methodology of this research. The previous chapters have reviewed the literature on the nature of leadership, leadership competencies and the influence of gender and national culture on the leadership competencies subordinates value in their leaders.

This chapter is a description of the methodology used for this research. It begins by stating the research purpose. Thereafter the research goals of this study are indicated. The population, target population and sample of the study are defined, as well as the research instrument that was utilised. Following this, the data collection and data analysis are described outlining the specific steps that were taken for each process. Lastly, the ethical considerations that were taken into account and applied during the data collection and data analysis are indicated, along with the limitations of the study.

6.2 Research Aim

The importance of this study stems from its attempt to understand the leadership competencies that subordinates value in their leaders and whether gender and national culture will influence the leadership competencies valued in leaders.

6.3 Research Questions

The aim is broken down into the following research questions:

- Does gender influence the leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders?
- Does national culture influence the leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders?
- Are there any leadership competencies that subordinates will all value in their leaders, regardless of their gender?
- Are there any leadership competencies that subordinates will all value in their leaders, regardless of their national culture?

6.4 Research Goals

This study is further expanded into secondary goals:

- To determine which leadership competencies are considered the least and most important across gender;
- To determine which leadership competencies are valued by both male and female subordinates;
- To determine which leadership competencies are considered the least and most important across national culture;
- To determine which leadership competencies are valued by both South African and Zimbabwean subordinates ;

6.5 Research Hypothesis

Ho1: There is no statistically significant relationship between the leadership competencies that subordinates value and gender.

Ha1: There is a statistically significant relationship between the leadership competencies subordinates' value and gender.

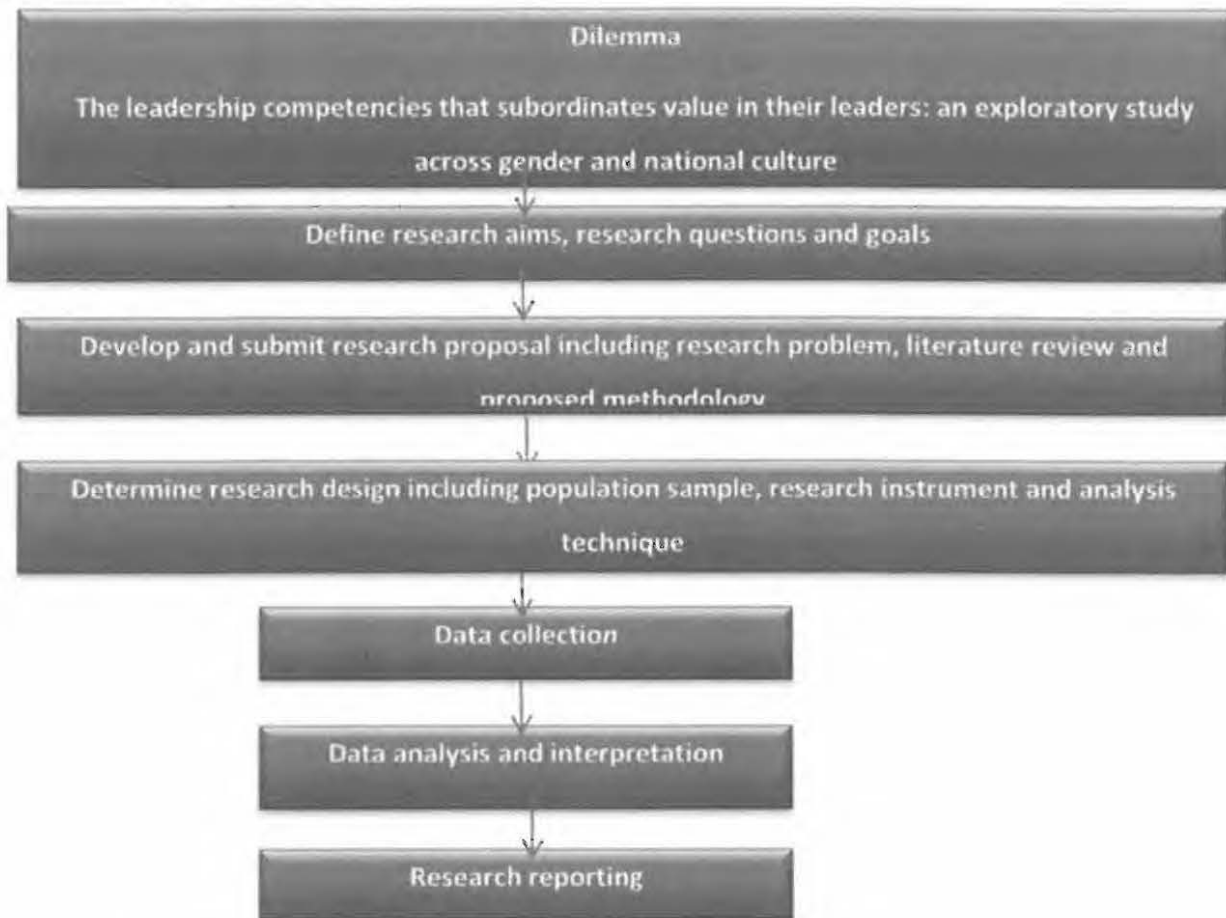
Ho2: There is no statistically significant relationship between the leadership competencies that subordinates value and national culture.

Ha2: There is a statistically significant relationship between the leadership competencies subordinates' value and national culture.

6.6 Research Process

In approaching the research topic the following research process was adopted shown in

Figure 6.1 Research Process



(Cooper and Schindler, 1998; Welman and Kruger, 1999; Carlin, 2005)

6.7 Population and Sample

Hawkins and Weber (1980:294) describe the population of a study as “the entire group the researcher wishes to study”. The target population is the entire group a researcher is interested in; the group from which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions (Young, 1997). A sample is “the selection of a proportion of the total number of units of interest for the ultimate purpose of being able to draw general conclusions about the total number of units (Parasuraman, 1986). Below is a diagrammatic representation of how population, target population and sample are interlinked in research methodology.

Figure 6.2 Population, Target Population and Sample



Adapted from Creswell (2008)

For this research the population is made up of subordinates from a bank that is in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The target population is made up of subordinates who work for the head offices in both countries. The sample is made up of subordinates who work for the same department in both South Africa and Zimbabwe. The sampling technique applied for this study is convenience sampling, as participants were readily available and convenient for the researcher and, factoring in time constraints as well, it was the most suitable one to use (Leedy, 1993).

Table 6.1 Population Figures

	South Africa	Zimbabwe
Head office staff	10000	140
Number of Departments	15	9
Staff compliment in participating department	70	101

In selecting this bank the following assumptions were made:

- The organisational values and organisational culture of the banks is similar as both banks belong to one banking group. Therefore *ceteris paribus* a comparative study between the two would be appropriate.

The benefits of selecting this sample group included:

- **Accessibility.** As the researcher is from Zimbabwe but residing in South Africa the researcher was able to collect data in both countries.
- **Willingness to participate.** It was assumed that both banks would be willing to participate as they would benefit greatly. The bank selected has offices in 32 countries including 19 in Africa. Because individuals from South Africa, Zimbabwe and other countries work together time and again a cross-cultural study would be of great use to the bank.
- **Sample Size.** The sample size was large enough to enable the researcher to make comparisons between the two countries.

As discussed in previous chapters, the participants utilised in this study were categorised into male and female, South African and Zimbabwean. The categorisation of national culture is generalised due to the multiplicity of the cultures and subcultures that exist in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The researcher generalised these national cultures to enable her to make a comparison between South Africa and Zimbabwe.

6.8 Research Paradigm

According to Remenyi (1996) a paradigm is an informal but stringent set of rules which have developed to ensure the reliability, trustworthiness and reproducibility of research work. For the purpose of this research a positivist paradigm was followed. The research began with an analysis of existing literature in order to come up with an appropriate theory and construct hypotheses to be tested using statistical analysis which is in line with positivism (Collins and Hussey, 2003). To add on, the researcher acted as an objective analyst producing research that is objective, with no personal values that distorted the findings (Collins and Hussey, 2003). In order to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies, national culture and gender, the methodology of this study was quantitative in nature (Collins and Hussey, 2003). The data was captured using a questionnaire; this is consistent with the positivistic research paradigm as it emphasises quantifiable observations (Remenyi, 1996; Collins and Hussey, 2003). Thus the focus of this research will be solely on the positivist paradigm.

Table 6.2 Positivism Paradigm

Paradigm Characteristic	Positivism
<i>Ontology</i>	Reality can be observed - at least as approximation
<i>Epistemology</i>	Reality is realised through objective findings that are true and founded in internal and external validity
<i>Methodology</i>	Uses quantitative methods that test hypotheses; experimental manipulations
<i>The nature of knowledge</i>	Verified or non-falsified hypotheses
<i>Type of narration</i>	Scientific report
<i>Investigator's posture</i>	Neutral, dispassionate
<i>Inquiry goal</i>	Explanation, production and control

Adapted from Schurr (2007)

6.9 Research Method

Based on the research objectives, the positivist paradigm and the size of the sample, surveys were the most suitable research method for this study. Surveys offered the opportunity to collect large quantities of quantitative, non-verbal, numeric data of the population sample that could be systematically organised and analysed so as to make accurate interpretations (Struwig and Stead, 2001). Although the survey method can have several inherent limitations, for this particular research it was found to be the most suitable method. Listed below are some of the limitations of this method (McDonald and Adam, 2003).

- i) Survey studies rely on data that is truthful and accurate, yet this does not always happen. Some respondents may answer questions incorrectly or make mistakes due to confusion.
- ii) Survey studies are subjected largely to bias. Since respondents know they are being studied, they may change their answers to conform to the expectations of the researcher.
- iii) Surveys require careful research and planning, are labour intensive and can take weeks to implement and analyse.

The survey method is usually divided into two categories, namely questionnaires and interviews. For the purpose of this study questionnaires were utilised due to their practicality, convenience and simplicity (Leedy, 1993).

6.9.1 Questionnaires: Advantages and Disadvantages

The importance of using questionnaires in this research was to allow for the data collected to be analysed more statistically and objectively. Moreover, once data has been quantified, it can be used to compare the findings with other research studies previously conducted. Furthermore, large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time. Additionally, the data collected can be quickly and easily quantified by the researcher through the use of a software package, in this case STATISTICA (Version 12). In addition, the quantitative data collected can be used to test existing hypotheses, in the case of this research to test if there is any statistically significant relationship between the leadership competencies, genders and national culture (Ackroyd and Hughes, 1981; Popper, 2004). While questionnaires have their advantages, there are several limitations to using them. Below are the limitations of questionnaires and how the researcher dealt with them.

i) *Impersonal:*

A questionnaire can be impersonal, as a respondent does not have the opportunity to qualify answers (Dixon, Schnetler and Geldenhuys, 1989).

To address this issue, for each of the data collection sessions that took place the researcher or representative was present. Having the researcher/representative present eliminated the impersonal aspect of the questionnaire, as the participants could meet the researcher/representative allowing them to ask questions about the study, and or query any misunderstandings or uncertainties.

ii) *Negative attitudes to questionnaires:*

Questionnaire can be seen as a nuisance and a waste of time (Dixon *et al.*, 1989).

To address this, at the start of each data collection session the importance of the study and the importance of the respondents participating in the study was conveyed.

iii) *Lack of control*

There is no control over the correctness of the responses and the lack of incomplete questionnaires (Dixon, et al., 1989).

To address this issue each questionnaire was checked on completion to verify that both sides of the questionnaire had been filled in. If the participants had missed questions, they were given the questionnaire back to complete them. This ensured that questionnaires were not discarded due to respondents not filling in the questionnaire correctly.

iv) *Misinterpretation of questions:*

Participants may read differently into each question and therefore reply based on their own interpretation of the question (Popper, 2004).

To address this issue the questionnaire was structured in a way that the key word was defined. So it was easy for participants to read and understand the definition of the leadership competence. The researcher/representative was also present at all sessions to clarify anything that was not clear.

v) *Low response rate:*

There is a strong possibility of getting a low response rate.

To address this issue the data collection process was conducted over a long period of time to make sure enough questionnaires were collected.

6.9.2. Traditional versus Online Data Collection Methods

Previous research (Kehoe and Pitkow, 1996; Forrest, 1999; Jarvis, 2002) reveals that traditional research methods such as observational research, survey research and experimental research are experiencing declining participation rates and rising costs (Jarvis, 2002; Cox, 2006). On the other hand, using online data collection methods, particularly online survey methods, have overthrown the traditional methods due to lesser costs involved, quicker turnaround, higher response rates, lower response errors and flexibility in adapting the questions, resulting in an efficient data collection method (Kehoe and Pitkow, 1996; Forrest, 1999; Cox, 2006).

According to McDonald and Adam (2003) the cost of online surveys are lower as compared to the costs incurred with traditional research methods. The use of online surveys enables the research to eliminate costs such as printing, two-way package cost, data entry, handling and tracking the data. In their research, Adams and Deans (2000) made use of email and an HTML form survey to collect data and attested that the turnaround times for online surveys are much quicker than the traditional method. They (Adams and Deans, 2000) reported that 40% of their

responses were received within the first 24 hours and over 85% of the remaining responses were received within the seven days (Adams and Deans, 2000; Cox, 2006).

Nonetheless, for the purpose of this study traditional (hard copy) questionnaires were used to collect the data from the participants. The researcher used traditional questionnaires as the response rate from previous studies was found to be low using online questionnaires. Traditional questionnaires generally yield the highest cooperation and have the lowest refusal rates. Traditional questionnaires also allow the participants to ask questions as the researcher is always available. This also gives the researcher better control and supervision over the whole data collection process. Furthermore, the researcher used traditional questionnaires as the data collection period is relatively shorter than online surveys (Salomon and Khabisi, 2004; Owens, 2005; Brownell and Cox, 2006).

6.10 Research Instrument

The survey instrument was a questionnaire consisting of thirty-three terms that describe leadership competencies as seen in Appendix A.2. Participants were asked to rate each leadership competence on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “no emphasis” to “strong emphasis” in terms of the question:

“Rate the extent to which you will value each term in your leader?”

The terms used in the questionnaire were based on previous research done in the United Kingdom where Western and indigenous (Asian, Arab and African) leadership competencies were identified (Mellahi, 2000). Salomon and Khabisi (2004) developed the instrument further by including items from a questionnaire used in a similar European study (Brodbeck, 2000). The final version of the questionnaire, seen in Appendix A.2, has been used in four South African studies (Salomon and Khabisi, 2004; Brownell and Cox, 2005; Cox, 2006; Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

6.10.1 Reliability and Validity of the Instrument

The traditional criteria for ensuring the credibility of research data is reliability and validity (Whitelaw, 2001). The reliability of an instrument indicates the stability and consistency with which the instruments measures the concept and helps to assess the “goodness” of a measure. Reliability is a partial contributor to validity (Krishnaswamy *et al.*, 2006). It is the dependability of an instrument to yield the same results on repeated trials, where an instrument that can repeat a study’s findings has a high reliability if it can be trusted to give an accurate and consistent measurement of an unchanging value (Krishnaswamy *et al.*, 2006).

The above factors were addressed in past studies as the research instrument, from which the majority of the terms came, was sent to experts with extensive knowledge and experience in the field. Reliability was assessed by repeatedly pilot testing the research instrument from which the terms came (Mellahi, 2000; Cox, 2006).

6.11 Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection process began by gaining authorisation from the head offices in South Africa and Zimbabwe to conduct the research. The managers were briefed on the research purpose, context of research, population sample requirements for the study and, lastly, the contribution the research would add to the body of existing research. The two managers granted the researcher permission to conduct the study. The email sent to both managers is attached in Appendix A3.

During a period of eight weeks, the researcher, with the help of two assistants, one from each bank, distributed the questionnaires. Before participants filled in their questionnaires they were required to sign consent forms which informed them about the research title, the purpose of the study, that participation was voluntary and that they would not be identified and that their personal results would remain confidential (refer to Appendix A4). As most of the participants were busy, they were given the questionnaire to complete in their own time and the researcher with the help of the assistants made arrangements to collect the questionnaires at a suitable time and place from the respondents. The questionnaires were subsequently administered over a period of eight weeks.

6.11.1 Data Capturing

Once the data that was collected, the researcher numbered the questionnaires and captured them in a Microsoft Excel 2010 document and proceeded to import the data into STATISTICA (Version 12) which is the software tool used to analyse the data and test the hypotheses (Struwig and Stead, 2001).

6.11.2 Descriptive Analysis

The data collected was analysed statistically using descriptive statistics to get an idea of the basic characteristics of the data (Sekaran, 2000; Keller, 2009).

Once the data was imported into STATISTICA, it was then summarised and presented in a way that allowed for simple analysis and testing (Sekaran, 2000; Keller, 2009). STATISTICA is the only software programme that was used to describe the data collected. STATISTICA allowed the researcher to describe the data through frequency tables and histograms. STATISTICA was

also used to test the statistical significance of the relationship between the variables (leadership competencies, gender and national culture) using Pearson's chi-square test (Stasoft, 2004; Cox, 2006). The demographic information that was accessed from the questionnaires completed by the participants was gender and nationality.

6.11.3 The Demographic Information obtained from the Questionnaire

Gender

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

Nationality _____

The next step in analysing the data was to create frequency tables (Refer to Appendix D) to assess the relationship between the variables (leadership competencies, gender and national culture). The researcher utilised Pearson's chi-square to test whether there was any relationship between the dependent variable (leadership competencies) and the independent variables (gender and national culture) that were rated by the participants. According to Keller and Warrack (1999:551) "Pearson's chi square is used to determine if there is enough evidence to conclude that differences exist among two or more populations of qualitative variables". A statistically significant relationship is observed when the p-value is less than 0.05 (Sekaran, 2000). To further analyse the data Sekaran (2000) specifies criteria to be used to categorise the statistical significance of the data, specifically high (2.5 – 4.0), medium (1.5- 2.5) and low (0.0 -1.5).

6.12 Measurement Equivalence

In every cross-cultural study, the question as to whether test scores obtained in different cultural populations can be interpreted in the same way across these populations has to be dealt with (Vijver and Tanzer, 2004). In cross-cultural comparative studies it is crucial to establish equivalent measurement of the relevant hypotheses across cultures. If this equivalence is not established, it is challenging if not impossible to make meaningful comparisons of results across different cultures (Kankaras and Moors, 2010). Equivalence refers to the measurement level at which scores can be likened and compared across cultures. There are different levels of equivalence possible; measurement equivalence entails that a similar measurement instrument is utilised in different cultures and measures the same hypothesis (Vijver and Tanzer, 2004).

Measurement equivalence of cross-cultural research is established when the resulting differences across cultures in answers on questionnaire items are due only to the cross-cultural differences in measured hypotheses (Kankaras and Moors, 2010). In this study, the results indicated that the similarities and differences were only due to the cross-cultural differences between South African and Zimbabwean subordinates. Secondly, construct equivalence is

attained when the same hypothesis is measured across all cultures studied. To realise hypothesis equivalence the researcher must collect data using the same technique and methodology, for instance, the same questionnaire must be used in both cultures. Data obtained with the instrument in the two countries can be subjected to exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses in order to examine hypothesis equivalence (Vijver and Tanzer, 2004).

