

**EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND
QUALITY OF WORK LIFE: A CASE STUDY OF A CHINESE-SOUTH AFRICAN
JOINT VENTURE**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

Department of Management

RHODES UNIVERSITY

By

RAYNE CYLA HANDLEY

g09h2468

JANUARY 2016

RESEARCH SUPERVISOR: Mr. Mattheus Louw

ABSTRACT

This thesis employs a phenomenological qualitative research methodology to explore its research aims and objectives. It focuses on describing the various leadership styles and quality of work life (QWL) levels with reference to the Chinese-South African intercultural context. By doing so, it answers a primary exploratory research question; how does a particular leadership style influence QWL. By answering this question, this study will contribute to the understanding of the dynamics of Chinese organisations in South Africa. Furthermore, it will assist in creating greater intercultural synergy within the respective organisation. In order to explore the research question related to leadership and QWL, the thesis will begin by defining and describing the two concepts indigenously. In light of the research gap pertaining to African intercultural managerial contexts, as well as the rising Chinese and South Africa intercultural business environments, this case study demonstrates how leadership style is an important determining factor in QWL levels, both of the leaders as well as leader-raters within an intercultural context.

China is South Africa's largest trading partner and the signing of new agreements in 2015 will lead to enhanced China-Africa engagement at the macro and organisational level. China's increasing engagement in both Africa and South Africa has been widely covered, but non-pejorative empirical research is needed to shed light on the organisational manifestations of China's engagement. The study was conducted within the mining sector which is a key component of Chinese investment in, and trade with, South Africa.

Through an in-depth content analysis which draws on coding and thematic concerns, quantification and description, this study finds that leaders directly influence QWL through relationships with their followers. Moreover, leaders indirectly have a bearing on QWL through the influence they have on organisational and work environment factors. Another finding is that leaders are inclined to describing higher levels of QWL and more transformational leadership styles. In addition, it is shown that executives (irrespective of leader or leader-rater status) were more likely to describe a high level of QWL and transformational leadership behaviours when compared to skilled level participants while the semi-skilled participants were least likely of all. Finally, it was found that the nature of the relationship between a leader and a follower is influenced by whether the said leader is a direct supervisor or if there is a large organisational level 'gap' between a leader and a leader-

rater. It can also be said that leaders at higher organisational levels are expected to exhibit different leadership behaviours and meet different needs.

Overall this study suggests that leaders need to be aware of the way in which the intercultural context can influence perceptions of subjective phenomena such as leadership effectiveness and QWL. The study concludes that leaders directly and indirectly play a key role in determining need satisfaction and QWL levels. To that extent, they ought to strategically adopt leadership practices that enhance need satisfaction and wellbeing in the workplace. Wellbeing and employee satisfaction are increasingly gaining importance within theory and literature related to QWL and has, importantly, also been shown to influence workplace attitudes and behaviours.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to give my gratitude and appreciation to all those who have assisted me in the successful completion of this project. The support, emotionally, academically and financially given to me by others has allowed me to complete my Masters degree. In particular I would like to thank the following people for their input:

- Mr. Mattheus Louw: Who has superseded the role expected from a supervisor. Without his invaluable input and guidance my research would not be what it is.
- Mrs. Lynette Louw: You have provided me with guidance, support, consideration and kindness which have been a blessing to both my studies and for me personally.
- The participating organisation: I would like to thank the participating organisation for allowing me to conduct research within the organisation and to the participating employees for agreeing to partake in the study.
- Sandiswa Imbewu: I would like to thank the Sandisa Imbewu research for their financial support and funding.
- Staff and fellow students in the Department of Management: whose collegiality, help and distraction has made the research process a meaningful and holistic learning experience.
- My closest friends and family: My friends and family have played an important role through-out my tertiary career, in particular I would like to thank my father, Bruce Handley for his financial and emotional support. But most of all, my sister Skye Handley, who loves and guides me in all ways – always.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<u>SECTION</u>	<u>PAGE</u>
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiii
LIST OF EXHIBITS.....	xv
 <u>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</u>	
1.1. OVERVIEW.....	16
1.2. PRIMARY RESEARCH AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	18
1.3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	19
1.4. DELINEATION OF THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY.....	20
1.4.1. China-Africa engagement at a macro level	20
1.4.1.1. Geopolitics.....	21
1.4.2. The nature of bilateral trade and Chinese investment in the mining sector.....	23
1.4.3. Chinese-South African engagement at the organisational level	25
1.4.3.1. Cultural influences within the workplace.....	26
1.4.3.2. The intercultural context within the participating organisation	28
1.5. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	32
 <u>CHAPTER TWO: LEADERSHIP STYLES</u>	
2.1. OVERVIEW.....	34
2.2. THE NATURE AND DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP.....	34
2.2.1. African and Chinese definitions of leadership	35

2.2.2. The distinction between management and leadership	37
2.2.3. The cultural relativity of leadership	37
2.3. AFRICAN LEADERSHIP	38
2.3.1. South African leadership	41
2.4. CHINESE LEADERSHIP	42
2.5. TRADITIONAL WESTERN LEADERSHIP THEORIES	45
2.6. NEW WESTERN LEADERSHIP THEORIES	45
2.6.1. Server leadership	45
2.6.2. The Full Range Leadership Development Theory	46
2.6.2.1. Transactional leadership	48
2.6.2.2. Transformational/charismatic leadership	49
2.6.2.3. Laissez-faire leadership	51
2.7. SUMMARY	52
 <u>CHAPTER THREE: QUALITY OF WORK LIFE</u>	
3.1. OVERVIEW	53
3.2. DEFINITION OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	54
3.3. THE NATURE OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	55
3.3.1. Wellbeing theory	56
3.4. CONNOTES OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	57
3.5. ANTECEDENTS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	57
3.5.1. Work environment/job characteristics	60
3.5.2. Organisational environment/characteristics	61
3.5.3. Personal/individual influences	61
3.5.4. Social influences	62
3.5.5. Integrated perspective	62
3.6. CULTURAL RELATIVITY OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	63
3.6.1. Quality of work life in South Africa	63
3.6.2. Quality of work life in China	64

3.7. WESTERN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE THEORIES.....	65
3.7.1. The integration theory	66
3.7.2. Need satisfaction theory	66
3.7.3. Transfer theory (spillover effect)	66
3.7.4. The compensation theory	67
3.7.5. The segmentation theory	67
3.7.6. The accommodation theory	68
3.7.7. Resource drain theory	68
3.7.8. The Sirgy <i>et al.</i> (2001) Model.....	69
3.7.8.1. Need satisfaction categories and dimensions	70
3.9. SUMMARY	73

CHAPTER FOUR: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

4.1. OVERVIEW	75
4.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE.....	76
4.3. THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP ON QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	78
4.4. THE LEADERSHIP STYLE-QUALITY OF WORK LIFE RELATIONSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	79
4.5. THE LEADERSHIP STYLE-QUALITY OF WORK LIFE RELATIONSHIP IN CHINA.....	84
4.6. SUMMARY	88

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1. OVERVIEW.....	89
5.2. DEFINITION AND NATURE OF RESEARCH.....	89

5.3. RESEARCH PARADIGMS.....	89
5.3.1. Phenomenological paradigm	93
5.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	94
5.5. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	95
5.5.1. Qualitative and quantitative research design.....	95
5.5.2. Case study research design.....	97
5.6. DATA COLLECTION	98
5.6.1. Sample and sampling technique	99
5.6.1.1. Description of the organisation	100
5.6.1.2. Description of the participants.....	100
5.6.2. Data collection methods	101
5.6.2.1. Interviews	101
5.6.2.2. Supporting data collection techniques.....	102
5.7. DATA ANALYSIS	102
5.7.1. Data preparation	103
5.7.2. Content analysis	103
5.7.2.1. Description of the content analysis process.....	104
5.8. QUALITATIVE QUALITY CRITERIA	108
5.8.1. Reliability and dependability	108
5.8.2. Validity, transferability, and credibility	109
5.8.3. Objectivity and confirmability	110
5.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	110
5.11. SUMMARY	111
 <u>CHAPTER SIX: LEADERSHIP STYLE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION</u>	
6.1. OVERVIEW	112
6.2. BIOGRAPHICAL DATA INDICATORS OF PARTICIPANTS	113
6.2.1. Distribution of age.....	113
6.2.2. Distribution of gender	114
6.2.3. Distribution of nationality	115

6.2.4. Distribution of ethnicity	116
6.2.5. Distribution of education.....	117
6.2.6. Distribution of position in the organisation and employment codes.....	118
6.2.7. Distribution of years of tenure	119
6.2.8. Distribution of stay in South Africa	120
6.3. INDIGENOUS DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP	120
6.3.1. South African definition of leadership	121
6.3.1.1. Comprehensive leadership themes and codes.....	125
6.3.2. Chinese definition of leadership.....	131
6.3.2.1. Comprehensive leadership themes and codes.....	133
6.4. DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLE.....	139
6.4.1. General dominant leadership style	139
6.4.2. South African dominant leadership style	142
6.4.2.1. Individualised consideration.....	143
6.4.2.2. Idealised influence (attributes)	145
6.4.3. Chinese dominant leadership style.....	146
6.4.3.1. Idealised influence (attributes)	148
6.4.3.2. Individualised consideration.....	149
6.5. SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS	150
 <u>CHAPTER SEVEN: QWL FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION</u>	
7.1. OVERVIEW	154
7.2. INDIGENOUS DEFINITIONS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	154
7.2.1. South African definition of quality of work life	155
7.2.1.1. Quality of work life dominant themes.....	155
7.2.1.2. Quality of work life dominant codes	157
7.2.2. Chinese definition of quality of work life	160
7.2.2.1. Quality of work life definition themes	160
7.2.2.2. Quality of work life dominant codes	161
7.3. LEVEL OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE.....	163
7.3.1. Overall quality of work life	163
7.3.2. Antecedents to QWL	168
7.4. SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS	183

CHAPTER EIGHT: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

8.1. OVERVIEW	186
8.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE.....	187
8.2.1. Cross-tabulation of leadership style and quality of work life	187
8.2.1.1. Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership	187
8.2.1.2. Direct and indirect influence leaders have on quality of work life	189
8.2.2. The distribution of findings across leaders and leader-raters.....	191
8.2.3. Distribution of the finding across ethnicity.....	193
8.3. SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS	199

CHAPTER NINE: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1. OVERVIEW	201
9.2. SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE.....	202
9.3. SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS.....	203
9.3.1. Leadership style findings	203
9.3.1.1. Leadership definition findings.....	203
9.3.1.2. Dominant leadership style findings	205
9.3.2. Quality of work life findings.....	206
9.3.2.1. Quality of work life definition findings.....	206
9.3.2.2. Level of quality of work life findings.....	207
9.3.3. Relationships between leadership style and quality of work life	210
9.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH.....	212
9.5. RECOMMENDATIONS.....	213
9.6. THE VALUE OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH	215

LIST OF REFERENCES	218
APPENDIX A: Interview guide.....	260
APPENDIX B: Cover letter and informed consent	263
APPENDIX C: Individual participant coding sheet.....	267
GLOSSARY.....	269