In this research construct equivalence was achieved by using the same questionnaire in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The data collected in this study was subjected to the same factor analyses in order to examine the hypotheses equivalence. In this instance the Pearson's chi-test was utilised. The next level of equivalence is unit equivalence; this level of equivalence is achieved when "two metric measures have the same unit measurement unit" (Vijver and Tanzer, 2004). In the case of cross-cultural studies differences obtained within each cultural group can still be compared across national culture (Vijver and Tanzer, 2004). In this research, cross-cultural differences obtained within each national culture were able to be compared across the national cultures.

6.13 Ethical Considerations

Researchers have a responsibility and commitment to conduct and document their research ethically. Ethics in research refers to a code of conduct or expected social norm of behaviour while conducting research (Recker, 2011). This section deals with what the researcher has done to make sure this research adheres to the relevant ethical guidelines. The current study has complied with all the ethical research requirements of the Department of Management's Human Research Ethics Committee of Rhodes University and the researcher is aware of the ethical considerations. In view of the forgoing discussions, the following section describes how ethical issues in the conducting of the research were addressed (Recker, 2011):

i) Informed consent

The researcher informed the participants about the research title and research purpose, and informed the participants that participation was entirely voluntary. In line with this, the researcher obtained informed consent in writing (see Appendix A4) (Recker, 2011).

ii) Honesty and trust

The researcher adhered strictly to all the ethical guidelines and ensured trustworthiness of the data collected and the accompanying data analysis. The research findings were presented honestly and without any distortion (Recker, 2011).

iii) *Privacy, confidentiality and anonymity*

The researcher ensured that the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants would be maintained. The researcher made it clear to the participants that their names would not be required for any purpose. Information obtained such as the demographic information as well as the respondents' answers were held in strict confidentiality by the researcher, whereby the respondent was guaranteed anonymity at all times (Recker, 2011).

iv) *Voluntary participation*

The researcher made it clear to the participants that the research was only for academic purposes and their participation in it was absolutely voluntary. No one was forced to participate (Recker, 2011).

6.14 Limitations of the Study

The limitations in this research were reduced incredibly due to the researcher having previous experience with a similar study (Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011). The biggest concern with this study was whether or not one would have a well-represented response rate. In previous studies (Salomon and Khabisi, 2004; Brownell and Cox, 2005), the lack of enough responses limited the researchers from contributing additional knowledge to the existing literature. Therefore, to insure that this study achieved a high response rate, traditional questionnaires were used instead of online questionnaires. This method was extremely effective and resulted in a well-represented response rate.

The main limitation to this study was the oversimplification of cultures. Given the challenges characteristic of cross-national research, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions solely on the present study. The modest sample size limits the generalisability of the results. The results of the study, therefore, need to be interpreted with caution, as large within-group variations may exist as defined national culture was narrowly defined. However, the foremost purpose of the research was to show whether gender and national culture influenced the leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders. The findings of this study demonstrated that gender and national culture do not have an influence on the leadership competencies subordinates' value in their leaders. Furthermore, because the sample belonged to banks with one parent bank with similar organisational values, this might have influenced the results of this study as most subordinates in these banks would likely value similar leadership competencies as influenced by their organisational cultures and values.

6.15 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodology of the research and specified the primary aim and research goals of the study. Firstly, the population sample of the study was defined and subsequently the research instrument was described. A step-by-step data collection and analysis process was then revealed specifying the steps that were taken when collecting the data. The analysis of the data was described which included ranking the data according to its means and standard deviations, as well as determining whether there was a significant relationship between the leadership competencies and gender and national culture. Lastly, the ethical considerations that were taken into account by the researcher were mentioned.

Chapter 7

Results

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the methodology of the study was clearly outlined, giving detailed information regarding the research aim, research questions, research goals, hypotheses, population and sample, research instrument, data collection analysis process, the ethical considerations and the limitations of this study. This chapter discusses the results of the study.

The research hypotheses were assessed using Pearson's chi-square tests to determine if there are certain leadership competencies that have a significant relationship with gender and national culture. The results of the Pearson' chi-square tests will be provided and described briefly. The research aim and research goals will be evaluated using the mean and standard deviation. The mean and standard deviation for each leadership competence was calculated to establish the most valued and least valued leadership competencies according to gender and national culture. The rankings for gender and national culture are provided.

7.2 Response Rate

The total number of participants in this study was 122, 54 South Africans and 68 Zimbabweans. The total response rate was 71% (number of responses).

Table 7.1 South African and Zimbabwean Responses

	Sample Total	Number of Responses
South Africa	70	54
Zimbabwe	101	68
Total	171	122

Table 7.2 Male and Female Responses

	Sample Total	Number of Responses
Male	70	60
Female	101	62
Total	171	122

7.3 Descriptive Statistics

Of the 122 participants, 49% were male and 51% female. In terms of national culture, 56% were South African and 44% Zimbabwean. Figure 7.1 and Figure 7.2 illustrates the response rate according to gender and national culture.

Figure 7.1 Male and Female Participants

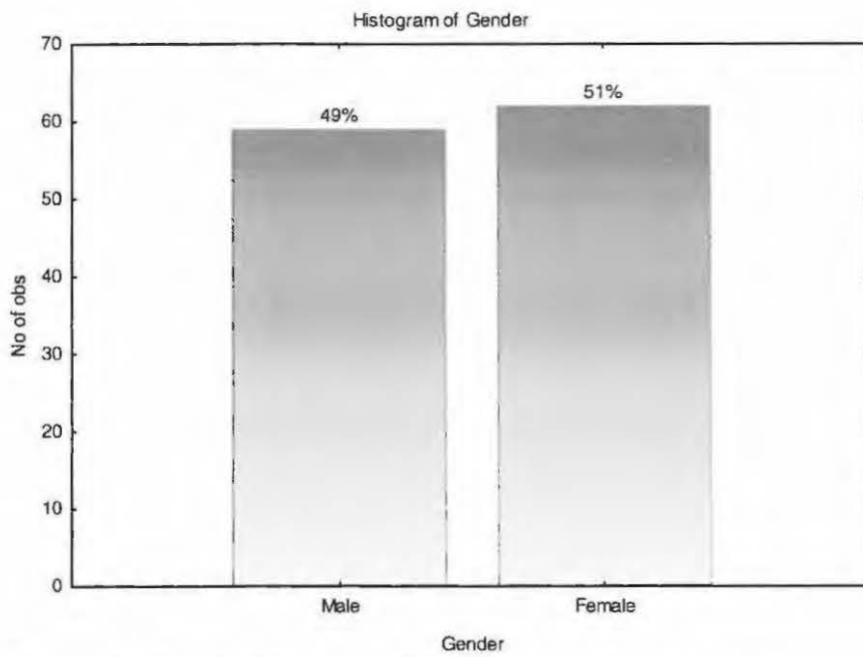
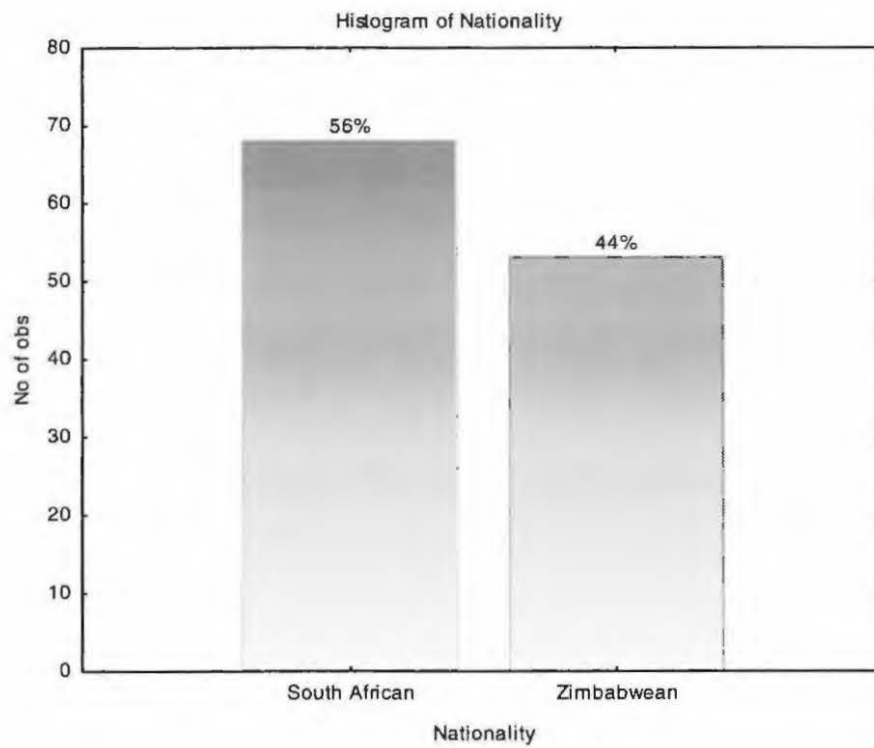


Figure 7.2 South African and Zimbabwean Participants



7.4 Reliability

The research instrument, from which the majority of the terms came, was sent to experts with extensive knowledge and experience in the field. Reliability was assessed by repeatedly pilot testing the research instrument.

7.5 Hypothesis

In the previous chapter, the research aim, research goals and research hypotheses were generated. As indicated, the primary aim of this study was to observe whether the competencies valued by subordinates are significantly related to gender and national culture. Additionally, the secondary aim of this study was to identify the leadership competencies ranked as most and least valued by the participants in accordance with their gender and national culture.

The results of the Pearson's chi-square test to this data indicated that there are certain leadership competencies that are significantly related to gender (Refer to Table 7.3) and national culture (Refer to Table 7.4). The results also indicated that there are leadership competencies that are not significantly related to gender (Refer to Table 7.3) and national culture (Refer to Table 7.4). Table 7.5 and Table 7.6 illustrate the leadership competencies ranked according to most and least valued according to gender. Table 7.7 and Table 7.8 illustrate the leadership competencies ranked according to most and least valued according to national culture. To gain more insight into the outcomes of the study, each hypothesis will be discussed in detail below.

7.5.1 Hypothesis One

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between what subordinates value in their leaders and gender.

H_{a1}: There is a statistically significant relationship between what subordinates value in their leaders and gender.

The results of Pearson's chi-square tests indicated that 30 out of the 33 leadership competencies identified in the questionnaire have no significant relationship to gender (both male and female). There is no significant relationship between gender and the leadership competencies indicated in Table 7.3. Kindnesses, emotional and inspirational are the only leadership competencies with a significant relationship with gender.

Table 7.3 Relationship between Leadership Competencies and Gender

Leadership Competencies	df	p-value
Loyalty	4	0.2067
Self-centred	4	0.6025
Survival	4	0.7826
Forgiveness	4	0.4314
Religious	4	0.2194
Tolerance	4	0.6619
Visionary	4	0.5255
Politeness	4	0.1033
Kindness *	4	0.0495
Inspirational *	4	0.006
Delegate	4	0.6924
Solidarity	4	0.6426
Perceived internal control	4	0.2539
Empowering	4	0.873
Integrity	4	0.9214
Traditional	4	0.0994
Team collaborative	4	0.8511
Harmony	4	0.7094
Conformity	4	0.4673
Face savings	4	0.5724
Technical capability	4	0.3219
Perceived external control	4	0.8239
Logical	4	0.6495
Procedural	4	0.6271
Consensus	4	0.1971
Personal communication	4	0.1383
Openness	4	0.1788
Consistent	4	0.9146
Strict	4	0.2241
Self-sacrificial	4	0.5884
Performance	4	0.0596
Emotional*	4	0.0185
Autocratic	4	0.5906

* Significant relationship with gender

7.5.2 Hypothesis Two

Ho2: There is no statistically significant relationship between what subordinates value in their leaders and national culture

Ha2: There is a statistically significant relationship between what subordinates value in their leaders and national culture

The results of Pearson's chi-square tests indicated that 10 out of the 33 leadership competencies identified in the questionnaire have no significant relationship to South African and Zimbabwean national culture. There is no significant relationship between national culture and the leadership competencies indicated in Table 7.4. Loyalty, tolerance, inspirational, empowering, integrity, technical capability, perceived external control; logical, consensus and openness are the only leadership competencies with a significant relationship with national culture.

Table 7.4 Relationship between Leadership Competencies and National Culture

Leadership Competencies	df	p-value
Loyalty *	4	0.0001
Self-centred	4	0.1645
Survival	4	0.8586
Forgiveness	4	0.3712
Religious	4	0.1637
Tolerance*	4	0.0107
Visionary	4	0.1324
Politeness	4	0.7117
Kindness	4	0.5676
Inspirational *	4	0.0489
Delegate	4	0.6629
Solidarity	4	0.0611
Perceived internal control	3	0.327
Empowering *	4	0.0151
Integrity *	4	0.0413
Traditional	4	0.6422
Team collaborative	4	0.6146
Harmony	4	0.6913
Conformity	4	0.0622
Face savings	4	0.556
Technical capability*	4	0.0016
Perceived external control*	4	0.0029
Logical *	4	0.0378
Procedural	3	0.0606
Consensus*	4	0.0435
Personal communication	4	0.0689
Openness *	4	0.0904
Consistent	4	0.3979
Strict	4	0.098
Self-sacrificial	4	0.3505
Performance	4	0.6222
Emotional	4	0.5038
Autocratic *	4	0.0075

*Significant relationship with national culture

7.6 Research Goals

The above Pearson chi-square tests reveal the leadership competencies that have significant relationships with gender and national culture. The above results also reveal the leadership competencies that do not have a significant relationship with gender and national culture.

It is now important to indicate the most and least valued leadership competencies according to gender and national culture. The overall mean scores and standard deviations were calculated to come up with the most and least valued leadership competencies.

Table 7.5 illustrates the leadership competencies most valued by both male and female subordinates. The leadership competencies most valued by both male and female subordinates are openness, empowering, visionary, loyalty, integrity, inspirational and solidarity. The leadership competencies valued by male subordinates but not by female subordinates are team collaborative and survival. The leadership competencies valued by female subordinates and not by male subordinates are politeness and emotional.

Table 7.5 Most Valued Leadership Competencies ranked by Gender

Most Valued: Males				Most Valued: Females			
Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation	Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Empowering	1	3.694915	0.594638	Loyalty	1	3.838710	0.412650
Openness	2	3.694915	0.650046	Empowering	2	3.725806	0.484831
Visionary	3	3.677966	0.654972	Integrity	3	3.693548	0.667481
Loyalty	4	3.661017	0.685067	Visionary	4	3.693548	0.642452
Team Collaborative	5	3.644068	0.636876	Openness	5	3.677419	0.719157
Integrity	6	3.627119	0.716753	Emotional	6	3.677419	0.621320
Inspirational	7	3.610169	0.788209	Performance	7	3.661290	0.767016
Survival	8	3.542373	0.702754	Inspirational	8	3.629032	0.706733
Solidarity	9	3.598475	0.728079	Politeness	9	3.596774	0.639151
Performance	10	3.457627	0.726874	Solidarity	10	3.586774	0.585611

The ten least valued leadership competencies ranked by gender are shown in Table 7.6. The leadership competencies least valued by both male and female subordinates are personal communication, procedural, consensus, traditional, strict, religious, perceived external control and autocratic. The leadership competencies least valued by male subordinates and not female subordinates are conformity and self-centred. The leadership competencies valued by female subordinates and not male subordinates are perceived internal control and openness.

Table 7.6 Least Valued Leadership Competencies ranked by Gender

Least Valued: Males				Least Valued: Females			
Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation	Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Personal Communication	24	2.966102	1.066190	Perceived Internal Control	24	2.983871	0.877626
Conformity	25	2.779661	1.115221	Procedural	25	2.903226	0.935803
Procedural	26	2.711864	0.910681	Consensus	26	2.854839	1.021840
Consensus	27	2.491525	1.023397	Personal Communication	27	2.806452	0.955377
Self-centred	28	2.423729	1.147762	Perceived External Control	28	2.193548	1.068762
Traditional	29	2.050847	1.237680	Traditional	29	2.000000	1.024295
Strict	30	1.644068	1.399048	Strict	30	1.435484	1.154052
Religious	31	1.508475	1.430853	Openness	31	1.419355	1.167151
Perceived External Control	32	1.440678	1.118361	Religious	32	1.290323	1.359690
Autocratic	33	0.813559	0.955467	Autocratic	33	0.580645	0.779836

Table 7.7 shows the leadership competencies most valued by South African and Zimbabwean subordinates. The leadership competencies similarly valued by both South African and Zimbabwean subordinates are empowering, loyalty, visionary, integrity, survival, inspirational, team collaborative and openness. The leadership competencies most valued by South African subordinates and not Zimbabwean subordinates are performance and politeness. The leadership competencies most valued by Zimbabwean subordinates and not by South African subordinates are solidarity and technical capability.

Table 7.7 Most Valued Leadership Competencies ranked by National Culture

Most Valued: South Africa				Most Valued: Zimbabwe			
Leadership Competencie	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation	Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Empowering	1	3.691176	0.465443	Loyalty	1	3.867925	0.589581
Loyalty	2	3.661765	0.535607	Openness	2	3.811321	0.708645
Visionary	3	3.632353	0.644249	Visionary	3	3.754717	0.647648
Integrity	4	3.632353	0.620650	Inspirational	4	3.754717	0.704536
Performance	5	3.602941	0.694105	Empowering	5	3.735849	0.624837
Openness	6	3.588235	0.651870	Integrity	6	3.698113	0.774222
Survival	7	3.544118	0.678757	Solidarity	7	3.622642	0.713238
Inspirational	8	3.514706	0.762804	Technical Capability	8	3.603774	0.716284
Team Collaborative	9	3.514706	0.782126	Team Collaborative	9	3.603774	0.816645
Politeness	10	3.500000	0.701810	Survival	10	3.528302	0.749456

Table 7.8 illustrates the leadership competencies least valued by South African and Zimbabwean subordinates. The leadership competencies least valued by both national cultures are consensus, personal communication, self-centred, traditional, religious, strict, perceived external control and autocratic. The leadership competencies least valued by South African subordinates and not by Zimbabwean subordinates are conformity and procedural. The leadership competencies least valued by Zimbabwean subordinates and not by South African subordinates are tolerance and forgiveness.

Table 7.8 Least Valued Leadership Competencies ranked by National Culture

Least Valued: South Africa				Least Valued: Zimbabwe			
Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation	Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Consensus	24	2.852941	0.833348	Personal Communication	24	2.981132	1.046800
Conformity	25	2.808824	1.068649	Tolerance	25	2.962264	0.979840
Personal Communication	26	2.808824	0.981278	Forgiveness	26	2.924528	0.997093
Procedural	27	2.647059	0.876981	Consensus	27	2.452830	1.217912
Self-Centred	28	2.397059	0.994608	Self-centred	28	2.188679	1.241225
Traditional	29	2.088235	1.089095	Traditional	29	1.943396	1.183461
Religious	30	1.558824	1.407680	Strict	30	1.660377	1.399772
Strict	31	1.441176	1.176668	Perceived External Control	31	1.433962	1.248221
Perceived External Control	32	1.426471	1.055422	Religious	32	1.188679	1.359533
Autocratic	33	0.823529	0.862852	Autocratic	33	0.528302	0.868327

7.7 Conclusion

The empirical results of the research are clearly presented in this chapter. Firstly, the research sample was described according to gender and national culture. Following this, the results of hypothesis one regarding the relationship between leadership competencies and gender indicated that there are leadership competencies with a significant relationship with gender and leadership competencies with no relationship with gender. Hypothesis two, regarding national culture, indicated that there are specific leadership competencies with a significant relationship with national culture and leadership competencies with no significant relationship with national culture. Leadership competencies were also ranked according to their mean and standard deviations establishing the most and least valued leadership competencies.

Chapter eight will discuss the above results in more detail, particularly referring to the literature discussed in the past few chapters. Future research ideas and implications for leaders will also be provided.

Chapter 8

Discussion

8.1 Introduction

After illustrating the results in the previous chapter, it is now important to discuss these findings. The results will be discussed in relation to the findings of similar studies. This chapter reveals the leadership competencies valued by subordinates according to gender and national culture from a South African and Zimbabwean context.

It is evident from the results in the previous chapter that the participants of this value similar leadership competencies, regardless of gender and national culture. Once the results have been discussed fully, implications for leaders and future research will be discussed.

8.2 The Competencies Valued in a Leader

The results of this study contribute to the body of empirical evidence and builds on the work on leadership, gender and cross-cultural studies. While studies have been conducted on the leadership competencies that South African and Zimbabwean subordinates value in a leader, not many comparative studies have been carried out between the two countries. This research aimed to determine whether or not gender and national culture influence the leadership competencies valued in a leader within a South African and Zimbabwean context. To determine these outcomes, two hypotheses were investigated.

The first hypothesis investigated whether or not there is a significant relationship between gender and leadership competencies. Pearson's chi-square tests confirmed that there are leadership competencies which are significantly related to gender and competencies with no relationship with gender. The second hypothesis investigated whether or not there is a significant relationship between national culture and leadership competencies. Pearson's chi-square tests showed that there are leadership competencies which are significantly related to national culture and those with no relationship with national culture. It can therefore be concluded that there are leadership competencies that have significant relationships with gender and national culture and there are also leadership competencies which have no significant relationships with gender and national culture. Shown below (Table 8.1 and Table

8.2) are the leadership competencies with significant relationships with gender and national culture.

Table 8.1 Leadership Competencies Influenced by Gender

Leadership Competencies	p-value	df
Kindness	0.0495	4
Inspirational	0.006	4
Emotional	0.0185	4

Table 8.2 Leadership Competencies Influenced by National Culture

Leadership Competencies	p-value	df
Loyalty	0.0001	4
Tolerance	0.0107	4
Inspirational	0.0489	4
Empowering	0.0151	4
Integrity	0.0413	4
Technical capability	0.0016	4
Perceived external control	0.0029	4
Logical	0.0378	4
Consensus	0.0435	4
Autocratic	0.0075	4

It is now important to discuss the leadership competencies with a significant relationship with gender and national culture and the leadership competencies ranked as most and least valued according to gender and national culture.

8.2.1 The Influence of Gender

Based on the mean and standard deviation of the leadership competencies (Refer to Table 7.5), the most valued leadership competencies according to gender are shown below.

Table 8.3 Most Valued Leadership Competencies

Loyalty	Integrity
Visionary	Empowering
Inspirational	Solidarity
Openness	

The leadership competencies similarly valued by both genders are loyalty, integrity, visionary, openness, empowering and solidarity, yet these competencies are not significantly related to gender. This indicates that subordinates, regardless of gender, value these leadership competencies. Overall these results indicate that gender does not truly determine what one values in a leader.

These findings are consistent with the results of some previous studies. Previous research revealed that subordinates, regardless of gender, value similar leadership competencies. All subordinates value loyalty, solidarity integrity, inspirational, openness and empowering evidenced also in this research (Rosener, 1990; Moran 1992; Burke and Davidson, 1994; Gibson, 1995; Claes, 1999; Manwa, 2002; Cox, 2006; Aldoory and Toth, 2009; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011; Army, 2012). Based on the findings of this research and of previous research it is suffice to conclude gender does not influence the leadership competencies valued in a leader.

It has been argued that subordinates value similar leadership competences due to the impact of structuralism (Stelter, 2002). This means that subordinates in an organisation are likely to share similar values and beliefs, and organisational culture (Maher, 1997). Individuals in organisations in most instances have shared values, beliefs and attitudes because they are subjected to a similar organisational socialisation (Maher, 1997). Eagly and Carli (2003) agree that organisational socialisation acts as a force that equalises the genders which results in them valuing similar leadership competencies. People's behaviours are usually highly specific to the situations that they find themselves in, so men and women who are in similar organisational settings are in most instances likely to exhibit similar behaviours and have similar leadership preferences, values and beliefs (Eagly and Carli 2003).

While male and female subordinates in this study were found to value similar leadership competencies, the ranking of the leadership competencies are somewhat different. For instance females in this study ranked integrity 2nd whilst males ranked it 6th. Male subordinates ranked loyalty 4th whilst female subordinates ranked it 1st (Appendix B1 and Appendix B2). The

findings of this study, in terms of the ranking of the leadership competencies, are not consistent with the findings of previous studies. Integrity and loyalty are leadership competencies which have in previous studies been said to be valued more by males as compared to females (Brownell, 1994; Claes, 1999; Kawakami *et al.*, 2000).

Based on the findings of this study there are leadership competencies that are listed in the top ten most valued leadership competencies for females but not in the male subordinates' top ten most valued list. The leadership competencies that are not similarly valued by both genders are indicated below in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4 Leadership Competencies Not Common

Survival	Team- Collaborative
Emotional	Politeness

According to the results of this study emotional is in the top ten most valued leadership competencies for females but male subordinates ranked emotional 17th. To add on female subordinates have politeness in their top ten most valued leadership competencies but male subordinates' ranked politeness 12th. These results indicate that male subordinates ranked team-collaborative 6th while female subordinates ranked it 16th. Based on previous studies, female subordinates value relationship-oriented and interpersonal behaviours which include being emotional and polite (Hammick and Acker, 1998; Lewis and Fagenson-Eland, 1998; Manwa, 2002; Mkwanzazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

The social role theory has been used to explain why male and female subordinates value different leadership competencies (Carless, 1998). During the socialisation process, men and women are given and receive information that imparts how they should behave and also what characteristics they should possess to be able to meet their expected social roles (Eagly, 1987; Gibson, 1995; Stelter, 2002). Based on societal norms women are expected to be nurturing, sensitive and emotive as these qualities are important for the effective performance of the domestic activities, such as managing a household and raising children, which are expected from women (Gibson, 1995). Males are expected to provide for a household and therefore the following qualities are expected of them: independence, dominance, aggressiveness and assertiveness (Chusmir, Koberg and Mills, 2000).

In addition to the social role theory, the relational theory is a model which has been used to explain gender differences in leadership (Stelter, 2002). This theory contends that the primary

human motivation is to encourage and preserve relationships (Boatwright and Forest, 2000). Both genders approach relational aspects differently. Because of this difference in approach, this accounts for the gender differences described in the literature above (Stelter, 2002). For instance, women are socialised into emphasising the importance of building and preserving relationships. According to Stelter (2002) this constitutes a psychological reason for gender differences in leadership wherein women may feel a stronger need for expression of these relational or person-oriented values.

According to Tannen (1990) men and women have different experiences growing up; as a result, they have different values. Men are taught to prize independence and individual power. Women are taught to value connection, interdependence and the power of community. The effects of gender socialisation is reflected in the organisational setting as well, with male subordinates continuing to value independence and status and female subordinates valuing relationships (Tannen, 1990; Gibson, 1995; Nwobodo, 2008).

The values least valued by subordinates are listed below (Appendix B1 and Appendix B2). The least valued leadership competencies were those with the lowest mean and standard deviation.

Table 8.5 Least Valued Leadership Competencies

Personal Communication	Autocratic
Traditional	Perceived External Control
Strict	Procedural
Religious	Consensus

Based on the findings of this research male and female subordinates least value personal communication, traditional, strict, religious, autocratic, perceived external control, procedural and consensus. The results of this study are consistent with the findings of previous research; all subordinates regardless of gender least value the above-mentioned competencies. However, the results of this study indicated that female subordinates least value personal communication and consensus. This is not in accordance with previous findings and this may be due to the fact that most of the research was conducted in a different culture from one prevailing in South Africa and Zimbabwe.

According to Brownell (1994) and Kawakami, *et al.* (2000), males value leaders who are business-oriented. Some of the leadership competencies described as business oriented are

conformity and autocratic. However, it can be seen that this research does not support previous literature, as males rank autocratic as one of their least valued leadership competences. This difference in findings can be attributed to the fact that in some cultures male leaders are expected to be strict and autocratic for them to be considered effective and competent.

8.2.2 The Influence of National Culture

The leadership competencies valued by both South African and Zimbabweans are shown below.

Table 8.6 Most Valued Leadership Competencies

Loyalty	Integrity
Visionary	Empowering
Survival	Team-Collaborative
Inspirational	Openness

The above leadership competencies are in accordance with the competencies listed in the GLOBE (2001) study as universally endorsed. Based on the findings of previous studies, the leadership competencies valued by all subordinates, regardless of national culture are loyalty, empowering, loyalty, integrity, inspirational and team collaborative (Harris and Moran, 1987; Moran and Wiesenberger, 1994; Jordan and Cartwright, 1998; GLOBE, 2001; Jokinen, 2004; Mkwanazi and Gondongwe, 2011).

South African and Zimbabwean subordinates value openness, loyalty, and visionary, survival, inspirational, empowering, and team-collaborative. These leadership competencies reflect the philosophy of *ubuntu* which is synonymous with Africa. *Ubuntu* is a translation of the Xhosa expression “*Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu*” which means a person is a person through other persons, and this expresses a typical African conception of a person (Karsten and Illa, 2005). This philosophy of African humanism is based on integrity, compassion and humility which are all founded on the sense of self-worth that comes from belonging to an integrated community (Louw and Venter, 2011). It is characterised by values such as caring, sharing, integrity, compassion, communocracy and related predispositions (Amos *et al.*, 2008). Leadership based on *Ubuntu* emphasises cooperative, teamwork, relationships, and the community (Amos *et al.*, 2008).

While the findings of this study show that South African and Zimbabwean subordinates value similar leadership competencies, the emphasis placed on specific leadership competencies is different across national cultures. For instance, Zimbabwean subordinates rank openness 2nd while South African subordinates rank it 6th; inspirational is ranked 8th by South African subordinates yet Zimbabwean subordinates rank it 4th. Although there is a difference in the rankings of inspirational and openness, both national cultures have these competencies in their top 10 most valued leadership competencies. It is, therefore, suffice to say the relationship between perceived leadership among subordinates of different national cultures is fundamentally the same with differences manifesting only in the preferred mix of leadership behaviours.

Based on these results, the leadership competencies with the lowest mean and standard deviation were listed in the least valued leadership competencies. These results showed that there are leadership competencies similarly least valued by both national cultures. Shown below are the leadership competencies least valued by the two national cultures.

Table 8.7 Least Valued Leadership Competencies

Self-sacrificial	Strict
Religious	Autocratic
Perceived external control	Personal communication
Traditional	Consensus

The above shown results support the general proposition in previous studies that regardless of national culture there are leadership competencies that are universally undesirable. Strict and autocratic are two of the common leadership competencies found in the GLOBE (2001) study to be universally undesirable. Strictness and autocracy are viewed in a negative light in most national cultures and regardless of a subordinate's national culture; they would prefer that their leaders not embody the above listed competencies (GLOBE, 2001).

While the results of this research are in accordance and reiterate the findings of previous studies, some aspects of this study do not mirror the findings of previous research. For instance, South African subordinates in previous research were found to value religious, traditional, perceived external control and strict (Salomon and Khabisi, 2004). Again the findings of this research are not in accordance with previous literature. The results of this study indicated that

both national cultures least value personal communication. However, previous results reveal that South African and Zimbabwean subordinates value effective, two-way and personal communication (Martins and Coetzee, 2007; Nyanga, 2013). The differences in findings could be explained by the fact that maybe the subordinates in this study valued other leadership competencies more than personal communication.

While the findings of this research reveal that both national cultures similarly have the same leadership competencies as their least valued leadership competencies, there are slight differences in some of the rankings. For instance South African subordinates in this study ranked politeness and performance at 10th and 5th respectively and Zimbabwean subordinates ranked these competences 13th and 12th respectively. Zimbabwean subordinates also have technical capability and solidarity in their top 10 most valued competencies, while South African subordinates ranked these leadership competencies 19th and 12th respectively. These differences, though minor, reaffirm literature that is of the opinion that national culture to some extent determines the leadership competencies subordinates will value and that a variety of leadership preferences will vary and differ by national culture (Antonio and Dorfman ,1999; Newman and Nollen, 1996).

8.3 Implications for Leaders

The effectiveness of a leader is determined in great part by the perceptions of what others have about him or her. This means that the leader's effectiveness "depends on the ability of the leader to exhibit subordinates' expectations". It follows then that those who can fulfil the expectations of subordinates will be considered leaders and their effectiveness largely depends on the extent to which they can fulfil those expectations (Lord and Maher, 1991). It is for this reason that leaders should be aware of the leadership competencies subordinates' value in them. A misalignment between what subordinates value and the leadership competencies exhibited by the leader will in most instances result in ineffective leadership.

The results of this study indicate that leadership competencies valued by subordinates are not influenced by gender and national culture as indicated in previous research. The results of this research revealed that leadership competencies are universally endorsed and regardless of gender and national culture all subordinates value similar leadership competencies. The results presented in this research will assist today's leaders working in diverse and multinational organisations. An understanding of the differences between subordinates should be the first step leaders could take towards adjusting their behaviour to better fit the leadership preferences

of subordinates. Leaders need to be sensitive to what subordinates of different genders and nations expect from them. To be effective, leaders need to be aware of their own leadership and be able to work towards aligning their leadership competencies with the leadership competencies subordinates' value.

The purpose of this research was to determine if gender and national culture influence the leadership competencies valued by South African and Zimbabwean subordinates. Based on the results of this study, if a leader is going to be effective, he/she should exhibit the following leadership competencies: loyalty, integrity, visionary, openness, solidarity, inspirational, empowering. Subordinates are not in favour of strict, traditional, self-centred and autocratic leaders as they place importance on their power and hierarchy. They are often domineering, controlling, overbearing and oppressive and those who are strict have been found to be inflexible regarding exact performance.

8.4 Future Research

Leadership, gender and national culture research continues to gain popularity as diversity in workplaces increases, yet similar studies pertaining to South Africa and Zimbabwe are very limited and in most instances outdated. Extensive research into the influence of gender and national culture on the leadership competencies subordinates' value would be of great use to African organisations mostly as the majority of the research into leadership, gender and cross-culture has mostly been conducted in Western cultures.

In this study, culture was broadly within the context of two national cultural groups, which is not a true reflection of all the cultures that exist in the two countries. Future studies should include all the cultures that exist in South Africa and Zimbabwe to determine whether this will make a difference to what individuals will value in their leaders in a South African and Zimbabwean context.

Additionally only subordinates working for one bank with offices in the two countries were used in this study; therefore, future research should include other organisations in different sectors all around South Africa and Zimbabwe to possibly get more reliable results. To add on, future research could test to see if the leadership competencies subordinates would like to see in their leaders are being actually displayed by leaders in the workplace; basically the research would be to see if an alignment does exist.

By illustrating the influences of gender and national culture in terms of the leadership competencies subordinates' value, the researcher hopes to encourage more extensive and

rigorous research aimed at identifying the essence of leadership perceptions, both between and within national cultures and gender. By exposing these initial differences in leadership across gender and national cultures, the researcher hopes that the present study will encourage other researchers to consider gender and national culture as an important facet in the study of leadership. It would also assist leaders within multinational and diverse organisations in that they could better understand what subordinates would expect of them (Cox, 2006).

8.5 Conclusion

It is evident that the results of this study are in some ways similar to the findings of previous research; however, as a whole the results of this study indicate a misalignment with the competencies valued by participants in this study and those stated by the findings of previous literature. Both South African and Zimbabwean leaders are operating in an extremely diverse workforce and, therefore, it is vital that they are aware of what their subordinates' value, and if gender and or national culture influence the leadership competencies they will value in a leader.

It is clear from this study that gender and national culture are not influential factors determining what subordinates value in their leaders. There are, in fact, a few competencies that are similar with respect to gender and national culture. The results conclude that to be effective in the 21st century, leaders need to be loyal, visionary, inspirational, and show openness.

Even though existing studies have indicated that gender and national culture should influence what subordinates value in a leader, it is evident from this study that this is not the case in this research. It is for this purpose that future research should focus on more studies of this nature so as to fully understand what is valued in a leader.

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Appendix A

A1: Revised Leadership Instrument

TERM	DEFINITION
1. <i>Loyalty:</i>	Leaders are faithful, devoted, trustworthy, dependent and reliable.
2. <i>Self-centred (Individualistic):</i>	Leaders have individual goals and reward individual action and performance by promoting individuals to higher positions.
3. <i>Survival:</i>	Leaders emphasise the importance of the organisation's survival in the industry.
4. <i>Forgiveness:</i>	Leaders are inclined to readily forgive employee mistakes and errors
5. <i>Religious:</i>	Leaders act in accordance to and place high value on their own religious beliefs,
6. <i>Tolerance:</i>	Leaders are lenient, accepting, patient and open-minded.
7. <i>Visionary:</i>	Leaders create a powerful vision by formulating clear goals about the future of the organisation.
8. <i>Politeness:</i>	Leaders are courteous, polite, well-mannered and respectful.
9. <i>Kindness:</i>	Leaders are gentle, compassionate and considerate in their conduct towards other employees.
10. <i>Inspirational:</i>	Leaders motivate, inspire and encourage organisational spirit.
11. <i>Delegate:</i>	Leaders entrust decision-making to an employee or group of employees, although the leaders are still responsible for their decisions.
12. <i>Solidarity:</i>	Leaders emphasise the unity, entirety, togetherness and oneness of employees in the organisation and their importance for their role in the country.
13. <i>Perceived Internal Control:</i>	Leaders believe that employees of the organisation control their own ability to perform expected organisational tasks
14. <i>Empowering (Share Power):</i>	Leaders believe in employee's potential and ability to contribute towards accomplishing organisational goals, so leaders act as coaches instead of using the power of their position to exert influence.
15. <i>Integrity:</i>	Leaders are honest, upright and principled, placing a high value on moral behaviour.