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Overview of the research.....	18
Figure 2.1: Overview of the research	34
Figure 2.2: The Full Range Leadership model	47
Figure 3.1: Overview of the research.....	53
Figure 3.2: Antecedents of quality of work life	59
Figure 3.3: A new measure of quality of work life based on need satisfaction and spillover theories	69
Figure 4.1: Overview of the research.....	75
Figure 5.1: Methodological approaches associated with the main paradigms.....	97
Figure 5.2: The data collection process	99
Figure 5.3: Data analysis process.....	103
Figure 6.1: Overview of the research.....	112
Figure 6.2: Distribution of age.....	113
Figure 6.3: Distribution of gender	114
Figure 6.4: Distribution of nationality	115
Figure 6.5: Distribution of ethnicity	116
Figure 6.6: Distribution of education.....	117
Figure 6.7: Distribution of employment codes	118
Figure 6.8: Distribution of years of tenure.....	119
Figure 6.9: Distribution of stay in South Africa	120
Figure 7.1: Overview of the research.....	154
Figure 7.2: Mean satisfaction levels (quality of work life) across the need dimensions	166
Figure 8.1: Overview of the research.....	186
Figure 9.1: Overview of the research.....	201

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Definitions of leadership.....	35
Table 4.1: Leadership pervasiveness	77
Table 5.1: Quantitative and qualitative paradigm assumptions	91
Table 5.2: Features of positivistic and phenomenological paradigms	92
Table 5.3: Differences between quantitative and qualitative research designs	96
Table 5.4: Definition of case study research.....	98
Table 5.5: Biographical data of participants	100
Table 6.1: Themes and codes for South African leadership definition.....	121
Table 6.2: Themes and codes for South African leadership effectiveness	123
Table 6.3: Comprehensive themes and codes for South African leadership definition	126
Table 6.4: Themes and codes for Chinese leadership definition	132
Table 6.5: Themes and codes for Chinese leadership effectiveness	133
Table 6.6: Comprehensive themes and codes for Chinese leadership definition .	134
Table 6.7: Dominant leadership styles.....	140
Table 6.8: Comprehensive codes for the Chinese and South African clusters	141
Table 6.9: Comprehensive codes for the Chinese and South African clusters	151
Table 6.10: Percentage frequency distribution for dominant leadership styles and dimensions	152
Table 6.11: Summary of South African and Chinese dominant transformational leadership dimensions	153
Table 7.1: South African quality of work life definition	155
Table 7.2: Chinese quality of work life definition	160
Table 7.3: Overall quality of work life per need dimension	164
Table 7.4: Mean satisfaction scores across the need dimensions	165
Table 7.5: Dominant quality of work life antecedents.....	169
Table 7.6: Comprehensive quality of work life codes for the Chinese and South African clusters	184
Table 8.1: Dominant leadership style and corresponding quality of work life level described	187
Table 8.2: Dominant leadership style and corresponding quality of work life level across leaders and leader-raters.....	192

Table 8.3: Dominant leadership style and corresponding quality of work life level across ethnicity	194
Table 8.4: Dominant leadership style and corresponding quality of work life level.....	199

LIST OF EXHIBITS

Exhibit 5.1: Biographical data	104
Exhibit 5.2: Individual coding sheet	105
Exhibit 5.3: Individual coding sheet for leadership style	106
Exhibit 6.1: Biographical data accompanying quotations	113

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. OVERVIEW

The world has become increasingly global and characterised by trade, multinational corporations and geopolitical engagement. According to Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang and Lawler (2005) in light of globalisation, there is a need for improved understanding and increased research into intercultural research and cross-cultural research. Intercultural research looks at the interactions between cultures, seeking to understand how different cultures function together (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel & Roy, 2014: 5-6) while cross-cultural research pertains to the analysing of different cultures and comparative research across cultures (Johnson, Lenartowicz & Apud, 2006). Historically, China has had a corporate presence in South Africa since the 90s, both in terms of trade and Chinese organisations (Bräutigam & Xiaoyang, 2009). Western theory and research has however dominated human resource management (HRM) and is often ascribed to non-western countries, yet indigenous management practices are evident in both China and South Africa. Despite the prevailing non-Western leadership practices, however, little academic research has been conducted in attempt to build a well-researched body of cross-cultural and intercultural knowledge (Bräutigam, 2009; Fang, 2009; Brewster, Carey, Grobler, Holland & Wärnich, 2008; Wang, 2007; Gbadamosi, 2003: 276; Thomas & Bendixen, 2000; Hofstede, 1993).

A vast majority of the research into China's engagement in Africa has had a macro level focus. However, it is important to gain insight into phenomena at an organisational level, so as to improve cross-cultural management issues and thereby enhance intercultural synergies with respect to Chinese and African engagement (Park & Alden, 2013; Jackson, Louw & Zhao, 2013; Bräutigam, 2009). There is, thus, a need to create a rigorous body of indigenous management theory and practice (Wang, 2012; Smith, 2011; Jacob, 2005; Horwitz, Kamoche & Chew, 2002). The development of sound African management theory needs to be understood from a developmental perspective and not, as is often the case, from a pejorative viewpoint of Africa (Jackson, 2004) or of China (Bräutigam, 2009). Indeed Jackson (2004) argues that a majority of the literature pertaining to China's engagement in Africa is largely Eurocentric and may not, given its theoretical orientation, adequately explain localised organisational management and practices (Jackson, 2004). There is, according to Large

(2008: 59), a lack of research into organisations from an Africa-China perspective about issues such as “employment, labour relations, and the environment in various contexts”.

Related to that, South Africa has been rated in the Global Competitiveness Report (Schwab, 2014) as the 56th most competitive country for 2014-2015 out of the 144 participating countries; this is equivalent to the ranking received in 2013-2014. The two factors said to most heavily impede on South Africa’s attractiveness as a business location include ‘restrictive labor regulations’ and ‘inadequately educated workforce’. Both of these challenges pertain to labour market efficiency which highlights that the labour force challenges faced by South Africa can (and do) impede individual satisfaction. Such challenges can also have wide reaching consequences at the macro level (Jackson *et al.*, 2013). It has been argued that there is an increasing need to create a loyal, committed and competent workforce that is satisfied so as to retain intellectual capital, enhance labour relations, and improve organisational effectiveness (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr & Ketchen, 2011; Zafer Acar, 2012). Competitive advantages in contemporary business are said to arise from a high quality workforce or intellectual capital. As such, employee dissatisfaction could be detrimental to the success of Chinese multinationals in Africa (Zafer Acar, 2012: 217; Barney, 1986). Following on from this line of reasoning, this study argues that developing more humanised workplace environments, as well as improving the QWL is vital in creating and retaining loyal and competent employees (Dousti, Abbasi & Khalili, 2012: 193; Wyatt, 1988: 136). Overall the influence of leadership on QWL is twofold; firstly leaders have the ability to improve QWL simply through the establishment of good supervisor-subordinate relationships, particularly so in collective cultures advocating good social and familial relationships (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang & Lawler, 2005). Secondly, leaders can indirectly influence QWL through decisions pertaining to work environment and organisational context (Harrison, 2005; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005).

Flowing from the problem statement of this study, this introductory chapter will present the primary research aim and research objectives (Section 1.2.), followed by an overview of the research design and methodology adopted (Section 1.3.). Section 1.4. will provide an overview of Chinese-African engagement, followed by an introduction of that engagement at the macro and organisational level, including the intercultural and industry specific context factors. Lastly Section 1.5. will present a break-down of the thesis structure.

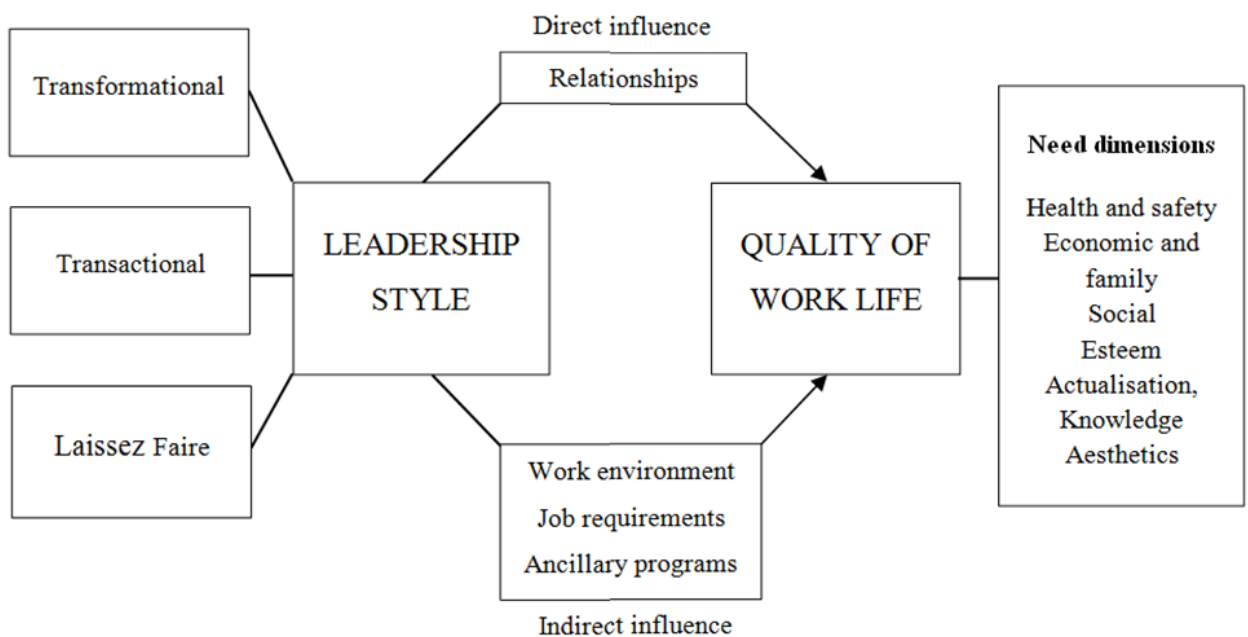
1.2. PRIMARY RESEARCH AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary research aim is to explore the potential influences of leadership styles on QWL. By meeting this aim, this study will contribute to the understanding of the dynamics of Chinese organisations in South Africa and assist in creating greater intercultural synergy within these intercultural organisations.

In order to achieve this research aim the following research objectives will be explored;

- To describe Chinese and South African definitions of leadership
- To discuss the dominant leadership style described by participants
- To describe Chinese and South African definitions of QWL
- To discuss the perceived QWL level described by participants
- To explore how leadership style influences QWL levels

FIGURE 1.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

The study adopted the use of Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) based on the Full Range Leadership Development Theory (FRLDT) (discussed in Section 2.6.2.) to meet the first two objectives. The FRLM contains three leadership style dimensions, which all leaders are assumed to exhibit to some extent – transformational, transactional, and non-transactional leadership. On the one hand, there are five dimensions of transformational leadership – idealised influence attributed, idealised influence behaviour,

inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. On the other hand, transactional leadership behaviour has three dimensions – contingent rewards, management-by-exception (MBE) active and MBE passive. Lastly, the non-leadership style is described as a “*laissez-faire* leadership style” (Kirkbride, 2006). It is generally accepted that transformational leaders are desirable. Paradoxically, *laissez-faire* leadership is minimised and transactional leadership is only used where appropriate to a given situation (Tsai, Tsai & Wang, 2011). The study then made use of the Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel and Lee’s (2001) QWL framework entitled: “A new measure of quality of work life based on need satisfaction and spillover theories” (discussed in Section 3.7.8.) to meet objectives 3 and 4. This framework proposes that the extent to which the four need satisfaction categories – work environment, job requirements, supervisory behaviour and ancillary programmes – are perceived to meet employees’ needs, determines the QWL (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001). Within these four need satisfaction categories there are seven need dimensions – health and safety, economic and family, social, esteem, actualisation, knowledge, and aesthetics (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 247-248). Need satisfaction theory suggests that every person has certain needs to fulfil in different life domains, including work life (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 252).