16. <i>Traditional:</i>	Leaders place importance on personal and organisational traditions, customs and practices.
17. <i>Team Collaborative (Collective):</i>	Leaders place importance in group belonging and teamwork. They reward or promote an entire group or team for good performance.
18. <i>Harmony:</i>	Leaders place importance on the organisation functioning peacefully with little employee and inter-departmental conflict.
19. <i>Conformity:</i>	Leaders expect employees to comply with the organisation's rules, norms, ideas and established practice.
20. <i>Face-Saving:</i>	Leaders and managers attach great importance to maintaining the dignity, status and respect of employees.
21. <i>Technical capability</i>	Leaders have the necessary abilities and are competent in the work they perform
22. <i>Perceived External Control:</i>	Leaders believe that employees are not in control of their ability to perform expected tasks and that their lives are instead controlled by outside forces.
23. <i>Logical:</i>	Leaders use logical, capable and rational reasoning in decision-making.
24. <i>Procedural (ritualistic):</i>	Leaders attach great importance to organisational procedures and rituals, celebrating the achievements of the organisation or mourning the bad times that the organisation experiences.
25. <i>Consensus:</i>	Leaders make organisational decisions that are usually in agreement with the employee or majority view.
26. <i>Personal Communication:</i>	Leaders usually communicate to employees personally rather than using technological methods like email, memo's and notice boards.
27. <i>Openness:</i>	Leaders are open and willing to hear the opinions and suggestions of employees.
28. <i>Consistent:</i>	The actions and measures of leaders are regular, constant and reliable.
29. <i>Strict:</i>	Leaders are inflexible and require exact performance.
30. <i>Self-sacrificial</i>	Leaders place importance on organisational needs and employee needs before their own needs.
31. <i>Performance:</i>	Leaders manage employee performance as an on-going process that involves planning, managing, reviewing, rewarding and developing performance.

32. <i>Emotional:</i>	Leaders in the organisation are passionate, expressive and sensitive to other employees.
33. <i>Autocratic:</i>	Leaders place importance on their power and hierarchy. They are often domineering, controlling, overbearing and oppressive.

Appendix A.3: Letter requesting permission to conduct research



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Grahamstown .6140. South Africa

To whom it may concern

Re: Invitation to conduct research at your institution

Sharon Gondongwe (under the supervision of Trevor Amos) is a Management [Masters] at Rhodes University carrying out research on 'the leadership competencies subordinates' value: an exploratory study across gender and national culture'. The aim of this research is to determine if one's gender and national culture will influence the leadership competencies that one will value in a leader. The participation and cooperation of your institution is important so that the results of the research are accurately portrayed.

The research will be undertaken by administering questionnaires to individuals willing to participate in this study. The data to be collected from this research will be quantitative in nature with willing participants being asked to rate the leadership value indicated in the questionnaire. The identity of your institution and the employees who voluntarily consent to participate will be treated with complete confidentiality.

Attached for your information is a copy of the participant's Informed Consent Form. If you have questions or wish to verify the research, please feel free to contact us.

If you would like your institution to participate in this research, please complete and return the attached form.

Thank you for your time and I hope that you will find our request favourable.

Yours sincerely,

Sharon Gondongwe

(Research Student)

Trevor Amos

(Supervisor)



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Department of Management

Participant Consent Form

Research Project Title: The leadership competencies subordinates' value: an exploratory study across gender and national culture.

Researcher's name: Sharon Gondongwe

Research Purpose: To understand what leadership competencies subordinates look for in their leaders and whether gender and national cultural differences have an influence to the degree to which subordinates attach significance to the different competencies they look for.

-
- I have received information about this research project.
 - I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
 - I understand that I may withdraw from the research at any stage.
 - I understand that my participation in the research project is done on a voluntary basis.
 - I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal information will remain confidential.
 - I understand that I will receive no payment for participating in this study.

Signed **Date**

I have provided information about research to the research participant and believe that he/she understands what is involved.

Researcher's Signature and Date.....

Appendix B: Leadership Competencies Ranked according to Gender

B.1 Male Leadership Competencies

Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Empowering	1	3.694915	0.594638
Oppeness	2	3.694915	0.650046
Visionary	3	3.677966	0.654972
Loyalty	4	3.661017	0.685067
Team Collaborative	5	3.644068	0.636876
Integrity	6	3.627119	0.716753
Inspirational	7	3.610169	0.788209
Survival	8	3.542373	0.702754
Solidarity	9	3.508475	0.728079
Perfomance	10	3.457627	0.726874
Delegate	11	3.406780	0.790431
Politeness	12	3.389831	0.809788
Technical Capability	13	3.355932	0.825514
Consistent	14	3.355932	0.825514
Face-saving	15	3.305085	0.951482
Tolerance	16	3.288136	0.891547
Emotional	17	3.237288	0.970940
Harmony	18	3.203390	0.942843
Kindness	19	3.203390	0.886288
Logical	20	3.186441	0.955467
Self-sacrificial	21	3.084746	0.896125
Forgiveness	22	3.067797	0.907144
Perceived Internal Control	23	2.966102	1.033342
Personal Communication	24	2.966102	1.066190
Conformity	25	2.779661	1.115221
Procedural	26	2.711864	0.910681
Consensus	27	2.491525	1.023397
Self-centred	28	2.423729	1.147762
Traditional	29	2.050847	1.237680
Strict	30	1.644068	1.399048
Religious	31	1.508475	1.430853
Perceived External Control	32	1.440678	1.118361
Autocratic	33	0.813559	0.955467

B.2 Female Leadership Competencies

Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Loyalty	1	3.838710	0.412650
Empowering	2	3.725806	0.484831
Integrity	3	3.693548	0.667481
Visionary	4	3.693548	0.642452
Oppeness	5	3.677419	0.719157
Emotional	6	3.677419	0.621320
Perfomance	7	3.661290	0.767016
Inspirational	8	3.629032	0.706733
Politeness	9	3.596774	0.639151
Solidarity	10	3.596774	0.585611
Survival	11	3.532258	0.717869
Delegate	12	3.483871	0.718421
Face-saving	13	3.467742	0.762174
Team Collaborative	14	3.467742	0.918262
Technical Capability	15	3.467742	0.762174
Kindness	16	3.419355	0.800581
Consistent	17	3.370968	0.872792
Logical	18	3.306452	0.968160
Self-sacrificial	19	3.225806	0.965289
Tolerance	20	3.225806	0.838018
Harmony	21	3.209677	0.832478
Conformity	22	3.080645	0.946060
Forgiveness	23	3.000000	0.868388
Perceived Internal Control	24	2.983871	0.877626
Procedural	25	2.903226	0.935803
Consensus	26	2.854839	1.021840
Personal Communication	27	2.806452	0.955377
Perceived External Control	28	2.193548	1.068762
Traditional	29	2.000000	1.024295
Strict	30	1.435484	1.154052
Perceived External Control	31	1.419355	1.167151
Religious	32	1.290323	1.359690
Autocratic	33	0.580645	0.779836

Leadership Competencies ranked according to National Culture

B.3 South African Leadership Competencies

Leadership Competencie Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Empowering	1 3.691176	0.465443
Loyalty	2 3.661765	0.535607
Visionary	3 3.632353	0.644249
Integrity	4 3.632353	0.620650
Perfomance	5 3.602941	0.694105
Oppeness	6 3.588235	0.651870
Survival	7 3.544118	0.678757
Inspirational	8 3.514706	0.762804
Team Collaborative	9 3.514706	0.782126
Politeness	10 3.500000	0.701810
Solidarity	11 3.500000	0.610847
Emotional	12 3.500000	0.819538
Delegate	13 3.485294	0.680049
Tolerance	14 3.485294	0.680049
Kindness	15 3.382353	0.733615
Face-saving	16 3.367647	0.826870
Consistent	17 3.323529	0.818466
Technical Capability	18 3.264706	0.821677
Self-sacrificial	19 3.205882	0.873470
Harmony	20 3.132353	0.896168
Forgiveness	21 3.117647	0.782827
Logical	22 3.088235	0.957847
Perceived Internal Control	23 2.941176	1.034947
Consensus	24 2.852941	0.833348
Conformity	25 2.808824	1.068649
Personal Communication	26 2.808824	0.981278
Procedural	27 2.647059	0.876981
Self-Centred	28 2.397059	0.994608
Traditional	29 2.088235	1.089095
Religious	30 1.558824	1.407680
Strict	31 1.441176	1.176668
Perceived External Control	32 1.426471	1.055422
Autocratic	33 0.823529	0.862852

B.4 Zimbabwean Leadership Competencies

Leadership Competencies	Rank	Mean	Standard Deviation
Loyalty	1	3.867925	0.589581
Oppeness	2	3.811321	0.708645
Visionary	3	3.754717	0.647648
Inspirational	4	3.754717	0.704536
Empowering	5	3.735849	0.624837
Integrity	6	3.698113	0.774222
Solidarity	7	3.622642	0.713238
Technical Capability	8	3.603774	0.716284
Team Collaborative	9	3.603774	0.816645
Survival	10	3.528302	0.749456
Performance	11	3.509434	0.823282
Politeness	12	3.490566	0.775159
Logical	13	3.452830	0.931625
Emotional	14	3.415094	0.864558
Face-savings	15	3.415094	0.907955
Consistent	16	3.415094	0.886522
Delegate	17	3.396226	0.839863
Harmony	18	3.301887	0.867909
Kindness	19	3.226415	0.973525
Self-sacrificial	20	3.094340	1.005067
Conformity	21	3.094340	0.985747
Perceived Internal Control	22	3.018868	0.843312
Procedural	23	3.018868	0.950517
Personal Communication	24	2.981132	1.046800
Tolerance	25	2.962264	0.979840
Forgiveness	26	2.924528	0.997093
Consensus	27	2.452830	1.217912
Self-centred	28	2.188679	1.241225
Traditional	29	1.943396	1.183461
Strict	30	1.660377	1.399772
Perceived External Control	31	1.433962	1.248221
Religious	32	1.188679	1.359533
Autocratic	33	0.528302	0.868327

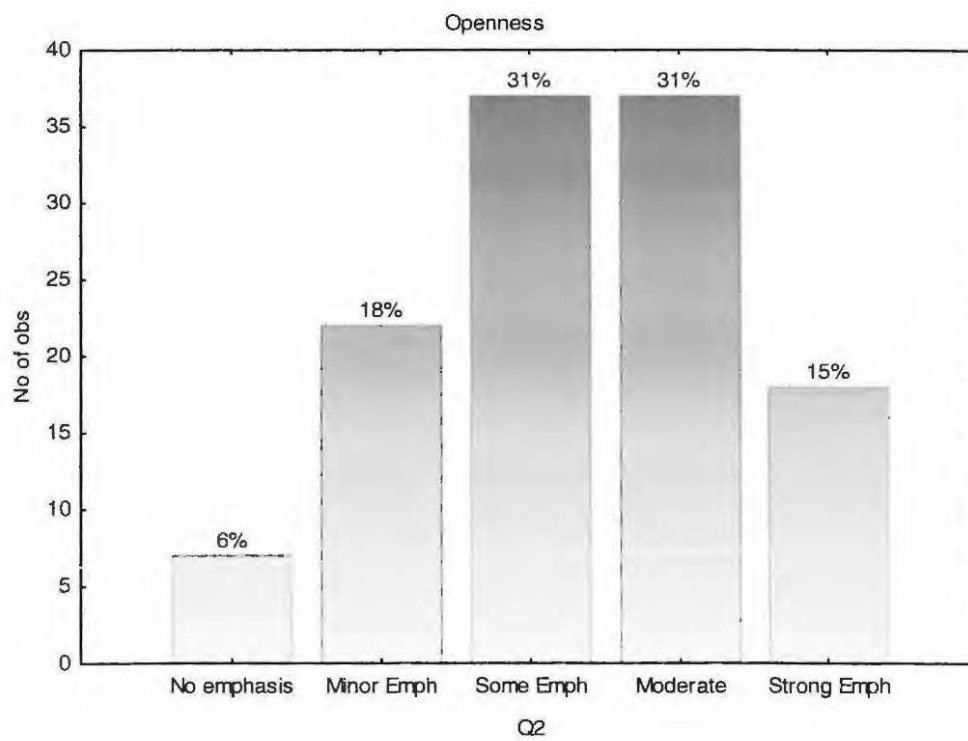
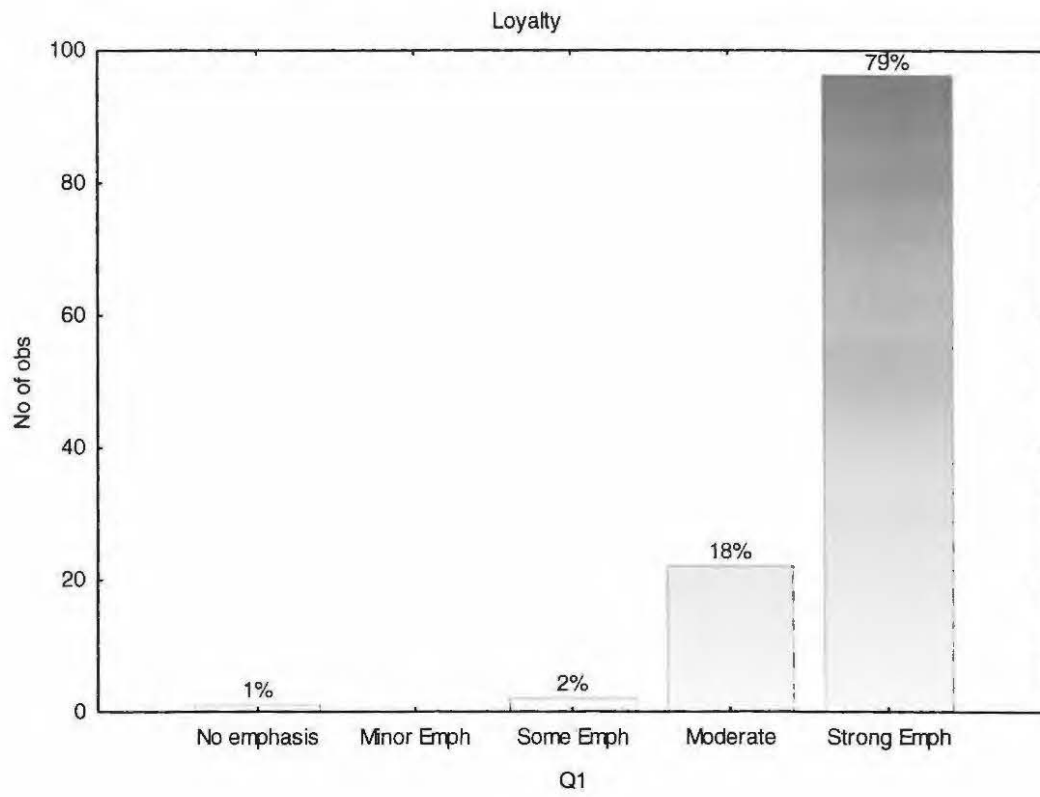
B.5 Pearson's Chi-Square: Gender

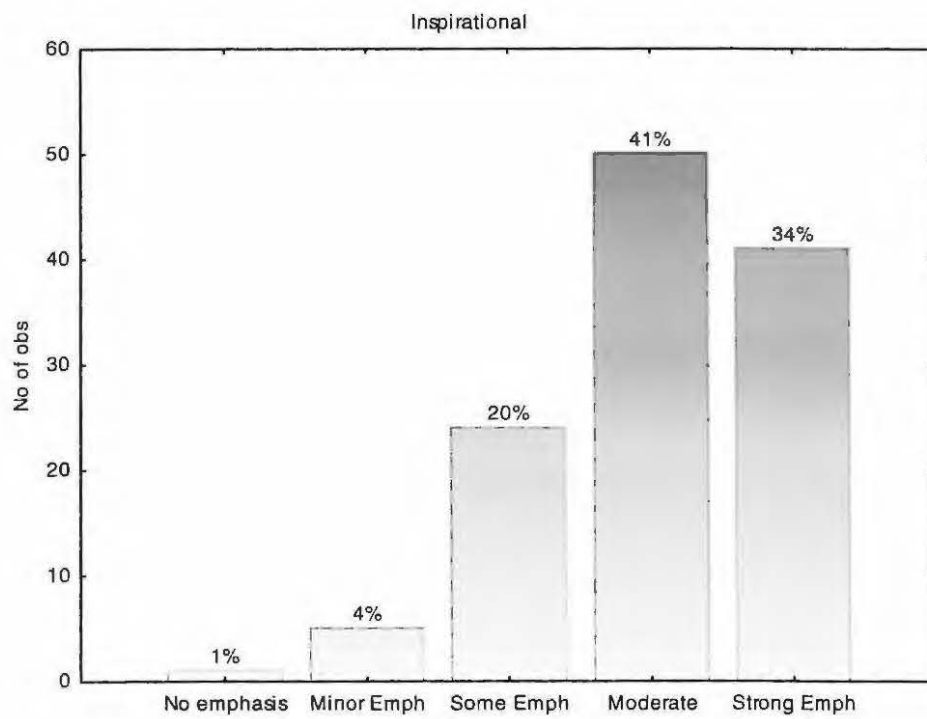
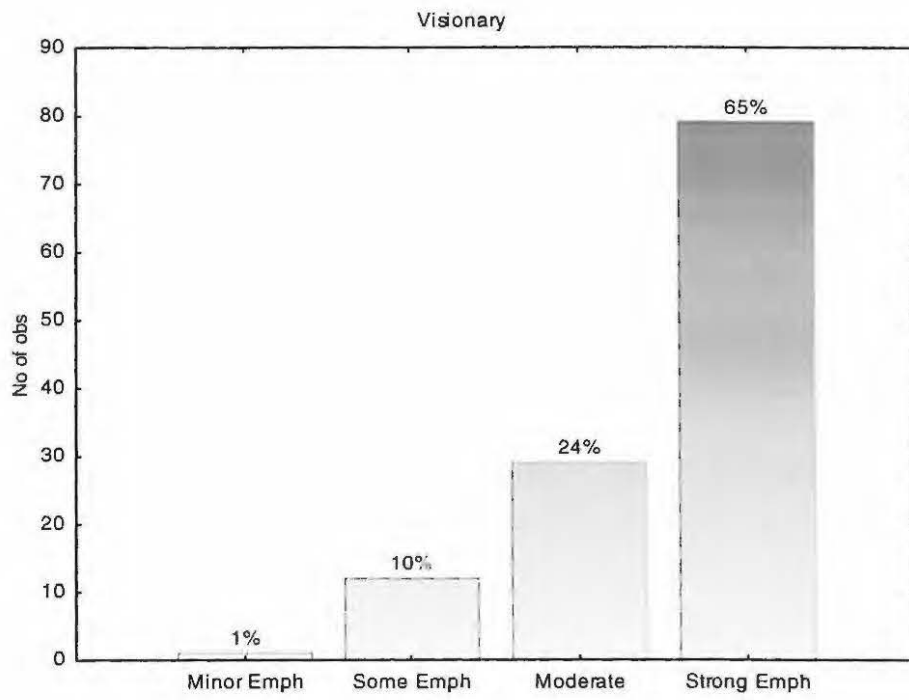
Leadership Competencies	df	p-value
Loyalty	4	0.2067
Self-centred	4	0.6025
Survival	4	0.7826
Forgiveness	4	0.4314
Religious	4	0.2194
Tolerance	4	0.6619
Visionary	4	0.5255
Politeness	4	0.1033
Kindness	4	0.0495
Inspirational	4	0.006
Delegate	4	0.6924
Solidarity	4	0.6426
Perceived internal control	4	0.2539
Empowering	4	0.873
Integrity	4	0.9214
Traditional	4	0.0994
Team collaborative	4	0.8511
Harmony	4	0.7094
Conformity	4	0.4673
Face savings	4	0.5724
Technical capability	4	0.3219
Perceived external control	4	0.8239
Logical	4	0.6495
Procedural	4	0.6271
Consensus	4	0.1971
Personal communication	4	0.1383
Openness	4	0.1788
Consistent	4	0.9146
Strict	4	0.2241
Self-sacrificial	4	0.5884
Performance	4	0.0596
Emotional	4	0.0185
Autocratic	4	0.5906

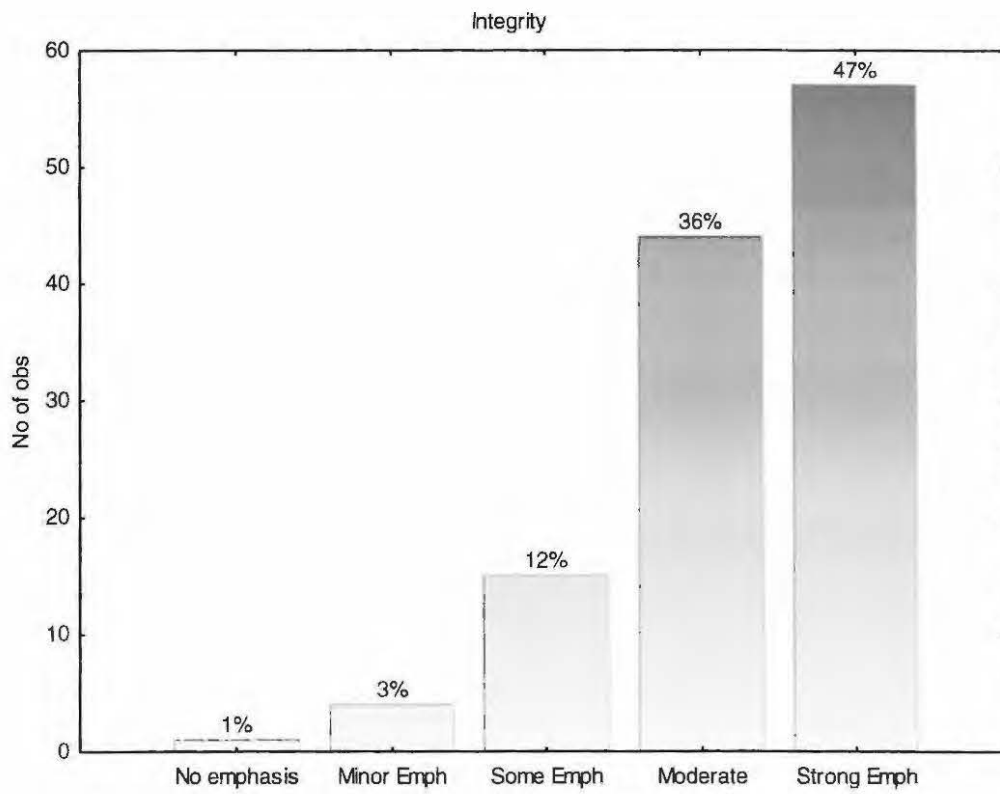
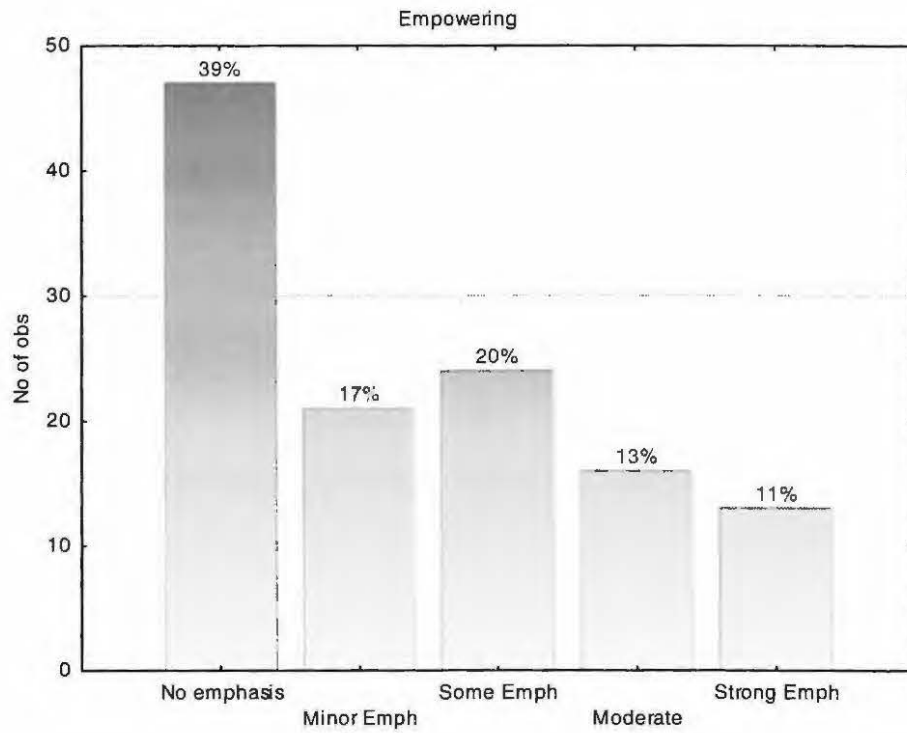
B.6 Pearson's Chi-Square: National Culture

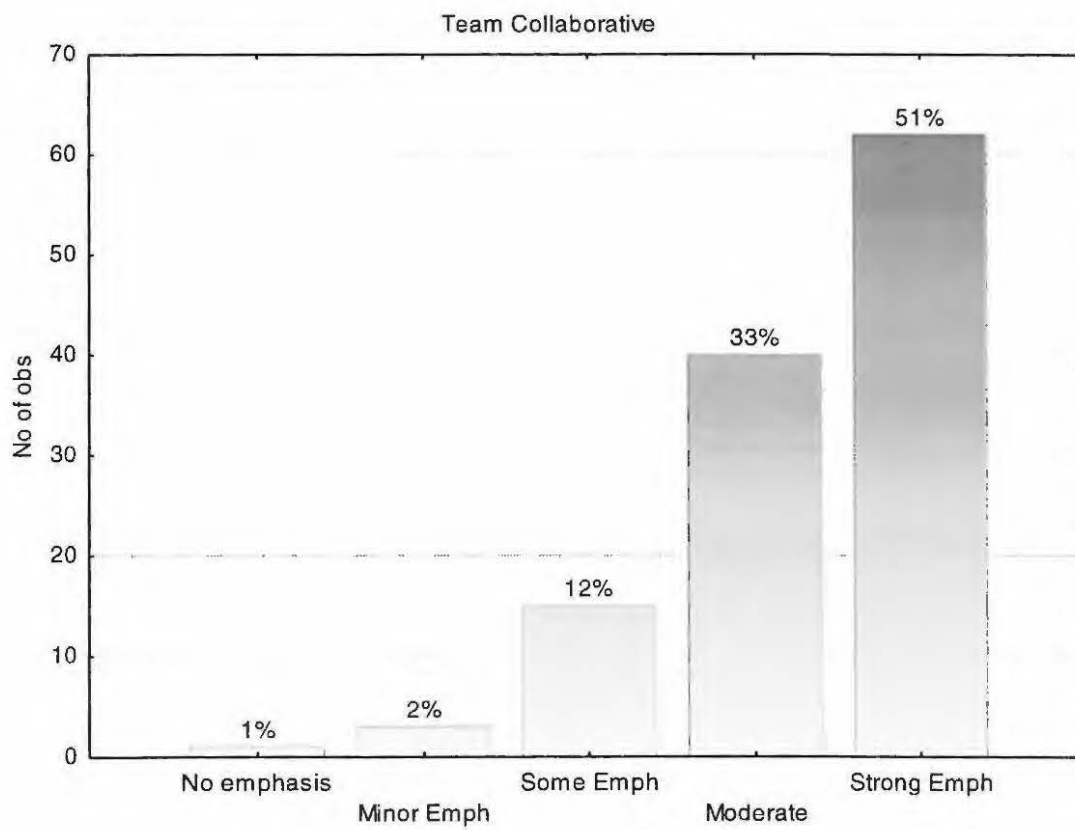
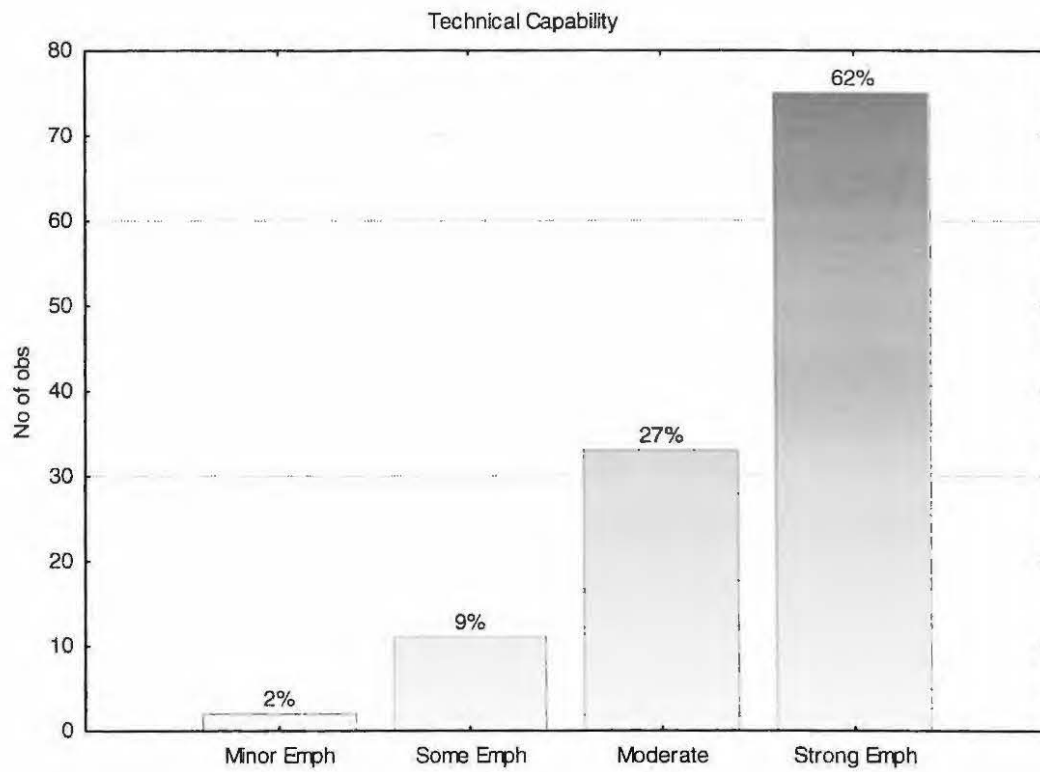
Leadership Competencies	df	p-value
Loyalty	4	0.001
Self-centred	4	0.1645
Survival	4	0.8586
Forgiveness	4	0.3712
Religious	4	0.1637
Tolerance	4	0.0107
Visionary	4	0.1324
Politeness	4	0.7117
Kindness	4	0.5676
Inspirational	4	0.0489
Delegate	4	0.6629
Solidarity	4	0.0611
Perceived internal control	3	0.327
Empowering	4	0.0151
Integrity	4	0.0413
Traditional	4	0.6422
Team collaborative	4	0.6146
Harmony	4	0.6913
Conformity	4	0.0622
Face savings	4	0.556
Technical capability	4	0.0016
Perceived external control	4	0.0029
Logical	4	0.0378
Procedural	3	0.0606
Consensus	4	0.0435
Personal communication	4	0.0689
Openness	4	0.0904
Consistent	4	0.3979
Strict	4	0.098
Self-sacrificial	4	0.3505
Performance	4	0.6222
Emotional	4	0.5038
Autocratic	4	0.0075

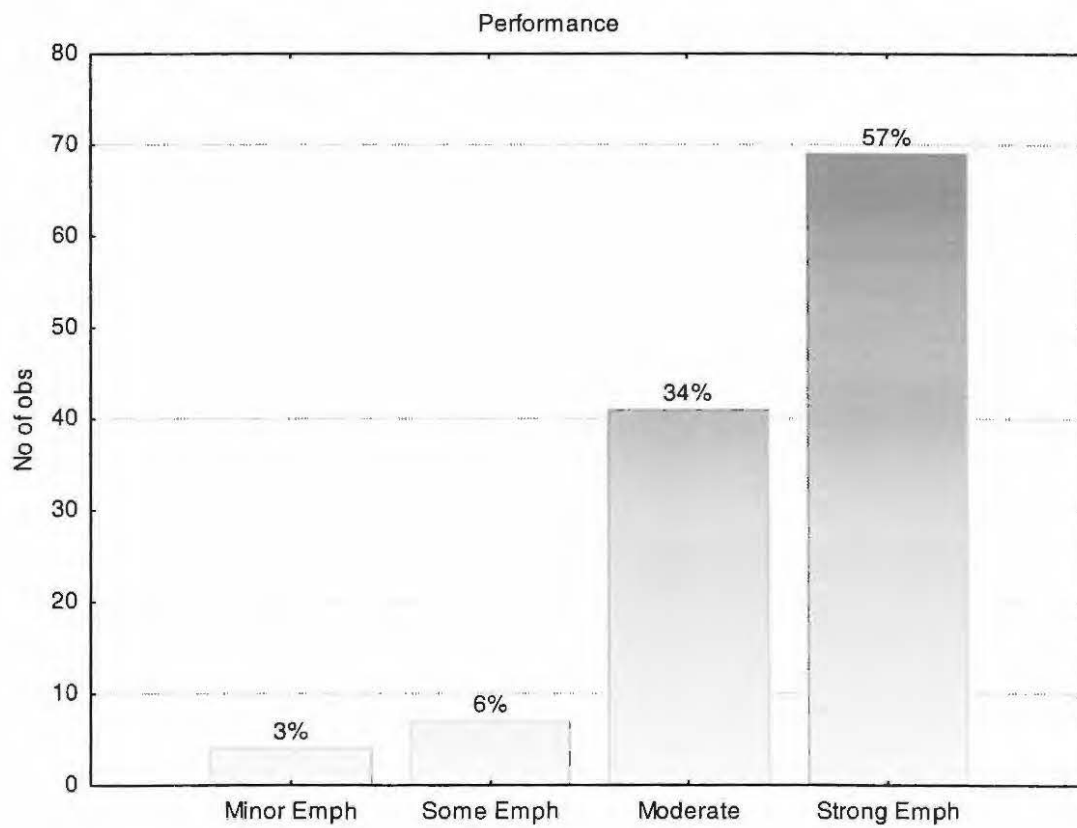
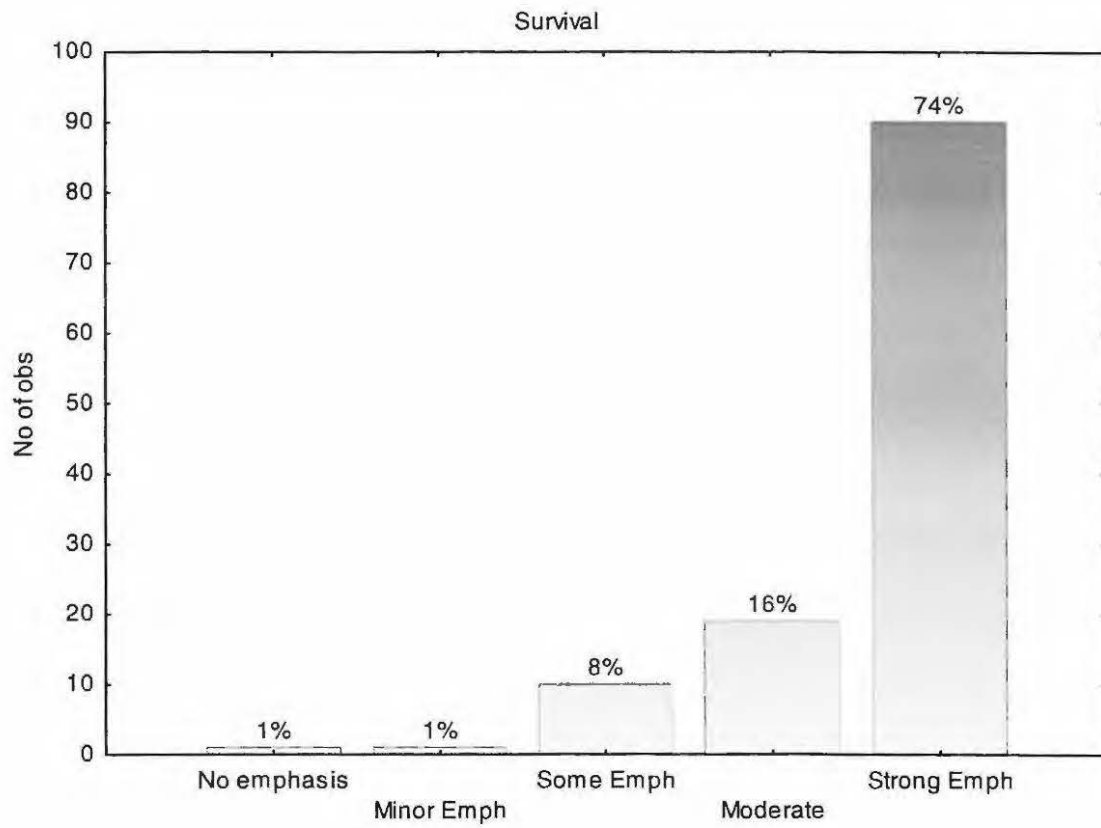
Appendix C. Responses to the following Leadership Competencies