No appropriate theoretical model can be found for the relationship between leadership styles and QWL. As such, the influences between the two models were arrived at inductively.

1.3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a phenomenological case study approach given that richness of data is well suited to exploratory research and the dynamism within an intercultural context (Collis & Hussey, 2003). However, a prerequisite for a useful case study is that the unit of analysis chosen and the context of that unit is representative of other cases of the same type (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010: 30). The unit of analysis, Organisation ABC, was determined through ‘convenience and purposive sampling’ (Hair, Money, Samouel & Page, 2007). The unit of observation or sample within the unit of analysis included the willing management and supervisory level employees of ABC within the head office and mining operation and was determined through purposive sampling (Dul & Hak, 2008). Deductive and inductive approaches were adopted in the study to describe as well as to illustrate the findings to the research objective (stated above in Section 1.2.) that emerged from the data.

The data collection technique adopted was that of in-depth semi-structured interviews (Hair *et al.*, 2007). A total of 16 interviews were conducted at both headquarters and the mining

operation of the participating organisation (three Chinese and 13 South African). The participants were selected randomly but were all within the employment codes E (senior management) to DL (skilled employee lower). Six participants were randomly classified as leaders and six participants as leader-raters. The data collected was analysed through a thorough content analysis process of coding and theming. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, distributions and arithmetic means were used so as to better answer the primary research aim (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

In order to ensure that the research is of a high quality and contributes to the body of knowledge, the research was critically evaluated in terms of the qualitative research quality criteria and ethical considerations. Also, the limitations and weaknesses of the study were explored and discussed. Flowing from the literature review and research findings, recommendations and conclusions will be made.

1.4. DELINEATION OF THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.4.1. China-Africa engagement at a macro level

China has recently become Africa's third largest trading partner (Jackson *et al.*, 2013) and has become South Africa's largest trading partner since the forging of diplomatic relationships (Burke & Corbin, 2006). The pertinence of engagement between South Africa and China is confirmed in the December 2015 Forum on China Africa Co-operation (FOCAC) summit wherein the president of the Republic of South Africa – Jacob Zuma – and the president of the People's Republic of China – Xi Jinping – signed 26 new agreements (BBC News, 2015; Business Report, 2015). The South African government usually welcome China's engagement in light of the offers to trade, aid, policies of non-interference and mutual benefits (McNamee, Manoeli, Mulaudzi, Doran & Chen, 2012: 9). The Chinese government, interestingly, has provided many African countries with 'no strings attached' aid which serves to promote positive geopolitical relations and to promote "social progress in Africa" (Baah & Jauch, 2009: 50). Of course, it is easy to argue that it is not the responsibility of China alone to ensure mutual benefit and positive developmental outcomes for Africa, and that African countries ought to develop strategies that represent an African agenda which ensures accountability, transparency and economic policies that allow for benefits to accrue to both Chinese and African parties (Shelton & Kabemba, 2012; Baah & Jauch, 2009).

But given these developments, research into China's engagement is vital, if only to address the many misconceptions about Chinese presence in Africa and to develop management models that effectively achieve the 'win-win' relationship sought both by China and Africa (Alden, 2006). While China's engagement in Africa and South Africa has been widely covered in the media, there is lack of systematic and rigorous research into China-Africa engagement, specifically at the organisational level. Instead, South Africa has been more extensively researched in terms of relations with China compared to other African countries (Large, 2008: 56).

1.4.1.1. Geopolitics

According to Jackson (2012: 181), "China's presence in Africa appears to be part of a new geopolitical dynamic that may be affecting the way management and organisational knowledge from the South should be conceptualized and studied". Several theories are available to explain the geopolitics, how politics and foreign policy are influenced by geography, economics, demographics and other country dependent factors (Dodds, 2014). So, modernization theory suggests all countries should follow the modernization trajectory that the West followed. In many instances, the West has attempted to influence development via structural adjustment programmes (Browne, 2012). China is unique in that it followed a very different modernization process based on aspects both of capitalism and socialism. To be sure, Jackson *et al.* (2013) postulate that African governments and civilians "regard China as a model of modernization that is more responsive to African needs than are the models presented to them by the West". This model is often referred to as the 'Beijing Consensus'. Post 1949 China was underdeveloped and in some instances less developed than African countries and was devastated by war. However, China has achieved high growth rates and successfully reduced poverty and improved education without Western liberalisation policies (Large, 2008; Sautman & Hairong, 2007:81).

On the other hand, dependency theory, which is critical of Modernization theory, suggests that the 'First World' is largely responsible for the underdevelopment of the 'Third World' (Jackson, 2012: 182). The basic premise of dependency theory is that colonialism and neo-colonialism has resulted in exploitation of underdeveloped countries so as to advance developed world interests at the expense of third world development, economic expansion and growth (Jackson *et al.*, 2013). In the past, China experienced underdevelopment as a result of Western geopolitics. To support this claim, one can consider, for instance, the

Opium war in China, which is also referred to as ‘China’s 100 years of shame’, (Sautman & Hairong, 2013). South Africa too experienced negative consequences from the developed world (Nkomo, 2011; Davies, 2015; Kamoche, 2002). Critical theories such as modernization theory bring into play power dynamics. However, that such theories are not specific to South-South relationships remains questionable (Jackson, 2011). One example of a relationship that is not adequately captured by blanket Eurocentric theories is the South-South relationship, which pertains to the engagement between developing countries (Jackson, 2012; Tull, 2006). Geopolitics has tended to be dominated by North-South dynamics in which developed countries, predominantly in the Global North, engage with under developed countries predominantly in the Global South (Shelton & Kabemba, 2012; Biggeri & Sanfilippo, 2009; Gelb, 2005). The difference in politics, socio-economics, ideology, relative power and influence inherent within North-South relationships has, however, been challenged and reshaped within the contemporary global arena by rising South-South engagement (Mohan & Lampert, 2012; CCS, 2011). This study argues that to impose a modernization model or to exploit Africa, as the Chinese state believes the West did both to China and Africa, is not China’s political reasoning for forging diplomatic relationships with African counties such as South Africa. Instead the solidarity and mutual growth in South-South relationships is seen to be more evident, however this may be contested (see Section 1.4.2. for a discussion on China’s motivations for investment in South Africa).

To posit another more useful theoretical lens through which to consider the relationship between African and China, postcolonial theory presents itself in opposition to modernization and dependency theories by Jackson *et al.* (2013) in that it better allows for “understanding the more subtle implications of power in international relations mainly through cultural transmission and the way knowledge is transferred internationally”. Postcolonial theory puts forward that the developing world is portrayed from the viewpoint of the developed world and as such theory and literature is rife with Western imperialism and biases (Jackson, 2012:182). Post-colonial Africa has been viewed in terms of its problems and shortfalls and a critical rather than developmental view can be seen in the majority of current literature (Sautman & Hairong, 2007). As a result, African management has also been portrayed negatively and has been discussed mostly from the perspective of a ‘developed/developing world’ paradigm, both at a macro and organisational level (Jackson, 2002a: 998). The process of hybridisation is evident in postcolonial theory mostly through a process of cultural imposition by the West (Jackson *et al.*, 2013).

The problem with postcolonial, dependency and modernisation theories is that they have a distinct ‘North-South’ or ‘East-West’ bias (Jackson, 2012). North-South relationship theories conceptualise South-South relationships and the different power dynamics consequent to these geopolitical relationships (Jackson *et al.*, 2013). There is therefore a need for the development of theories that effectively conceptualise South-South relationships and in particular offer a model for China’s engagement in Africa from a Chinese and African perspective rather than a Western viewpoint. Secondly, given the rising presence of Chinese organisations in South Africa it can be said that organisational practices in South Africa are evolving and crossvergence or hybridisation within these organisations can be seen. As such a South-South relationship perspective is advisable over a North-South perspective (Jackson, 2012).

Given the magnitude of engagement between South Africa and China, it is important to better understand the Afro-Asian dynamic and, thereby better understand how Chinese organisations should operate in South Africa so as to benefit both South Africa and China. In order to understand fully the dynamics between China and South Africa, Section 1.4.2. will explore the motivations for China’s presence in South Africa.

1.4.2. The nature of bilateral trade and Chinese investment in the mining sector

The procurement of natural resources to sustain China’s economic growth is the most common explanation given within literature for Chinese investment in South Africa (Guliwe, 2009: 20; Gelb, 2005: 202; Tull, 2006: 465). This resource-seeking motivation, however, is supported by ‘anecdotal evidence’ by the CCS (2011: 10) and is largely argued on the basis that resource rich countries in Africa, like South Africa, have received the bulk of Chinese investment. The main criticism of resource-seeking investment in Africa and South Africa is a lack of beneficiation and value added. It can be argued however that Chinese investment in Africa is not limited to “the exploitation of Africa’s natural resources and infrastructural development, although these are the areas in which China’s impact is mostly felt across the continent” (Baah & Jauch, 2009: 50).

While foreign direct investment overall extends beyond the mining sector, bilateral trade between China and South Africa consists predominantly of commodity exports and raw materials from South Africa and value-added imports from China (Guliwe & Mkhonta, 2009: 305). Guliwe and Mkhonta (2009: 305) argue that the structure of trade between these countries is unusual given China’s lower gross domestic product per capita. Shelton and

Kabemba (2012: 17) contend that China's investment in "hydrocarbons, mining, infrastructure and telecommunications" have accrued many gains and are assisting to promote the development of African countries, particularly in countries with a strategic advantage, such as South Africa (Van der Wath, 2004). Furthermore, joint ventures enhance opportunities for capacity building, infrastructure development and technology transfer, particularly when at least 50% ownership is an active African partner (CCS, 2010: 189), as is the case with ABC, the unit of analysis of this thesis, an organisation operating within the Chrome industry. (See Section 5.6.2.1. for a description of Organisation ABC). ABC's mining operations are based in the Mpumalanga province where mining is the largest economic sector, accounting for 24.9% of gross domestic product in the province (Statistics South Africa, 2014: 1). Overall the extensive trade of resources from extractive industries require long term strategic planning on the part of South Africa to ensure benefits accrue to South Africa – economic growth and industrialisation, job creation, skills advancement and the transfer of technology. Currently, however, the long term strategising of South Africa appears to be weak (Shelton & Kabemba, 2012: 30-33).

As with many African countries, China has established a strong presence in South Africa's extractive industries for resource-seeking purposes. Chinese interest in investing in South African mining is likely to continue given the China-Africa Development Fund making US\$5bn available for mining investment in South Africa following bilateral discussions in 2008 (Shelton & Kabemba, 2012: 77). At the same time, South Africa has been criticised for not ensuring that natural resource extraction promotes economic development and industrialisation through the building of local capabilities (Jauch, 2011; Guliwe & Mkhonta, 2009). As such a major concern over Chinese investment in mining is that African countries such as South Africa are not strategically placed to increase production of secondary and tertiary goods with greater value added, this being likened to colonialism and neo-colonialism (Guliwe & Mkhonta, 2009: 310). Furthermore, trade imbalances, such greater Chinese imports, could be detrimental to South Africa's long term economic growth viability. Related to that, the Chinese demand for minerals has also resulted in higher price indices and as such accurate cost benefit analyses are complex (Huang & Ren, 2013: 11; CCS, 2010: 6). Organisation ABC has been working towards adding value through a smelter operation which produces ferrochrome (Confidential, 2008).

Juridical complexities inherent in South African mining sectors have resulted in South Africa adopting a strong approach to managing Chinese investments in mining. The mining sector is

generally accepted to be ‘high-risk’, whereby occupational health and safety is of importance in order to avoid legal action, labour unrest, investment withdrawal and negative publicity (Hermanus, 2007). As a result, Chinese investment in South African mines is often indirect, and comes in the form of joint ventures and partnerships, as evidenced by the subject of investigation, ABC (Shelton & Kabemba, 2012: 77; CCS, 2010: 185). The discussion above illustrates that the mining sector is a key component of Chinese investment in and trade with South Africa. This study will investigate the research problem within the mining sector, more specifically within a Chinese-South African joint venture in the Chrome market. In light of the macro level context of China-South Africa engagements discussed the following section will provide an overview of the intercultural context.

1.4.3. Chinese-South African engagement at the organisational level

As stated above, a majority of the HRM research is of Western origin, particularly the United States. According to Gelfand, Erez and Aycan (2007: 481) it has largely advocated cultural convergence rather than cultural hybridity. HRM practices, approaches and conceptualisations indeed vary across countries and therefore one can expect that the management approaches and practices of both Chinese and South African organisations will differ from one another as well as with other countries (Brewster *et al.*, 2008: 281). Having said that, evidence can be found where Western models have proven to be successful in Africa, such as transformational leadership (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005: 249). It has also been put forward that there are instances where organisational behaviour stands in contrast to local culture and hence indigenous management practices may not exist (Smit, 2010).

Culture influences almost every facet of human resources (HR); the behaviours, attitudes, preferences, needs and the manner in and (extent to) which needs are met. Thus, creating a work place that meets a diverse set of needs and desires is complicated within an intercultural context. This is because the building of positive relationships between leaders and subordinates to create a workplace that satisfies the diverse needs of the organisation and organisational members, across organisational levels, work characteristics, cultures and ethnic groups, is likely to require a re-conceptualisation of organisational practice within an intercultural organisation (Jackson, 2011; Bird & Fang, 2009). Therefore, an understanding of and respect for culture, ethnicity, and demographics needs to be fostered and incorporated into a positive effort towards hybridisation and cohesiveness.

Jacob (2005) puts forward that even if cultures can be distinguished from one another, they may not be comparable given that most cultural typologies assume homogeneity in a given country's culture. Over and above it is unlikely that the dimensions of a singular typology will accurately ascertain more than one culture. Jackson (2011) highlights that South Africa and indeed Africa as a whole has not been heavily researched in terms of cross-culture. Over and above the "cultural and institutional influences on Sub-Saharan countries and the different societies and organizations within its many countries are multi-faceted, complex and bring into doubt the efficacy of simplistic comparisons between cultures". Nevertheless the potential influence of culture will be explored as well as the South African and Chinese cultures so as to better understand the inter-cultural context of the participating organisation and its pervasiveness on leadership and QWL perceptions.

1.4.3.1. Cultural influences within the workplace

Prior to the 80s, cultural influences were largely overlooked when analysing organisational behaviour; however, there is a growing interest in the pervasiveness of cultures (Gelfand *et al.*, 2007: 481). Culture is important in that national culture and identity-group affiliations influence how employees behave within an organisation (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000: 509). A meta-analysis by Gelfand *et al.* (2007) provides a comprehensive review of the cultural influences on organisational behaviour in terms of work and motivation, the nature of the relationship between the individual and organization, negotiation/disputing, teams and team work, leadership and the importance of expatriate management. While it is the opinion of this study that culture is of significant importance to organisations, different perspectives emerge from prevailing theory, namely the notions of divergence, convergence, and crossvergence.

Convergence argues that market deregulation, trade and the loosening of state control (Brewster *et al.*, 2008) as well as increased trade, travel, and the increasing interconnectedness of markets (Wu, 2006: 35) have resulted in increased cultural exchange. The cultural exchange process argues that cultures are converging towards a homogenous western culture whereby a local culture has been replaced with a western culture through cultural imposition (Lee, Knight & Kim, 2008: 163; Lawler, Walumbwa & Bai, 2007). Over and above the diffusion of culture, the theory of convergence puts forward that best practice and high performance work systems as well as benchmarking will eventually disestablish less effective management practices which are accelerated by the spread of western theories in the curricula of business education (Brewster *et al.*, 2008).

Arguments of convergence are problematic insofar as they posit that the convergence is of a western orientation. This seems, however, both pejorative and, to an extent, hinders the development and conceptualisation of theory (Jackson, 2004). From this viewpoint, leadership is culture-specific and culture influences what is considered to be effective leadership (Jackson, Meyer & Wang, 2012). While this may be so, an opposing argument is that of divergence. It suggests that, despite globalisation, local and cultural contexts remain distinctive and pertinent within the organisational context (Jacob, 2005; Horwitz *et al.*, 2002; Blunt & Jones, 1997). From the divergence perspective, neither institutional nor cultural contexts change. This is not to say that institutions and cultures are becoming more distinct, but that there is 'non-convergence' (Horwitz *et al.*, 2002; Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung & Terpstra, 1993).

It has been suggested that crossvergence is more likely to occur when diffusing managerial practices across cultures to the extent that some convergence can be seen globally, so too is there evidence of divergence within cultures and management practices (Kamoche, Chizema, Mellahi & Newenham-Kahindi, 2012: 2829; Wang, 2012: 90; Horwitz *et al.*, 2002: 1020; Jackson, 2002a: 1008). Following this line of thought, one is more likely to find a hybrid between Chinese, South African and western culture in Chinese organisations operating in South Africa (Warner, 2011; Jacob, 2005). The integrative nature of crossvergence is an attractive alternative conceptualisation as it explains in part the inconsistencies found in cross-cultural research pertaining to divergence and convergence and refers to "an overlap of values across countries, and diversity of values and sub-cultures within countries" (Horwitz *et al.*, 2002: 1021). Jackson, Louw and Zhao (2013) contend that cultural crossvergence is useful in that it better explains south-south relationships than traditional western models. Crossvergence theories often do not, however, incorporate power dynamics. In addition, there is often no clarification on how crossvergence manifests itself. Jackson (2004) contends that dominant cultural, racial and ethnic groups may vary across organisations and different hybrid organisational cultures will most likely emerge.

Jackson (1999, 2002b, 2011) highlights that there are distinct differences between western and indigenous ideas and practices of organisations and management and puts forward two world views pertaining to the 'locus of human value' that determine how organisations manage their HR. An instrumental view, often adopted by Western organisations, perceives labour merely as a resource or input into the production process while a humanistic view on the other hand sees employees as having value in their own right rather than as a means to an

end. Cultures are said to be significantly different between instrumental and humanistic cultures. Transitional economies such as South Africa and China often adopt a short-term perspective and implement Western management models without consideration to the appropriateness of these individualistic and capitalistic models within collective cultures (Jackson, 2002b: 456). While the Chinese and South African employees of the organisation need to have a work environment that is positive and meets their needs, this can be complex given that needs and how they can be satisfied vary across cultures (Mosadegh Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). An understanding of these cultures is also needed in order to understand how to build mutual need satisfaction (Bird & Fang, 2009: 139; Thomas & Bendixen, 2000).

1.4.3.2. The intercultural context within the participating organisation

The sub-Saharan context has been described by Horwitz *et al.* (2002: 1021) as being diverse, as evidenced by South Africa's cultural landscape, as well as between other African states. Jackson (1999: 307) describes a post-apartheid South Africa as having a "multicultural, polyglot society (with eleven official languages) of overwhelming complexity, deep historical antagonisms, [and] profound differences between rich and poor". Given South Africa's cultural diversity, ethnicity is a more pertinent concept than culture in South Africa (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). In the case of South Africa, Jackson further maintains (1999: 309) that there is a "need for organisations to be a means for developing people for the future". The importance of positive interpersonal relationships stems from the importance of community and belonging, whereby the achievement of group goals is privileged over individual goal achievement (Blunt & Jones, 1997). The 'collectivist' nature of China has also been linked to the achievement of a group over individual goals, co-operation and consensus building so as to maintain harmony. In this sense, collective cultural values exist both in South African and Chinese culture, if we allow such a culture, for the purpose of this study, to be conceived of as a coherent unit (Zhou & Martocchio, 2001; Seligman, 1999). Familial collectivism, then, is embedded in managerial practices where concrete notions of benevolence and compassion within Chinese organisations exist, and the idea of '*ubuntu*' in African organisations prevails (Jackson, 2012: 195).

South Africa and China, without being reductive, can both be described as largely humanistic cultures with a strong emphasis on family, community and social relationships. For this reason, western models may not adequately balance work life with home life (Jackson,

2002b: 456). Jackson (1999) found that there is a largely instrumental approach to management in South Africa, due in part to western influences on business practise which are strongly modelled on British organisational systems which were present during Colonialism. These practices are likely to be incompatible, perhaps even non-complimentary, with the more humanist orientation of the black African workforce. This non-alignment of the work place to employee needs, arguably, results in a decreased QWL level (Masango, 2002). Extended family relationships, and a sense both of community and tradition, are often not fully understood by individuals of Western structural paradigm (Horwitz *et al.*, 2002: 1030).

At the same time, South Africa communities and societies hold different values in high regard, which can be attributed to the concept of '*ubuntu*' (Nkomo, 2011). Van der Colff (2003: 261) emphasises that the concept of '*ubuntu*' is the cornerstone to all African values and thus permeates into leader and subordinate's behaviours and attitudes. *Ubuntu* has been described as involving 'collective personhood' and 'collective morality' and that as a result harmony is highly valued (as is seen within Chinese culture) (Horwitz, Hemmant & Rademeyer, 2008; van der Colff, 2003, Mbigi, 1997). Of course, there are other scholars and thinkers – Van der Colff (2003) being one such example – who have correctly argued *ubuntu* may not only be an African value but, more broadly, a human value too. Mangaliso (2001: 32) is in agreement about the universal nature of *ubuntu* and suggest that *ubuntu* could result in competitive advantage regardless of the cultural context. Nkomo (2011: 377) from a different perspective, mentions that *ubuntu* is a clear example of a generalisation in that, despite the South African origin of the concept '*Ubuntu*', the concept is nevertheless ascribed to the entire African continent. Nkomo (2011: 378), form this line of reasoning, questions whether or not it should "be taken for granted that all of Africa's cultures" despite their historical and political contexts "share certain concepts, values and beliefs that have remained pure and unaffected by colonialisaton". Considering the nebulous forms of cultural determinism, and the possible influences of context and a given place and time, to suggest that *all* cultures are static and unchanging is to homogenise an otherwise heterogeneous cultural landscape. Nkomo (2011: 378), moreover, highlights that arguments about African humanism are rooted in the western conceptions in that the concept of 'Africa' as we know it today, is a European construct. While shifts towards the 'Africanisation' of the workplace has been noted, reverting to 'pure traditional values' in light of societal, historical and value shifts over time may be impossible, and perhaps, a dangerous task of cultural essentialism (Jackson, 2004). The recourse comes, then, with Jackson (2005), who calls into question whether or not

ubuntu has persisted into contemporary African values and whether it is in fact uniquely African.