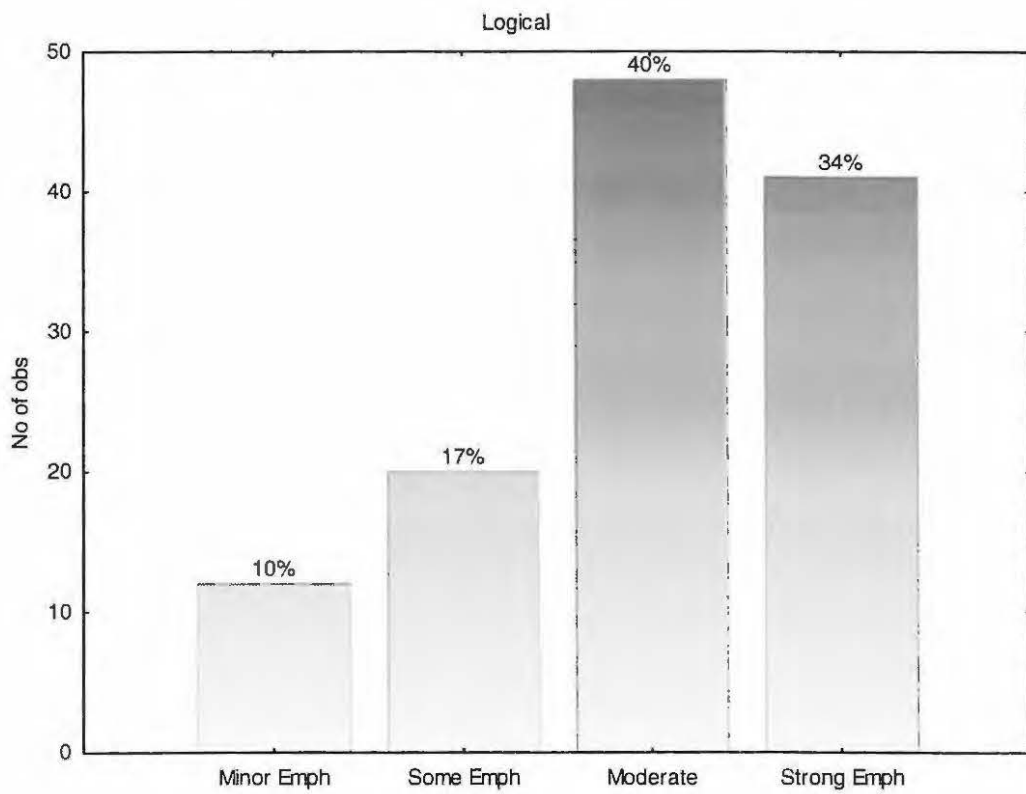
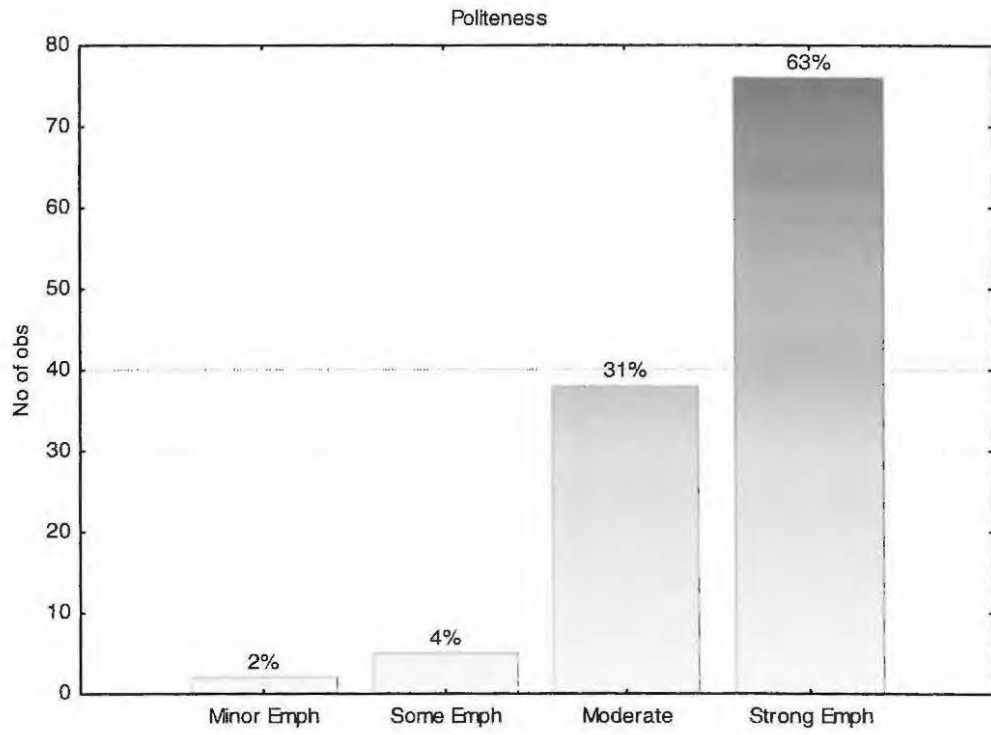


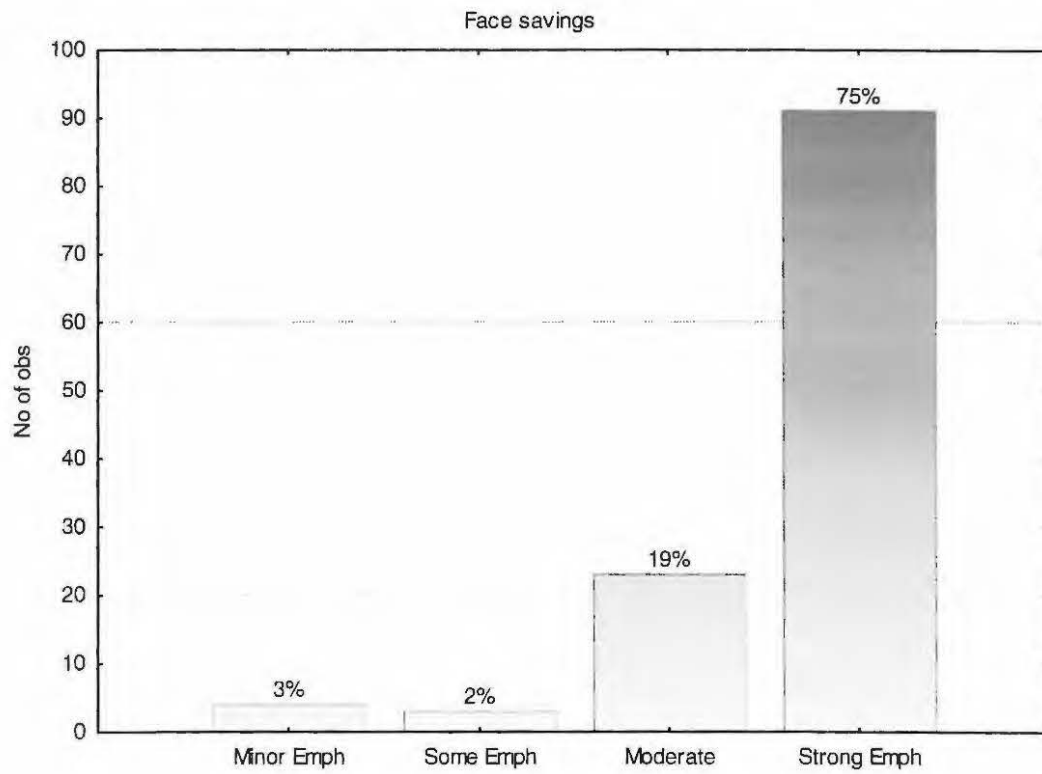
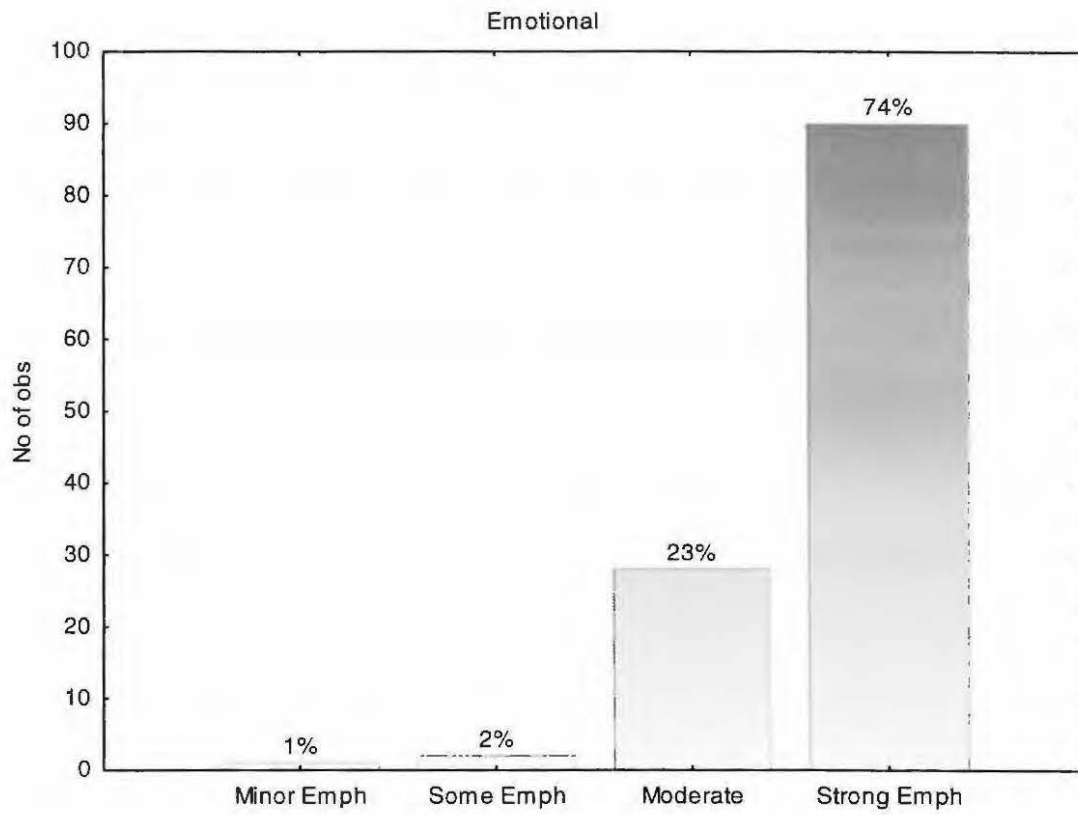


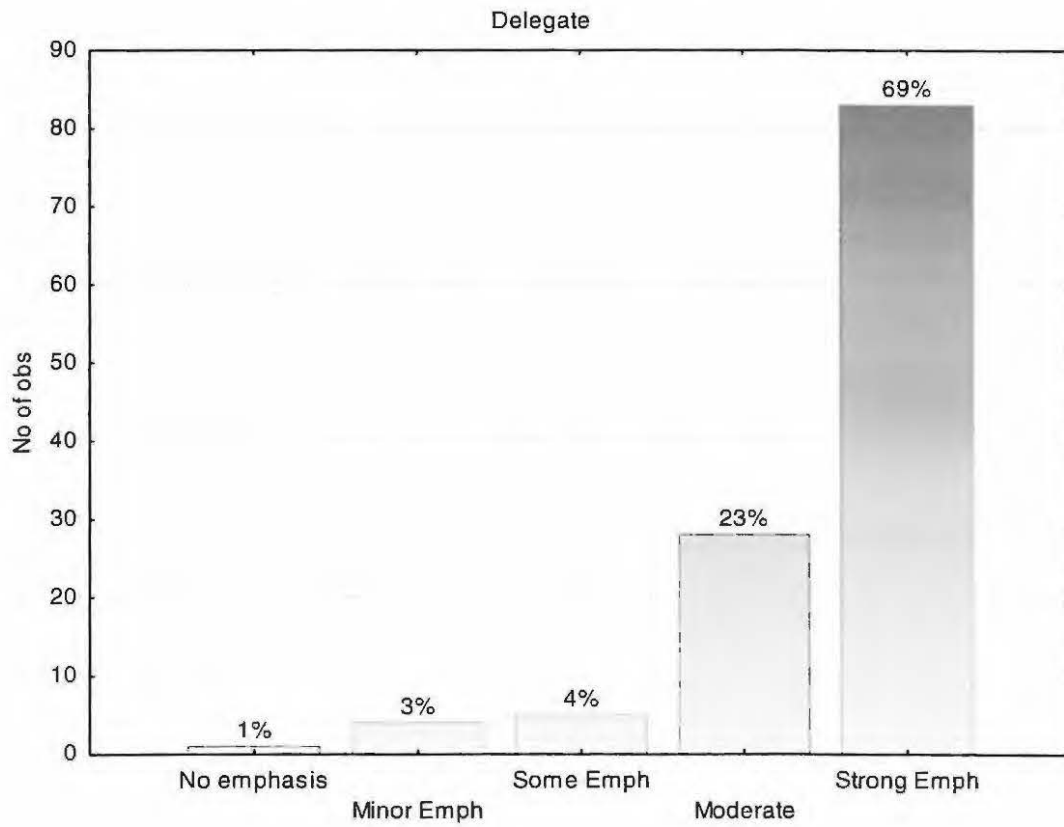
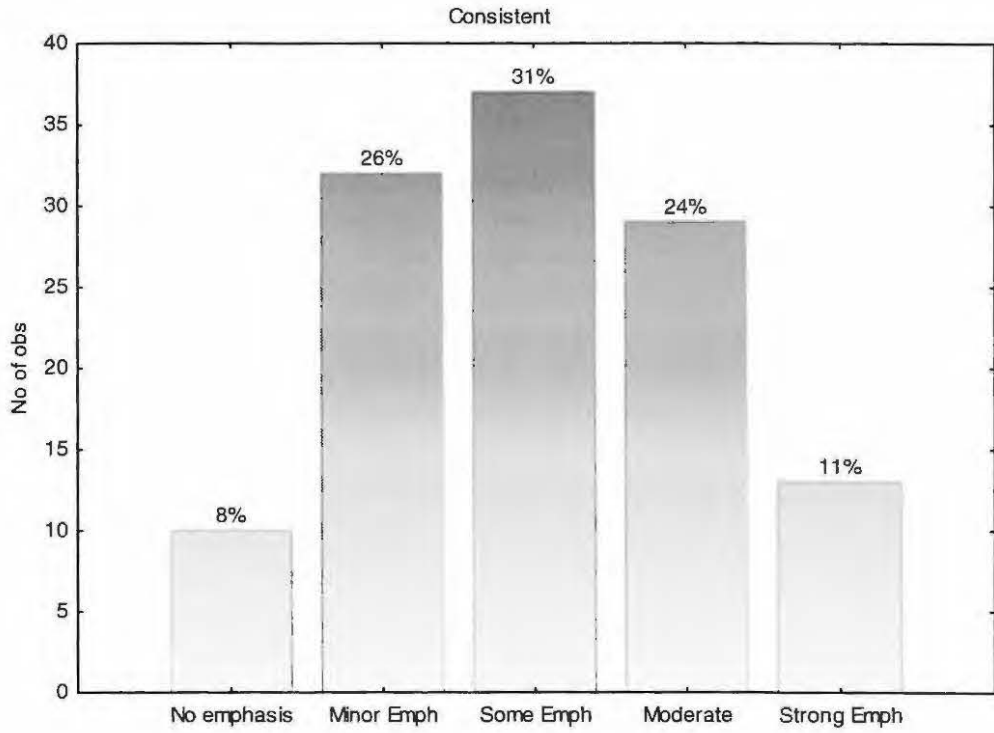


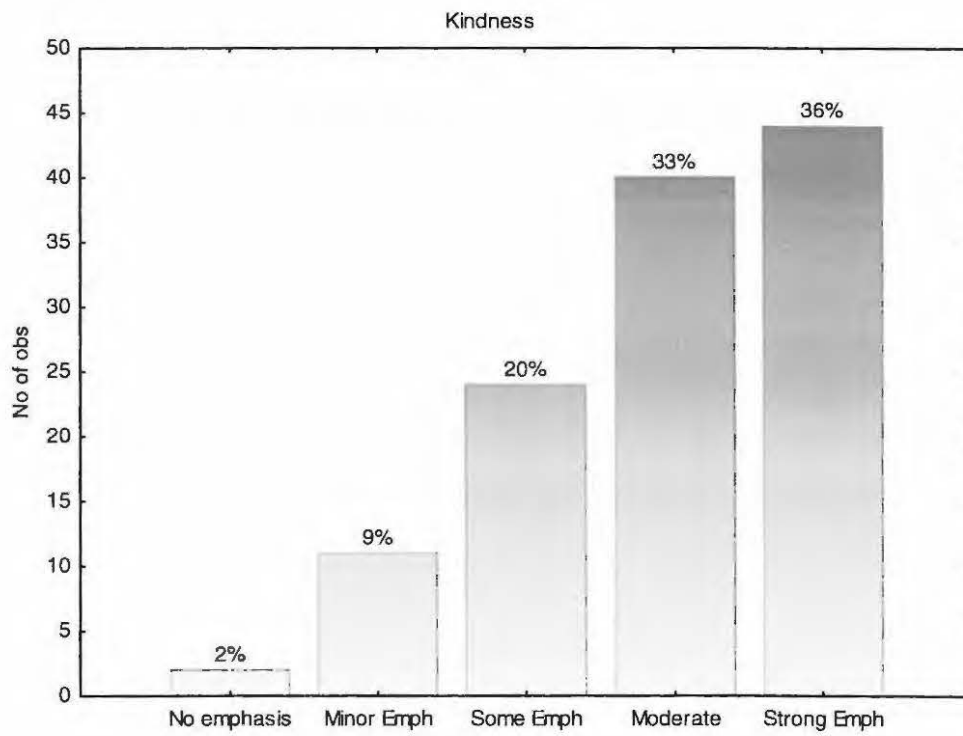
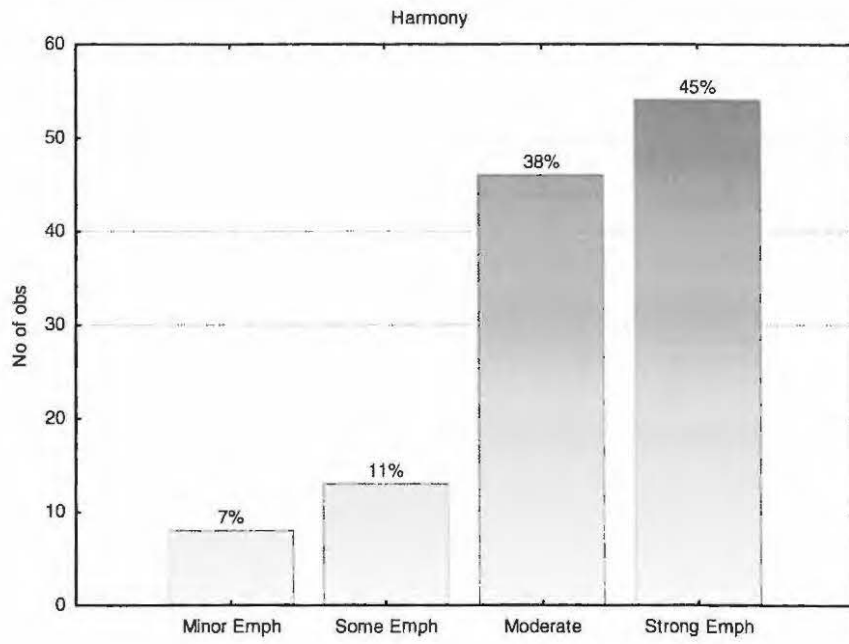


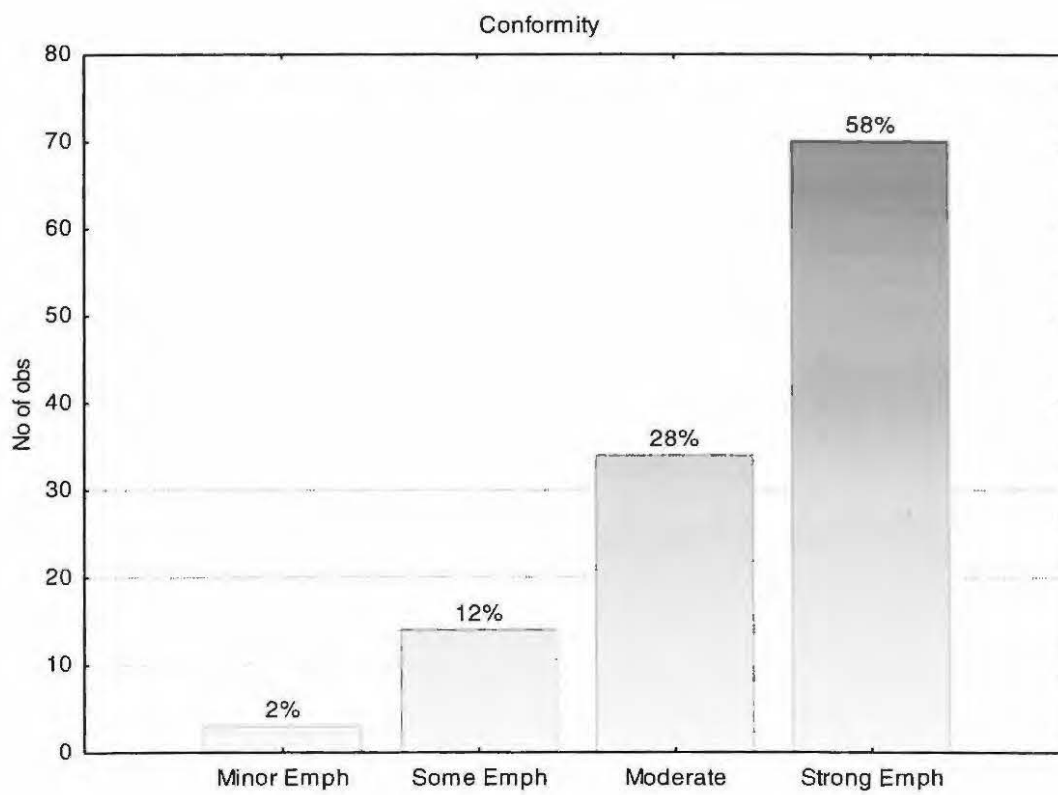
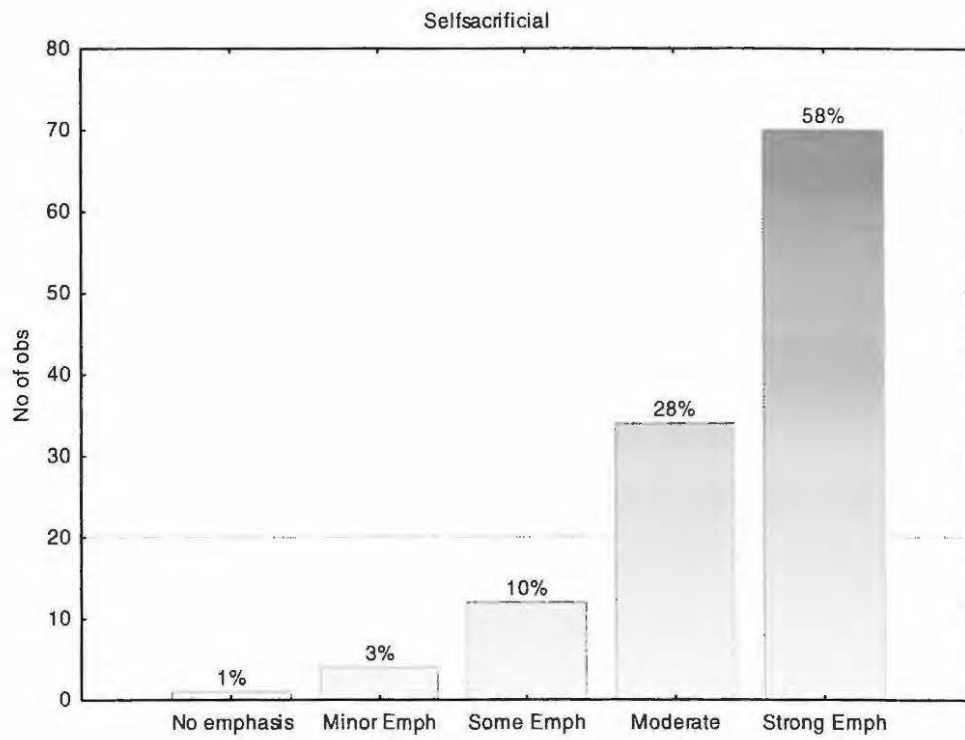


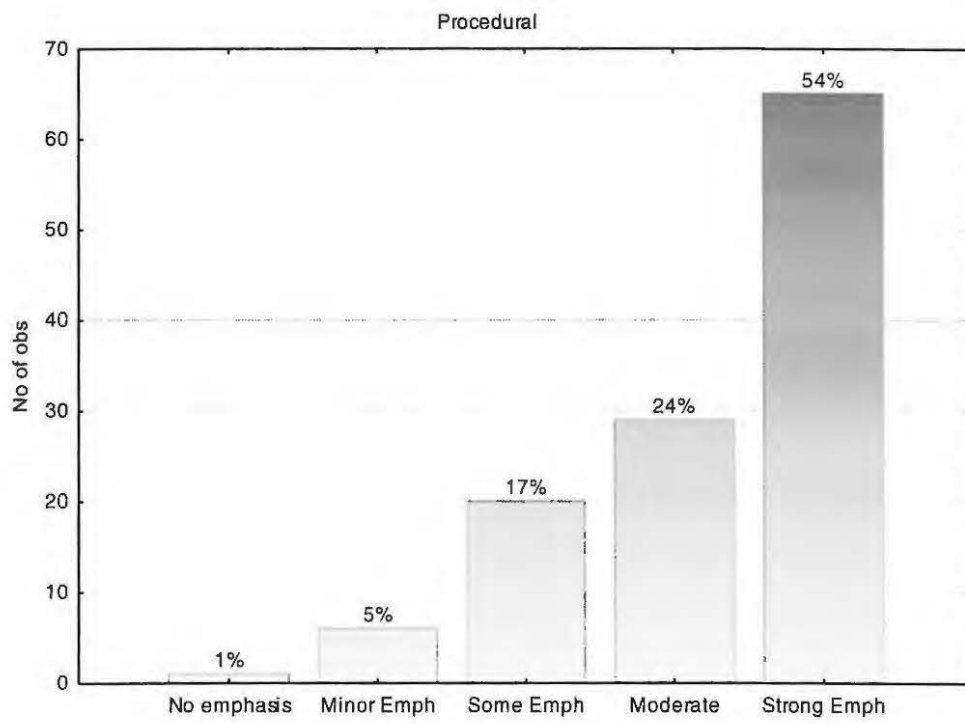
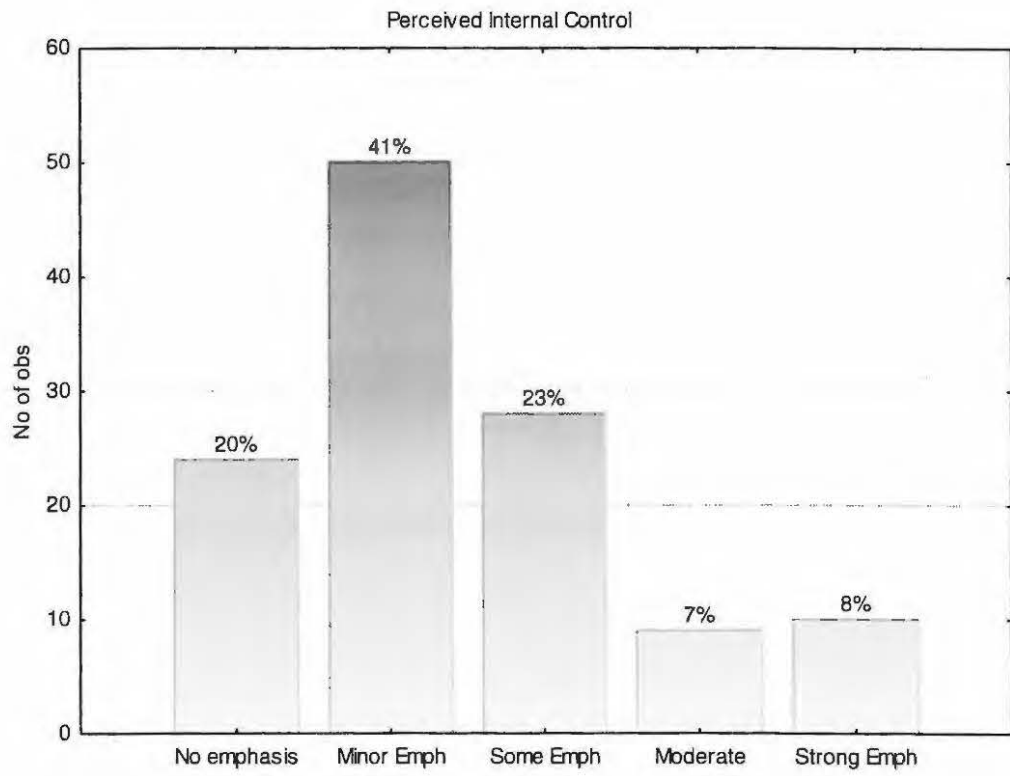


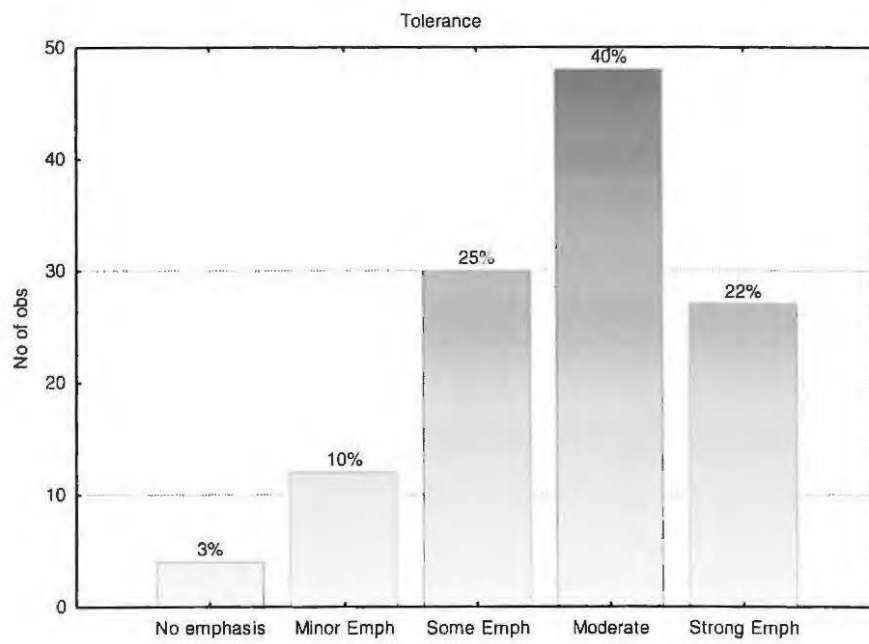
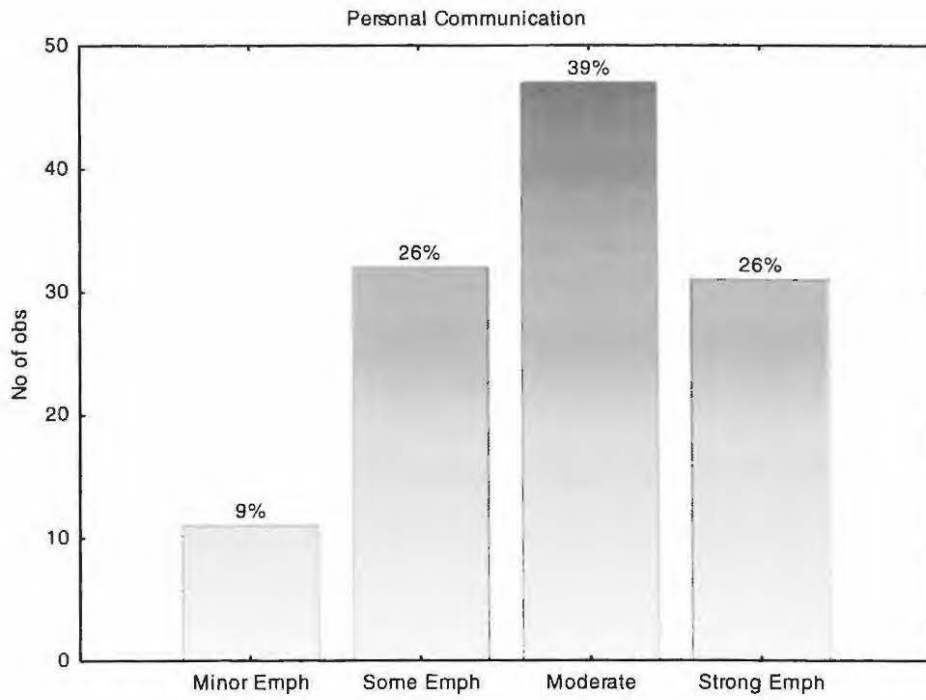


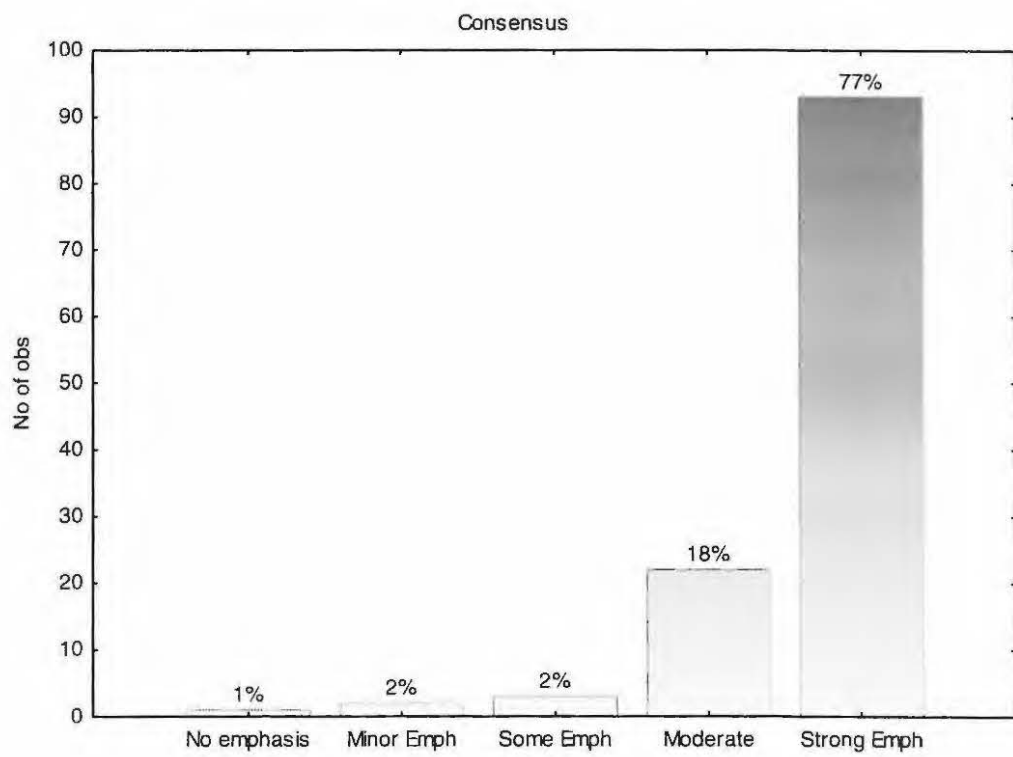
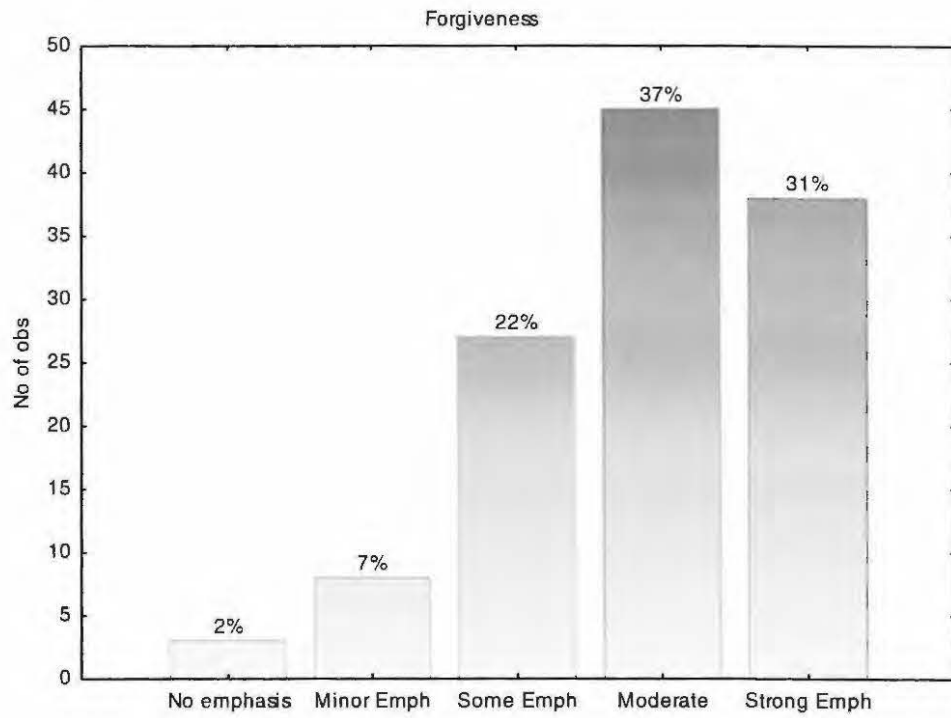