As far as China is concerned, Chinese culture is – arguably predicated on the Confucian ethos (Jackson, 2014). While China may be a very diverse country, it still bears a strong and common history and cultural value system (Hafsi & Yan, 2007). Fang’s (2006) position as it relates to the cultural particularity of China, is that Confucian principles are often used to guide a negotiator’s behaviour. Confucianism, notes Fang (2006), has an emphasis on networks and trust and therefore ‘*guanxi*’, loyalty, reciprocity, obedience, and respect are imperative to effective organisational functioning (Ashkanasy, 2002: 155). Ashkanasy’s (2002: 155) research into this subject shows that a differentiating factor between Confucianism and other belief systems found in the world is the adaptability and changeability of the Confucian cultures. This, we are lead to believe, might explain why Chinese culture is enduring. Confucianism, the leading scholars argue, governs the social and workplace behaviour of Chinese individuals. Confucius advocated both the ‘Five Cardinal relationships’ – between ruler and subject, father and son, husband and wife, elder and younger brothers, and between senior and junior friends – as well as ‘Five Constant Virtues’ – benevolence, righteousness, propriety, wisdom and fidelity or trustworthiness. The latter involves a process in which both parties in a relationship benefit, thereby ensuring harmony (Fan, 2000). The importance of reciprocal and complementary relationships (*guanxi*) between leaders and followers is aligned with the Confucian advocacy of the ‘Five Cardinal Relationships’ given the clearly defined superior and subordinate within a dyadic relationship (Rarick, 2007; Chen, Tsui & Farh, 2002, Fang, 2001). The Confucian principle of *guanxi* is defined by Wang (2007) as being a “set of Chinese feudal ethics that defines the hierarchical relationships between the noble and humble, the close and distant, and the individual and the group (family or clan)”. Appropriate behaviour, then, is often guided by the nature of one’s relationship with others and the maintenance of harmony between individuals within a relationship. To that extent, relationships are an important phenomenon influencing the structure of society (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh & Cheng, 2014; Handley, Raw, Louw & Louw, 2013; Wang, 2007). Also engrained within the Five Cardinal Relationships and evident in Chinese social norms within the work environment are the respect of superiors’ authority and the significance of occupational and social status (Jackson, 2014; Wang, 2008). Chinese culture advocates the use of relational based rules of fairness and respect over legalism (Faure & Fang, 2008).

Evidently, the cardinal relationships set out by Confucius as well as the five constant rules dictate one's behaviour and role within these relationships. In addition, they influence the way leaders and subordinates behave within the organisational setting (Wang, 2007). It becomes clear when looking at *guanxi* that loyalty and trust are a core component of good interpersonal relationships in China. Should an individual not fulfil their responsibilities as set out by the relationship, this will amount to a loss of trust (Chen *et al.*, 2014). Trust can be built through keeping promises and being grateful to those who exhibit loyalty and pure intentions. Good deeds then result in a sense of indebtedness which requires reciprocity (Hafsi & Yan, 2007). Loyalty, to be sure, may create a sense of sharing which in the business environment implies a willingness to share ideas and concerns without fear of repercussions (Chen *et al.*, 2014). The concept of 'face' and 'saving face' is also imbedded within Confucianism (Wang, 2007) since, through the protection of 'face', social harmony is maintained as emotions are controlled, humility is presented and conflict avoided (Fang & Faure, 2011: 330). Saving 'face' can be achieved through recognising and respecting the status and hierarchy position of others and reciprocating. The concept of 'face' is at the "centre of Chinese social psychology". It is therefore important for an individual to 'save' their 'face' as well as the 'face' of others (Fang & Faure, 2011: 330), and in that way, the face of the collective unit. Chinese individuals manage their moral behaviour in that the fear of shame and 'face' is so great (Horwitz *et al.*, 2008: 2) given that it is seen as an unforgivable offence and a breach of trust to cause another to 'lose face' given the adoption of relationalism as opposed to legalism within society and business in China (Wang, 2007).

Researchers in the field have clearly shown distinguishable work related differences between China and that within South Africa, for example the Chinese predisposition to equity stands in contrast to South Africans who tend to favour equality and redistribution (Horwitz *et al.*, 2002: 1030; Zhou & Martocchio, 2001: 117). It is not farfetched to suggest, then, that Chinese organisations operating in South Africa need to manage these different preferences so as to ensure QWL for all organisational members. Jackson (2012: 195) argues that adopting the Chinese cultural values of benevolence, moral righteousness and a respect for etiquette and norms may enable cohesion and satisfactory outcomes. The Chinese leaders of organisations operating in Africa can thus create "power structures, relationships, decision making and management processes" that engender these values, resulting in "fair wages and safe working environments, fair-dealing with customers, providing benefits to the community, being a good corporate citizen, promoting social good generally and protecting

the environment” (Jackson, 2012: 195). Expatriate workers ought to ensure that they understand and respect the culture of the country they are working in and share their own cultural values. However, localisation is often needed to build harmonious work relationships and reduce cultural conflicts and misunderstandings (Wang, Freeman & Zhu, 2013; Horwitz, Ferguson, Rivett & Lee, 2005).

1.5. STRUCTURE OF THIS THESIS

This first chapter has explored Chinese-South African engagement at the macro and organisational level and brings to light the need to better understand the dynamics of leadership and QWL within a Chinese-South African intercultural context so as to enhance the synergies, co-operation and mutual satisfaction within the workplace. As such the main aim of this study, to explore how leadership can influence QWL within an intercultural organisational context, was indicated in this chapter.

Chapter Two seeks to define leadership both in terms of western and indigenous theory and to discuss that nature of leadership as a phenomenon. This chapter will discuss South African and Chinese leadership theory so as to understand potential cultural influences on leadership findings. It will also present the traditional, and generally western, leadership theory. Lastly the leadership model adopted in this study will be presented and discussed.

Chapter Three will discuss western and indigenous QWL definitions found within literature. Consequently, the nature of QWL will be interrogated as well antecedents to QWL that emerge from the literature review. QWL theory will then be discussed from a Chinese, South African and western perspective in order to understand potential cultural influences on the phenomena that may emerge from the data. In the last instance, Chapter Three will present and discuss the QWL framework adopted for the purpose of this study.

Then, Chapter Four seeks to explore the relationship between leadership and QWL phenomena. The chapter will begin with an introduction to the literature on the influence of leadership on QWL in general before looking specifically at transformational and transactional leadership and its influence on QWL. In line with the cultural orientation of this study, an exploration of the leadership style-QWL dialectic is then explored from a South African and Chinese perspective.

Chapter Five is the last theoretical chapter and is to focus on research design and methodology. The chapter will begin with a discussion of the definition and nature of

research, research assumptions, and research objectives. The chapter will then look specifically at research design and methodology, data collection, and data analysis. In order to ensure the quality of the research, Chapter Five will necessarily discuss quality criteria and ethical considerations.

Chapter Six will present and discuss the biographical indicators of the research sample in order to add meaning to the findings in the remainder of Chapter Six as well as in Chapters Seven and Eight. The chapter will aim to answer research objectives one and two, to discuss Chinese and South African definitions of leadership and to describe the dominant leadership style. Inductive and deductive - Bass and Avolio's (1997) FRLM- content analysis techniques will be adopted to generate findings and consequent conclusions.

Following from the findings in Chapter 6, Chapter Seven will meet research objectives four and five, to discuss indigenous – Chinese and South African – definitions of QWL and to discuss the level of QWL present within the unit of analysis. The QWL findings will be arrived at inductively and deductively – in line with the Sirgy *et al.*'s (2001) QWL framework.

Chapter Eight will give effect to the final research objective and the primary research aim in order to address the ways in which leadership style influences QWL levels. By identifying patterns between leadership style and QWL findings, this chapter will seek to highlight potential relationships between the two constructs.

Chapter Nine will then present the recommendations and conclusions of the study. In this chapter the overall research study will be summarised. The contribution of the study to the understanding of the leadership style and QWL constructs. Finally, the potential relationship between the abovementioned constructs within an intercultural context will be put forth, taking into account the limitations and weaknesses of the research. In light of this, recommendations for theory and practice will be presented.

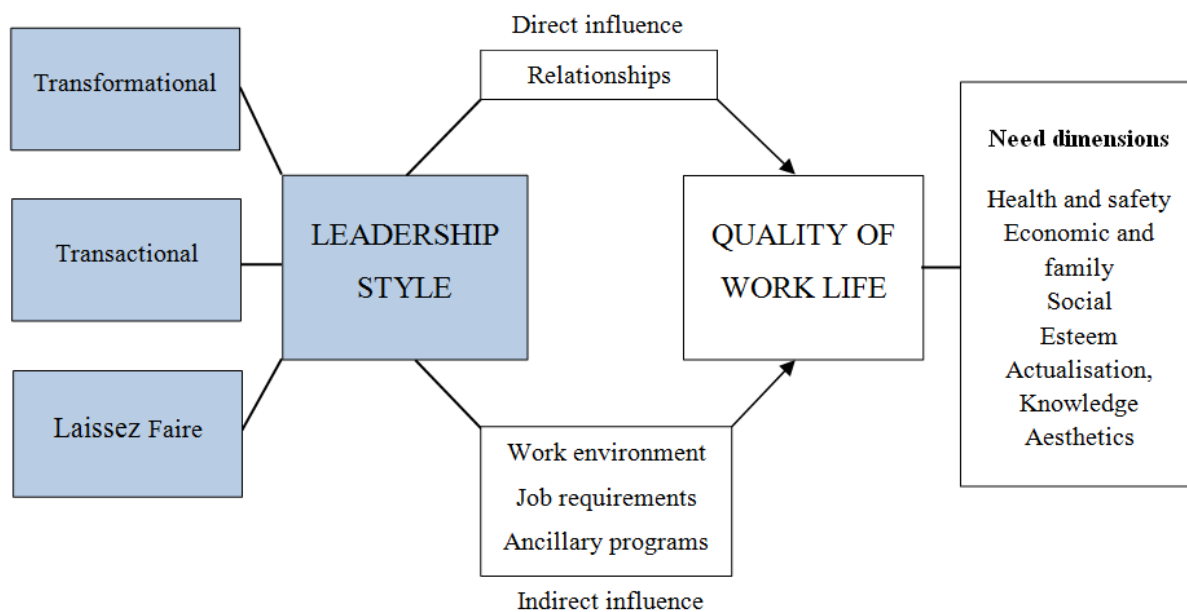
CHAPTER TWO

LEADERSHIP STYLES

2.1. OVERVIEW

In this chapter, leadership will be defined in general terms. More importantly, the South African and Chinese definitions of leadership will be explored. The nature of leadership will then be discussed, which will lead into the discussion of African and Chinese leadership theory as well as western leadership theory. This chapter will then conclude with an examination of the chosen framework, and this framework's applicability in the Chinese and African context. Figure 2.1. below, which illustrates the overall study, properly highlights the research construct to which the discussion of this chapter pertains.

FIGURE 2.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

2.2. THE NATURE AND DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a complex and dynamic phenomenon that has manifestations in business, social governance and other arenas. The overarching essence of leadership has resulted in the major scope of the concept and an array of definitions (Duma, 2010; Bass, 1985). Over time, organisational leadership theory has moved away from 'scientific leadership' – planning, organising, leading and controlling. This somewhat myopic understanding of leadership, it

has been argued, leads to bureaucratic organisational structures. Contemporarily, the move in the corporate community is towards more ‘transformational’ and ‘humanistic leadership’ (Browaeys & Price, 2011).

From the 70s until the present, leadership has generally been seen as ‘a process’, an ‘interaction’ between leaders and followers. Alternatively, it has been seen as a ‘personality’ or ‘behaviour’, which results in leaders ‘influencing’ followers so as to attain ‘organisational goals’ (see Table 2.1.). Amos (2012: 374) argues that leadership ought to be defined in terms of relationships and “not administrative activities and directives”.

TABLE 2.1: DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Definition variable	Contributing authors
A process	Zafer Acar (2012: 218); Jones & George (2008: 557); Bass (2007: 11); Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk (1996); Stogdill (1974: 11)
An interaction	Amos (2012: 374); Bass (2007: 11); Scherr & Jensen (2007); Yukl (2006); Gerber <i>et al.</i> (1996)
A personality or behaviour	Amos, Ristow, Ristow & Pearse (2008: 197); Jones & George (2008: 557); Bass (2007: 11); Scherr & Jensen (2007); Yukl (2006); Hall & Maritz (1997: 27); Gerber <i>et al.</i> (1996)
Influence	Bass (2007: 11); Appelbaum, Bartolomucci, Beaumier, Boulanger, Corrigan, Dore, Girard, & Serroni (2004: 18); Gerber <i>et al.</i> (1996); Stogdill (1974: 11)
Goal attainment	Amos <i>et al.</i> (2008: 197); Jones & George (2008: 557); Bass (2007: 11); Scherr & Jensen (2007); Yukl (2006); Appelbaum <i>et al.</i> (2004: 18); Gerber <i>et al.</i> (1996); Stogdill (1974: 11)

(Source: Researcher’s own compilation)

2.2.1. African and Chinese definitions of leadership

The definition variables listed in Table 2.1. have an inclination to Eurocentricism in their very essence, to the exclusion of African and Chinese leadership definitions. This necessitates any meaningful research about leadership to interrogate localised definitions too. Related literature highlights that while there is a plethora of western leadership definitions, the concept is rarely defined indigenously (Ngambi, 2011; Gerstner & Day, 1994). ‘Leadership’ is defined by Omolayo (2007: 30), when discussing African leadership, as being “a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an

effort to reach organisation goals”. The emphasis on ‘voluntary participation’ is also emphasised by Broodryk (2005: 44). Charlton (1992) offers a more ‘African’ value based perspective on leadership, arguing that “effective leadership is not about position power in the organisational hierarchy but personal power that enables us to create our own future as well as our own quality of life. It is about serving and stewardship which engenders commitment, rather than egocentric behaviour that can at best offer compliance”.

Leadership as a concept is seldom defined from an Eastern perspective and as such western parameters exist in the search for what can be considered effective leadership (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque & House, 2006). Leadership style is defined by Tsai, Tsai and Wang (2011: 5321) as “the general characterization of a leader’s thinking, behaviour and organisational environment. It can be viewed as a series of managerial attitudes, behaviours, characteristics and skills based on individual and organizational values, leadership interests and reliability of employees in different situations”. This definition however, while applied in the Chinese context, is not a definition specific to Chinese leadership. A similar defining approach in which western definitions of leadership are used to study Asian leadership styles were also adopted by Yang, Huang and Wu (2011); Fukushima and Spicer (2007) and Chan and Wyatt (2007).

Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang and Farh (2004) assert that discipline, authority, benevolence and moral integrity define an effective leader in China. Chen *et al.* (2014) also emphasise the importance of relationships between leaders and their subordinates and argue in addition that affective trust and reciprocity are important. This means that subordinates “willingly reciprocate the care and protection of paternal authority by showing conformity”. Chen *et al.* (2014) suggest that trust and reciprocity have resulted in a tradition of what has been called by the west as ‘hierarchical’ and ‘relational’. Javidan *et al.* (2006) asserts that leadership in China is ‘charismatic’ and ‘value-based’ leadership which places an importance on communalism over self-wellbeing. Overall it is clear that a distinctively African and South African conceptualisation of leadership needs to be accompanied by a distinctively African or South African leadership definition, and the same can be said of Chinese leadership theory. Given the lack of generally accepted intercultural and indigenous leadership definitions, the study will interrogate the definitions of leadership described by participants.

2.2.2. The distinction between management and leadership

When defining leadership in an organisational context, it is important to draw the distinction between leadership and management (Amos, 2012: 373). The relationship of leadership with management is highly contested, and indeed various theories related to it have emerged. It has been argued that leaders and managers exist on the opposite ends of a spectrum, where leaders are described as flexible, innovative and adaptable to change whilst managers are said to exhibit order, stability and efficiency (Simonet & Tett, 2012). Others argue that the concepts are distinct but not mutually exclusive, therefore often complementing one another (Amos, 2012; Scherr & Jansen, 2007; Amos *et al.*, 2008). It has been put forward that management and leadership can be equated to one another, whilst to the contrary, some believe that management forms a part of leadership or *vice versa* (Jones & George, 2008; Amos *et al.*, 2008). From an African perspective, Boon (1996: 103) asserts that the main difference between the two entities is that leaders are led by 'the people' and encourage employees to challenge, discuss and choose the best plan of action in routine activities, which may not always be the leader's personal choice. Contrarily, management for the most part implies 'control and coercion'. The researcher could not find any mention of a management-leadership distinction within several seminal and general Chinese leadership research; such as Wu and Wang (2012); Warner (2010) and Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen (2005). As such it may be argued that within Chinese leadership there is not a strong distinction between the phenomena of leadership and management.

2.2.3. The cultural relativity of leadership

Within leadership literature there are those who contend that culture is not an influential variable in leadership effectiveness (Lawler *et al.*, 2007: 7). It is argued that there are universally endorsed leadership styles and characteristics, for example, charismatic or value-based, humane orientated, and self-protective leadership (Browaeys & Price, 2011; Gelfand *et al.*, 2007; Javidan *et al.*, 2006; Charlton, 1992). Dickson, Den Hartog and Mitchelson (2003: 759) contends that there is variation in how these universally endorsed leadership styles manifest in different cultures. It is also argued that the difference in leadership conceptualisations becomes increasingly different as language and cultural differences increase (Liu, Friedman & Chi, 2005). It is important to take note of both the regional and cultural influences that may possibly influence leaders' and subordinates' behaviour, attitudes and way of thinking (Cox, Hannif & Rowley, 2013; Björkman & Lu, 1999: 17). Van Zyl (2009: 31) contends that there

is “a dire need for cross-cultural management and leadership skills that enable managers to cope with the various different demands in different countries” [sic] (van Zyl, 2009: 31).

In order for an organisation to be effective, it needs to be rooted in the cultural context in which it operates (Cox *et al.*, 2013: 1). As such leadership needs to be perceived and created within the local context and culture (Louw & Venter, 2011: 454; Gerstner & Day, 1994). This becomes increasingly important in cross-cultural business operations in that expatriate managers need to be perceived as leaders within the host country in order to ensure the needed power and respect to be influential (Dickson *et al.*, 2003). Leadership styles, then, occur naturally and therefore indigenous leadership styles are the more effective ones (Jackson, 2002a). Interestingly, the complexity of cross-cultural leadership is heightened by the fact that, in developing countries, organisations are seldom purely indigenous (Smith & Wang, 1997).

When looking at Chinese organisations operating in South Africa, there is benefit in distinguishing three sets of leadership theory – African, Chinese and western leadership theory, which will be briefly explored in the following sections.

2.3. AFRICAN LEADERSHIP

The African continent can be described as immensely diverse across nations, ethnic and religious groups (Browaays & Price, 2011; Smit, 2010: 14). For this reason, Bolden and Kirk (2009: 76) correctly point out that the term ‘African leadership’ is potentially “too broad in its ontological status to say anything much about ‘leadership’”. Masango (2002: 708) puts forward that a rich leadership history can be seen in Africa, but that African leadership has undergone many changes. Despite this history, there is little relevant research on the concept of ‘African leadership’ (Nkomo, 2011; Bolden & Kirk, 2009: 72; IBM, 2007; Khosa, 2006; Mbaru, 2003). Nkomo (2011: 372) highlights that there are four broad categorisations of research into African leadership and management.

Nkomo (2011: 374) also indicates that a similarity between the first two categorisations of African leadership is the often negative view on African leadership. For example, Blunt and Jones (1997) and Beugré and Offodile (2001) suggest that the leadership styles have tended to be authoritarian/paternalistic, bureaucratic, centralised, conservative, change resistant and reluctant to deal with issues of performance. ‘Paternalistic leadership’ is often ascribed to African countries and other developing nations (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005: 237) and is

described as both directive and supportive. Paternalistic leadership is often status-orientated and generally these leaders will also be involved in non-work areas of employees' lives (Nkomo & Cook, 2006; Braudel, 1987, cited in Browaeys & Price, 2011: 86). Paternalistic leaders tend to be "higher on power distance, having strong family bonds and a sense of fatalism, and expecting organizations to take care of their workers as well as the workers' families" (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005: 237). Nkomo (2011: 376) then argues that the implication of paternalistic leadership is a leadership style rooted in benevolence, consensus, and moral example, which are transformational leadership values, despite one-way communication.

Enter Jackson (2004, 2002b: 457), who along these lines, suggests that the major cultural difference between western and African leadership styles is that leaders from non-western countries are humanistic in their orientation, while those from the west exhibit a sense of rigid instrumentalism. In line with the deep cultural importance of '*ubuntu*' (discussed in Section 1.4.3.) it has been argued that relationships and togetherness are the essence of leadership, evidenced by the fact that "the cultural unity of African societies exceeds their diversity" (Mutabazi, 2001: 100, cited in Browaeys & Price, 2011: 88). The belief that *ubuntu* has organisational and leadership implications is supported by van der Colff (2003: 257) who contends that *ubuntu* is present in leadership thinking through advocating the values of "legitimacy, communal enterprise and value sharing" which equips an organisation's leaders to create a desirable organisational culture and ensures employees develop the necessary skills and competencies. However, as already illustrated in Section 1.4.3.; one ought to be critical of overemphasising the relevance and prevalence of '*ubuntu*' as an omnipotent ethos in contemporary organisational settings.

The third African leadership research category concerns the ways in which African leadership is represented in education as a predecessor to acceptable leadership theory. According to Nkomo (2011: 374), African leadership is most commonly discussed in terms of management history and origins. The description of African leadership is portrayed by Nkomo (2011: 374) as having an "undertone of astonishment" and a classification of African leadership as pre-scientific and preceding the classical management theory. African leaders were forced to operate within western influences and therefore had to evolve their leadership styles to operate within western business structures (IBM, 2007; Masango, 2002: 713) which is perpetuated by education and training (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005: 237; Coe, 2002: 24).

The last category of African leadership research identified by Nkomo (2011) is that of 'African management philosophy'. Within this category there is a clear call for Africa to adopt indigenous leadership and management systems to overcome contemporary problems in African business. Africans ought to reclaim their identity and return to the leadership practices that were successful before colonisation and its influences on African leadership (Nkomo, 2011: 366). To support such a view, Blunt and Jones (1997) as well as Bolden and Kirk (2009: 74) argue for a distinctively African approach to leadership, often termed 'African Renaissance', which argues for the rejection of the colonial and post-colonial ways of thinking and to turn back to an African leadership value system. Also, implicit within the argument for an African Renaissance is the premise that pre-colonial African leadership can in fact be reclaimed and re-institutionalised and that such leadership will solve Africa's problems that were not in existence during the time of these traditional leadership styles (Khosa, 2006; Dia, 1996).

One could, however, question whether these traditional leadership styles can be replicated in post-colonial Africa, and how effective they would be in their 'pure form'. Jackson (2004: 30) suggests that the presence of 'hybrid' management and leadership in African countries where leadership styles are influenced by complex and multi-layered contexts means that a pure African Renaissance is not feasible. Masango (2002: 711) and (Nkomo, 2011: 376) warn against applying African human values to an organisational context. For them, organisations, profit motivation and African values are hugely different from organisational values. Jackson (2004: 28-30) argues that the key values that shape leadership in sub-Saharan Africa include - 'sharing', 'deference to rank', 'sanctity of commitment', 'regard for compromise and consensus', and 'good social and personal relations'..