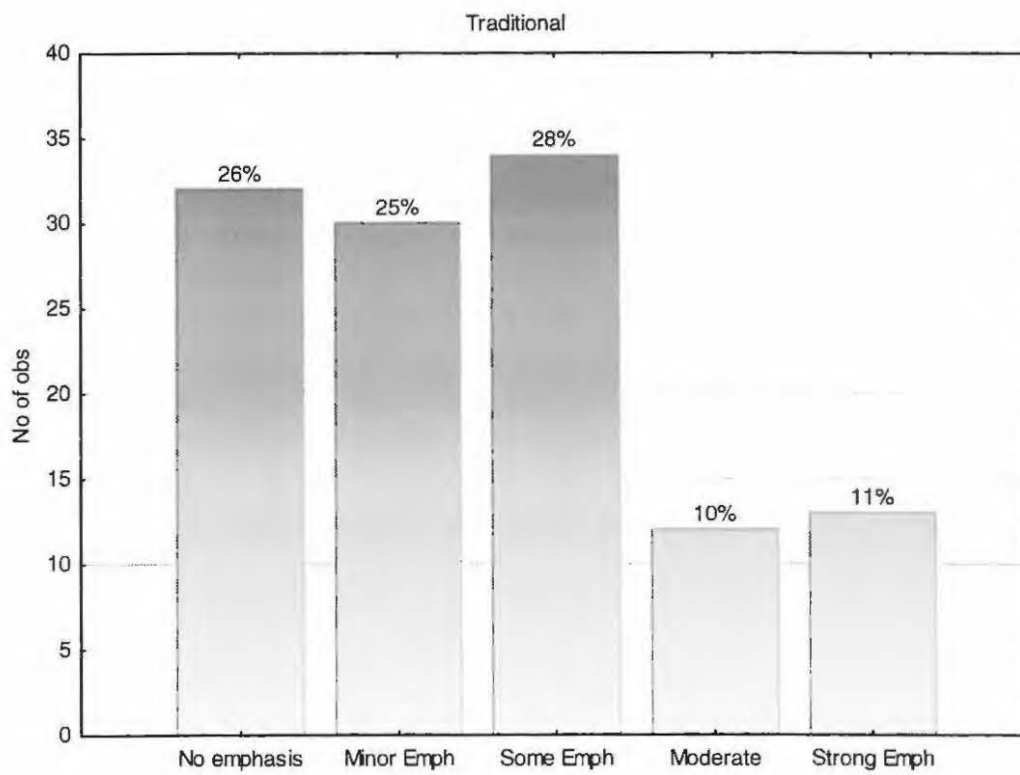
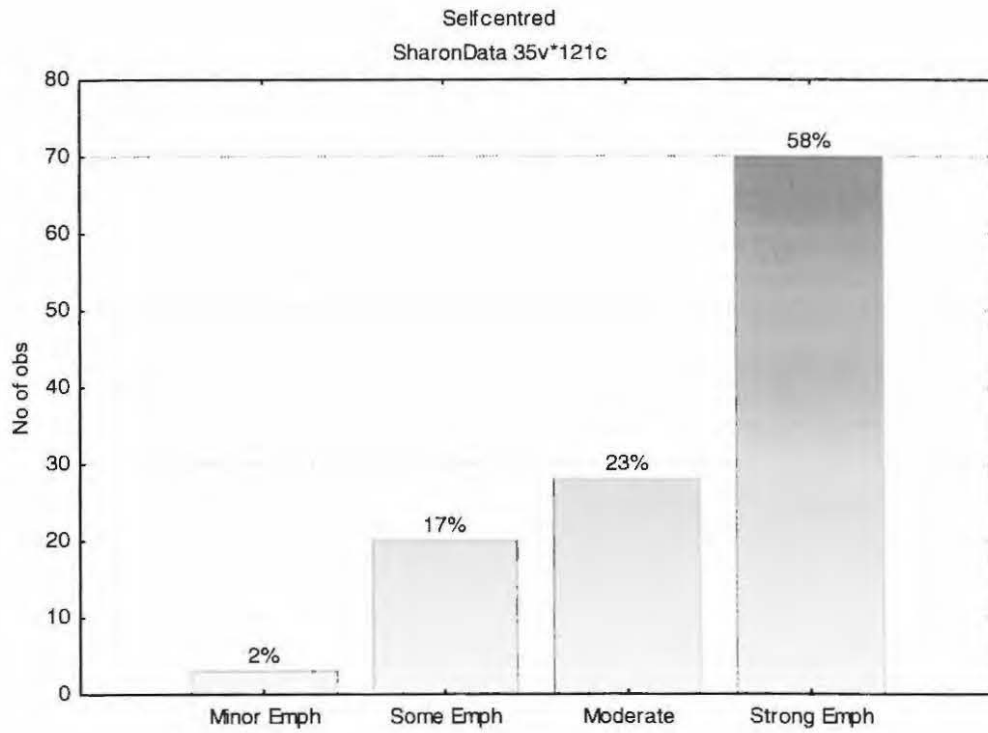


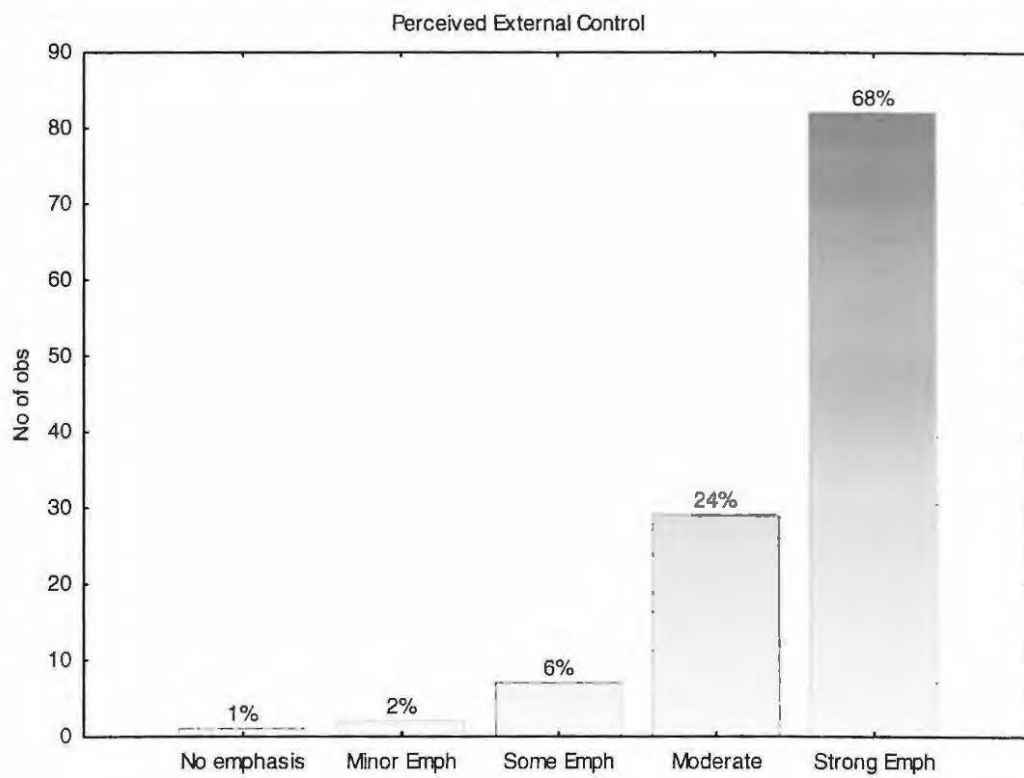
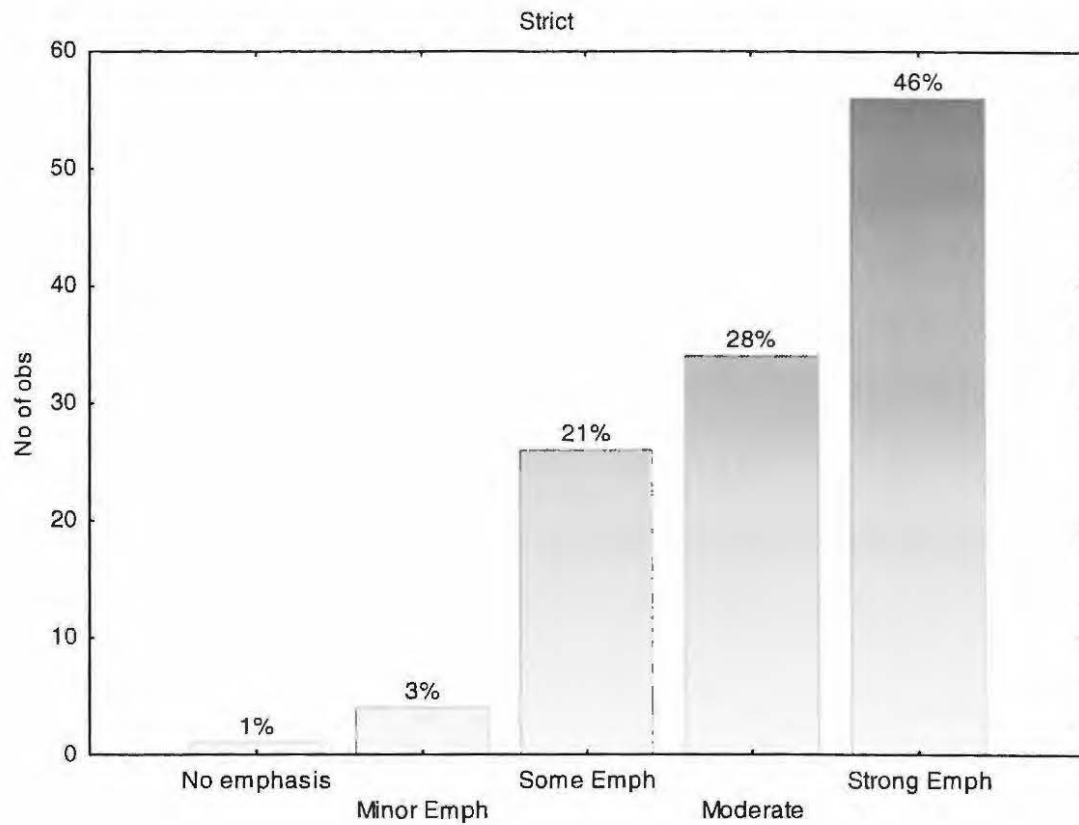


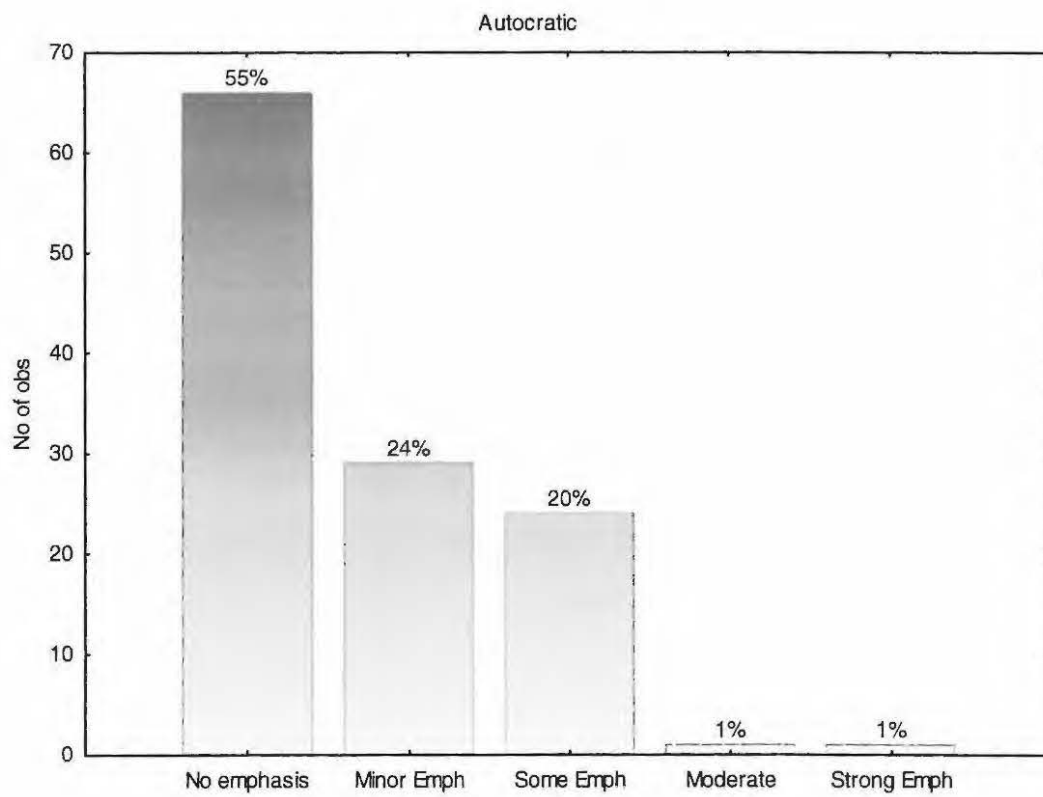
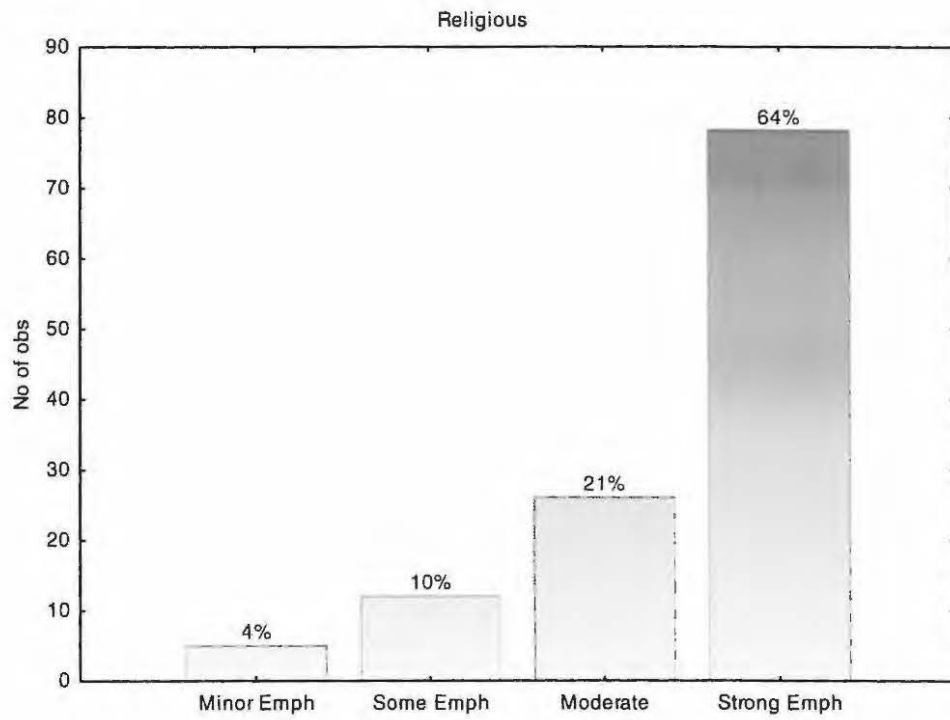












Appendix D

C.1 Frequency Tables: Responses to the following Leadership Competencies

Frequency table: Gender (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Male	59	48.76033
Female	62	51.23967
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Nationality (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
South African	68	56.19835
Zimbabwean	53	43.80165
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q1 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Some Emph	2	1.65289
Moderate	22	18.18182
Strong Emph	96	79.33884
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q2 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	7	5.78512
Minor Emph	22	18.18182
Some Emph	37	30.57851
Moderate	37	30.57851
Strong Emph	18	14.87603
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q3 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	1	0.82645
Some Emph	12	9.91736
Moderate	29	23.96694
Strong Emph	79	65.28926
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q4 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	5	4.13223
Some Emph	24	19.83471
Moderate	50	41.32231
Strong Emph	41	33.88430
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q5 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	47	38.84298
Minor Emph	21	17.35537
Some Emph	24	19.83471
Moderate	16	13.22314
Strong Emph	13	10.74380
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q6 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	4	3.30579
Some Emph	15	12.39669
Moderate	44	36.36364
Strong Emph	57	47.10744
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q7 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	1	0.82645
Some Emph	9	7.43802
Moderate	17	14.04959
Strong Emph	94	77.68599
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q8 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	2	1.65289
Some Emph	11	9.09091
Moderate	33	27.27273
Strong Emph	75	61.98347
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q9 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	3	2.47934
Some Emph	15	12.39669
Moderate	40	33.05785
Strong Emph	62	51.23967
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q10 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	1	0.82645
Some Emph	10	8.26446
Moderate	19	15.70248
Strong Emph	90	74.38017
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q11 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	4	3.30579
Some Emph	7	5.78512
Moderate	41	33.88430
Strong Emph	69	57.02479
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q12 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	2	1.65289
Some Emph	5	4.13223
Moderate	38	31.40496
Strong Emph	76	62.80992
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q14 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	1	0.82645
Some Emph	2	1.65289
Moderate	28	23.14050
Strong Emph	90	74.38017
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q15 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	4	3.30579
Some Emph	3	2.47934
Moderate	23	19.00826
Strong Emph	91	75.20661
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q16 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	10	8.26446
Minor Emph	32	26.44628
Some Emph	37	30.57851
Moderate	29	23.96694
Strong Emph	13	10.74380
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q17 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	4	3.30579
Some Emph	5	4.13223
Moderate	28	23.14050
Strong Emph	83	68.59504
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q18 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	8	6.61157
Some Emph	13	10.74380
Moderate	46	38.01653
Strong Emph	54	44.62810
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q19 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	2	1.65289
Minor Emph	11	9.09091
Some Emph	24	19.83471
Moderate	40	33.05785
Strong Emph	44	36.36364
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q20 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	4	3.30579
Some Emph	12	9.91736
Moderate	34	28.09917
Strong Emph	70	57.85124
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q21 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	3	2.47934
Some Emph	14	11.57025
Moderate	34	28.09917
Strong Emph	70	57.85124
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q22 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	24	19.83471
Minor Emph	50	41.32231
Some Emph	28	23.14050
Moderate	9	7.43802
Strong Emph	10	8.26446
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q23 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	6	4.95868
Some Emph	20	16.52893
Moderate	29	23.96694
Strong Emph	65	53.71901
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q24 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	11	9.09091
Some Emph	32	26.44628
Moderate	47	38.84298
Strong Emph	31	25.61983
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q25 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	4	3.30579
Minor Emph	12	9.91736
Some Emph	30	24.79339
Moderate	48	39.66942
Strong Emph	27	22.31405
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q26 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	3	2.47934
Minor Emph	8	6.61157
Some Emph	27	22.31405
Moderate	45	37.19008
Strong Emph	38	31.40496
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q27 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	2	1.65289
Some Emph	3	2.47934
Moderate	22	18.18182
Strong Emph	93	76.85950
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q28 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	3	2.47934
Some Emph	20	16.52893
Moderate	28	23.14050
Strong Emph	70	57.85124
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q31 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	1	0.82645
Minor Emph	2	1.65289
Some Emph	7	5.78512
Moderate	29	23.96694
Strong Emph	82	67.76860
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q32 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
Minor Emph	5	4.13223
Some Emph	12	9.91736
Moderate	26	21.48760
Strong Emph	78	64.46281
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency table: Q33 (SharonData)		
Category	Count	Percent
No emphasis	66	54.54545
Minor Emph	29	23.96694
Some Emph	24	19.83471
Moderate	1	0.82645
Strong Emph	1	0.82645
Missing	0	0.00000

Frequency Tables: Key

- Q1- loyalty
- Q2- openness
- Q3- visionary
- Q4- inspirational
- Q5- empowering
- Q6- integrity
- Q7- solidarity
- Q8- technical capability
- Q9- team collaborative
- Q10- survival
- Q11- performance
- Q12- politeness
- Q13- logical
- Q14- emotional
- Q15- face-saving
- Q16- consistent
- Q17- delegate
- Q18- harmony
- Q19- kindness
- Q20- self-sacrificial
- Q21- conformity
- Q22- perceived internal control
- Q23- procedural
- Q24- personal communication
- Q25- tolerance
- Q26- forgiveness
- Q27- consensus
- Q28- self-centred
- Q29- traditional
- Q30- strict
- Q31- perceived external control
- Q32- religious
- Q33- autocratic