Van der Colff (2003: 257) calls for a re-conceptualisation of organisations as communities, thereby weakening the structures of power and allowing individual empowerment and development. This will ensure that organisations capitalise on human capital at present, as well as build future leaders. Participatory leadership is built on the values of interconnectedness and group solidarity which are both traditional African values and ought to be considered in an organisational context (van der Colff, 2003: 260). While van der Colff (2003: 258) insinuates that participatory leadership is a traditional African leadership style. A different perspective can be seen in a key result of Jackson's (2004) study – looking at fifteen Sub-Saharan countries including South Africa – that participatory and empowerment leadership styles, originating from the west, were gaining popularity in Africa. That said, the

implementation was superficial in that no strategic level decisions were being made at lower levels of management.

2.3.1. South African leadership

South Africa is characterised by great ethnic diversity, and is hence often referred to as the 'rainbow nation' (Boon, 1996: 63). In order for South Africa to overcome the challenges emanating from its past, it is imperative that leaders acknowledge and embody African, eastern and western values so as to create an inclusive organisational context where all employees feel a sense of membership (van der Colff, 2003: 258). Boon (1996: 63) asserts that ethnic diversity can be positive for an organisation if they are able to harness diversity and create inclusiveness.

According to Boon (1996: 44), traditional South African leadership is illustrated through the 'King' or 'Chief' that "represented the unity of the tribe and was the personification of the law". As such the King was expected to lead by example and for followers to follow in the leader's example. Boon (1996) contends that these traditional leadership styles have manifested in organisational leadership. Leadership styles in South Africa in the 1990's were predominantly authoritarian and simulated authoritarian and autocratic military models created in the west and brought to South Africa through colonisation (Broodryk, 2005: 46; Blunt & Jones, 1992: 81). Broodryk (2005: 46) indicates that this authoritarian style is gradually being replaced by a more inclusive democratic leadership style "honouring the African humanness of people". Louis (2009) suggests that South African employees are increasingly seeking leaders who are 'authentic'. Authentic leadership can be said to encompass "being real, vulnerable and intimate" and exhibiting a servant leader ethos (Masha, 2014; Louis, 2009). Masha (2014: 9) asserts that "followers want to be led by a person, not by a role holder or position filler or a bureaucrat".

The essence of *ubuntu* advocates leadership values such as 'humility', 'forgiveness', 'collective personhood', 'collective morality', 'harmony', 'transparency', 'transformation' 'consensus', 'democracy', 'equality' and 'participative human leadership' (Bolden & Kirk, 2009: 79; Broodryk, 2005: 46; van der Colff, 2003: 257). As such *ubuntu* is the source of relationalism and consensus building in South Africa (Broodryk, 2005). Broodryk (2005: 131) suggests that South African leaders should embody the values of "humanness, caring, sharing, respect, compassion, kindness, forgiveness, sympathy, tolerance, [...] love, appreciation and consideration". Contrary to western leadership theory, the *ubuntu* ethos

advocates a ‘classless’ mentality to leadership, suggesting that education does not indicate leadership ability in South Africa *per se* (Broodryk, 2005: 44). Serving and facilitating employees is also emphasised by Oppelt (2009) who states that leaders need to balance this role with their own career development.

In South Africa, having a sense of family or community in the way that an organisation operates is important in maintaining harmony (this is termed *shosholozza*), which is a point of similarity with Chinese organisations (Broodryk, 2005: 215). Charlton’s (1992) study found that effective leadership in South Africa consisted of the following behaviours in ascending order of significance – ‘management of attention through vision’, ‘trust’, ‘management of meaning through communication’, ‘empowerment’ and the ‘management of self’.

South Africa’s leadership profile is described by Bolden and Kirk (2009: 72) as unique in that it has moderate ‘power distance’ and ‘uncertainty avoidance’ as well as high ‘individualism’ and ‘masculinity’. However, Ashkanasy (2002: 150) and Jackson (2014) indicate that it is important to distinguish between the perceptions and behaviour of ‘white’ and ‘black’ South African leaders and employees since differences in cultural values have caused differences in the leadership styles exhibited and leadership styles preferred (Ashkanasy, 2002: 150). Bolden and Kirk (2009: 72) concur with this caution, arguing that a sample of mixed races will skew results because black and white South Africans hold different cultural values.

2.4. CHINESE LEADERSHIP

Within China and most of Asia, as with Africa, there are few available empirical studies that look at leadership behaviour and perceptions of leadership. Most studies have a western orientation or are dismissive of culture (Selvarajah & Meyer, 2007; Pittinsky & Zhu, 2005). There is thus a need to investigate Chinese leadership and its relationship with other organisational phenomena. Hafsi and Yan (2007) contend that bureaucracy, laws, rules and procedures which ensure leadership legitimacy, values and norms are the enduring characteristics of Chinese leadership. Similarly Fang (2006: 54) contends that during negotiations, a Chinese businessman can be a bureaucrat, maintain the Confucian ethos, as well as be a strategist. Extending this argument to leadership, these three seemingly paradoxical styles can exist harmoniously, since Chinese leaders are able to draw from all of these cultural contexts, depending on the demands of a particular situation.

The first style identified by Fang (2006) is that of the ‘bureaucrat’. As a bureaucrat, leaders always ensure that the national interest is protected. They also understand the vital role that politics plays within an organisation. Elements of hierarchy and control and a respect for tradition are evident in Chinese leadership and have often been observed by western researchers (Pittinsky & Zhu, 2005). However, the centralisation of power stands in contrast to the decentralisation of organisations. Despite high levels of control in terms of one’s place within the hierarchy and the strategic direction of the organisation, employees have an enormous amount of autonomy in terms of completing job tasks and making the relevant decisions to effectively complete their work (Hafsi & Yan, 2007). The responsibility for strategic decisions rests with organisational leaders. At the same time, however, Chinese leaders often devolve themselves of the operationalisation of these decisions, passing over the task to subordinates who are given autonomy to materialize decisions (Wang, 2007). Fang and Faure (2011: 330) contend that the communication style of Chinese leaders can be prescribed by ‘face’ and Horwitz *et al.* (2008) assert that bureaucratic leadership is an attempt to ensure positive outcomes and a protection of ‘face’ (discussed in Section 1.4.3.). Contrarily, Wang (2007) notes that South African individuals are more likely to express their opinions and criticise others publically.

The ‘Confucian gentleman’ is the second style identified by Fang (2006). Wang (2007) describes the Chinese leadership style as ‘relation-based’ where information and decision-making are centralised, while leaders are still responsive to employees and build relationships with them. The ‘Confucian gentleman’ is described by Fang (2006: 54) as being “group-orientated, self-restrained, conscious of face, age, hierarchy and etiquette, and suspicious of “non-family” persons”. Loyalty and trust between leaders and subordinates is therefore significant, perhaps more so than profit objectives. Relationalism and personalism guide the individual’s behaviour more than legalism (Faure & Fang, 2008).

Maintaining harmonious relationships and appropriate moral behaviour are essential to the establishment of *quanxi* (Section 1.4.3.). According to Fang (2006: 54) business and *guanxi* cannot be separated, to the point where an apparently small gesture, such as the exchange of business cards, may symbolise a lifelong relationship. While the building of relationships and networks is an important feature of leadership globally, the time spent on *guanxi* in China greatly exceeds that of other countries (Fu & Kamenou, 2011: 3279). Rarick (2007) suggests that unity and solidarity persist within Chinese groups in that there is a social interconnectedness in Chinese communities and organisations. Wang (2007) does however

point out that a shift can be seen within Chinese business culture, away from guaranteed benefits and lifelong employment regardless of performance, towards a more profit and market-driven leadership mind-set.

Like African leaders, Chinese leaders are also often described as paternalistic (Wu & Wang, 2012). The emphasis on control and hierarchy, whereby leaders are entrusted with the role of making strategic decisions while ensuring the welfare of employees closely resembles the bureaucratic leadership style described by Fang (2006). It is also in line with Confucian values within paternalistic leadership such as reciprocity and treating employees like extended family members (Zhu, Zhang & Shen, 2012: 3967). Farh and Cheng (2000) put forward that paternalistic leadership is a dynamic phenomenon consisting of three dimensions – authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality. It is the balancing of discipline and authority with benevolence and protection that creates harmony and ensures loyalty and obedience (Wu & Wang, 2012). A paternalistic leader is said to rather induce emotions of “admiration, respect, liking, gratitude, or fear” at an interpersonal level whilst transformational leaders induce emotions such as “optimism, excitement, or stimulation” in a more external and expressive manner (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000).

The third leadership style identified by Fang (2006) is that of ‘the strategist’. Fang (2006: 51) suggests that while harmony is always maintained, a Chinese negotiator can be deceptive whereupon trust and *guanxi* can often lead to strategic behaviour from both leaders and subordinates. In addition, Horwitz *et al.* (2008: 3) suggests that the Confucian value of ‘face’ and ‘saving face’ can also be used strategically by individuals. A strategic leadership style is characterised by a sense of competition whereas, if there is trust between employees and leaders, leaders are more likely to rely on Confucian values to determine behaviour (Fang, 2006: 55). Hafsi and Yan (2007) concur with such an understanding, and argue that both offensive and defensive leadership strategies exist. Furthermore, they mention how the choice of leadership style is situational. Chinese stratagems are used so “to subdue the enemy without fighting” and manipulation and skilful negotiating skills are also at times used within an organisational context (Fang, 2006: 55). Hafsi and Yan (2007) contend that despite the strategic nature of Chinese leaders, practicality can also be seen, in that Chinese leaders are isomorphic and can easily replicate the nuances of other cultures.

2.5. WESTERN LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Having looked at indigenous leadership theory this study section will now explore the established western leadership theories. Traditional leadership theories include three broad theory approaches – trait, behavioural and situational or contingency. The trait leadership theories are indicative of the 1930's and aimed to identify the personal traits of leaders. The basic premise of trait models is that certain physical, social and personal characteristics are inherent in leaders and as such the presence or absence of these characteristics distinguishes leaders and followers (Amos, 2012; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000).

Following from the shortcomings of the traits approach, behavioural models emerged which used leader behaviour to distinguish between effective and ineffective leadership styles. The benefit of behavioural theories is that unlike traits, behaviour is observable and can be learnt (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Behavioural models were however criticised in that no focus or consideration was given to changing situations or contexts between leaders and followers (Amos *et al.*, 2008; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Amos *et al.* (2008) suggests that the overriding principle of the situational/contingency models is that the situation or context has an influence on the effectiveness of the leadership style employed and as such leaders must match their leadership to the needs of a given situation. In general situational models of leadership argue that leaders need to be able to influence the behaviour of employees and need to full a motivational role (Amos *et al.*, 2008: 209).

2.6. NEW WESTERN LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Moving into the start of the twenty first century a shift in leadership theory can be seen away from traditional ('transactional leadership') towards that of 'transformational leadership' (Moore & Rudd, 2004: 23). Two theories – server leadership and the FRLDT (Bass & Avolio, 1997) - will be discussed in detail.

2.6.1. Server leadership

'Server leadership' otherwise referred to as 'servant leadership' was introduced into theory by Greenleaf (1977, cited in Washington, 2007). Barnett, McCormick and Connors (2001) argue that server leadership is a transformational leadership style. Taylor (2013) asserts that "all great leaders serve something beyond themselves", which suggests a universal aspect to the server leadership quality. While server leadership is said to have western origins, within the African context it is often suggested that sever leadership styles are parallel to indigenous

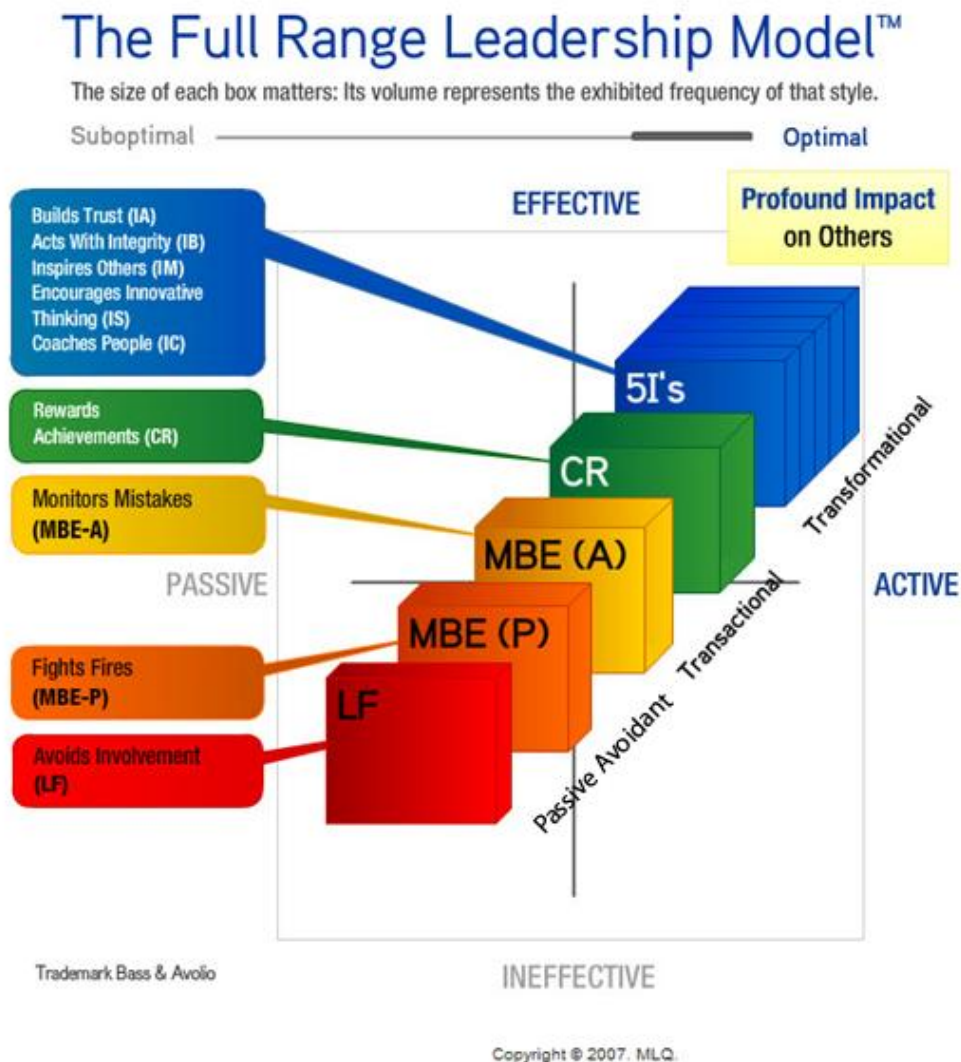
African leadership styles. Masango (2002: 708) argues that Africa perceives a leader as someone “who is a servant to the clan, tribe, community or group”. A server leader places the needs of followers ahead of his own (Taylor, 2013; Washington, 2007). As such leadership is seen to be a moral obligation to serve the purpose of the group (Bolden & Kirk, 2009).

Masango (2002: 713) argues that a server leader earns the leadership position by “demonstrating competency, compassion, justice, and wholeness” and by assisting those who follow to develop by addressing the problems facing follower’s and serving their needs. Unlike classical management theories server leadership does not place the leader in a focal position as server leaders do not believe they are better or more important than those who follow them. A server leader acts in the service of the group without expectations of obedience or acknowledgement (Washington, 2007). As such server leadership is built on relationships and the moral and ethical empowerment of others (Taylor, 2013). It has been found that the transformational leadership dimensions of ‘idealised influence’, ‘inspirational motivation’ and ‘individualised consideration’ all have relationships with dimensions of server leadership (Washington, 2007). Server leadership also shares the importance of group needs and uplifting those at the bottom of the organisation with the concept of ‘participatory leadership’.

2.6.2. The Full Range Leadership Development Theory

The FRLDT which subsequently became known as the FRLM developed by Bass and Avolio (1994, 1995, 1997), distinguishes between three groups of behaviour which leaders may exhibit – transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire* (Fukushige & Spicer, 2007: 509). Figure 2.2. below illustrates the conceptual diagram of the FRLM.

FIGURE 2.2: THE FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP MODEL



(Source: Michael Murray & Associates, 2014: 1)

‘Transformational’ and ‘transactional leadership’ were originally created by Burns (1978, cited in Weinberger, 2009: 749) who argued that leaders were either concerned with employees or employee outcomes, and suggested that a concern for employees leads to greater organisational performance than a concern only for results. Bass (1985) revised the transformational leadership theory and viewed the two leadership styles – transactional and transformational – as distinct but complimentary. Zafer Acar (2012) argues that because the transactional-transformational leadership conception signals a leader’s predisposition to action, it is an effective proxy of leadership behaviour.

Research testing FRLM is relatively limited in China and Africa, in comparison to the west (Fukushige & Spicer, 2007: 509). Fukushige and Spicer (2007: 508) and Bass (1997) contend

that the FRLM embodies a western bias and cannot be applied universally as such transformational leadership styles are seen to be more effective in some societies than others. Although it must be noted that transformational leadership is, to some extent, a universal construct given substantial empirical evidence from various countries of the more effective nature of transformational leadership in comparison to transactional leadership (Zafer Acar, 2012; Emery, College & Barker, 2007; Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2005; Den Hartog House, Hanges & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999; Jung, Bass & Sosik, 1995). Den Hartog *et al.* (1999: 231) argue that the “proposition regarding universality is not meant to imply that there cannot be marked differences across cultures in the expression of such transformational attributes”.

2.6.2.1. Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is often described as a process involving an exchange in the form of a transaction or agreement between the follower and the leader whereby both parties satisfy their own individual needs and wants (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership has a mechanistic as opposed to humanistic perspective on employee outcomes and can be likened to management (Amos *et al.*, 2008: 214). Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008: 501) highlight that transactional leadership is nevertheless important. It is, furthermore, a prerequisite for effective transformational leadership behaviour. They also argue that transactional leadership “also provides direction and focus that, if lacking, would result in confusion and ambiguity from the use of transformational behaviours” (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008: 501). Transactional leadership is said to consist of two variables – ‘contingent reward’ and MBE (which includes passive and active behaviour) (Weinberger, 2009; Bass, 1985).

Contingent reward

Leaders following a contingency approach use goal setting to clarify expectations of performance and then reward or compensate followers for meeting these performance targets satisfactorily (Weinberger, 2009: 754). Vaccaro, Jansen, Van Den Bosch and Volbera (2012: 33) assert that this leadership approach results in a commitment to meeting performance targets, however the contingency approach has been criticised in that it dampens creativity and innovative thinking. In addition, employees are less inclined to approach work in new and improved ways or to share ideas (Amabile, 1998, cited in Vaccaro *et al.*, 2012: 33).

Management-by-exception (active)

The ‘active MBE’ leader actively monitors employees’ performance and is operationalised by actively looking for “deviations and mistakes in the work of subordinates in an attempt to avoid mistakes” (Louw & Venter, 2011: 451). The leader will therefore have an active involvement and intervention approach to management – preventative and corrective action (Vaccaro *et al.*, 2012: 34; Bass, 1999: 11; Pruijn & Boucher, 1994). Amos *et al.* (2008: 215) put forward that while attending to mistakes is important, leaders should not focus entirely on this activity.

Management-by-exception (passive)

The ‘passive MBE’ leader can be described as a “negative form of contingent reinforcement” (Amos *et al.*, 2008: 214) and as such these leaders tend to avoid conflict as much as possible and will thus wait passively and intervene only after mistakes arise, goals are either not met or problems become chronic (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008: 501; Bass, 1999: 11). These leaders attempt to maintain the status quo (Louw & Venter, 2011: 451) and are reactive as opposed to proactive (Amos *et al.*, 2008: 215).

2.6.2.2. Transformational/charismatic leadership

However, transformational leadership, while distinctly different from transactional leadership, is an extension of transactional leadership and augments rather than replaces transactional leadership (Weinberger, 2009). Louw and Venter (2011) contend that leaders should exhibit transformational leadership styles more often than transactional. Avolio, Bass, Walumbwa and Zhu (2004, cited in Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005) highlight that transformational leadership has been associated with various desirable organisational outcomes across; various organisational types and sizes, organisational situations, different levels of analysis and cultures. Empirical and meta-analytic studies highlight that “followers working with transformational leaders are more involved, satisfied, empowered, motivated, and committed to their organizations and demonstrate fewer withdrawal behaviours” (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005: 239).

Transformational leadership comprises of ‘idealised influence’ (attributed and behaviour), ‘inspirational motivation’, ‘individualised consideration’ and ‘intellectual stimulation’ (Bass & Avolio, 1995), dimensions which will now be discussed.

Idealised influence

The ‘idealised leadership style’ is described by Vaccaro *et al.* (2012: 32) as the extent to which leaders’ illicit admiration, respect and trust from employees. Idealised influence has two components – idealised attributes and idealised behaviour. Jackson *et al.* (2013) asserts that employees’ perceptions of leader power, confidence and inspirational ideals are implicit within the idealised influence leadership style. As such, leaders with an idealised influence mind-set often emphasise group wellbeing over individual advancement. They display a high moral and ethical behaviour within the organisation and ensure that they lead by example (Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011).

Inspirational motivation

Weinberger (2009: 754) describes ‘inspirational motivation’ as “communicating an energizing sense of purpose”. In essence, inspirational motivation leaders provide meaning to the work of employees through the creation of a shared vision that is clear, succinct and persuasive. This encourages employees to strive for the challenging objectives set for them (Louw & Venter, 2011: 425). Therefore, an inspirational motivator is a leader who shows optimism and enthusiasm about the future and the achievement of goals and gives employees intrinsic motivation through activities such as the delegation of power (Jackson *et al.*, 2013; Tims *et al.*, 2011).

Individualised consideration

The individualised consideration leader is one who intensely focuses on the unique needs and competencies of each follower in line with the employee’s phase of development rather than having a standard way in which to treat employees (Jackson *et al.*, 2013; Louw & Venter, 2011: 452; Weinberger, 2009: 754; Bass & Avolio, 1995). The individualised consideration leader assists employees to reach their full potential by creating a work environment filled with growth opportunity and the support, coaching and stimulation needed for the development of each employee (Tims *et al.*, 2011; Weinberger, 2009: 754).

Intellectual stimulation

‘Intellectual stimulation’ refers to a leader that is able to urge employees to think for themselves and to question and challenge customs and assumptions and to thereby redefine problems and solutions and to look at situations in a new light (Jackson *et al.*, 2013; Louw &

Venter, 2011: 452). Intellectual stimulation also elicits creative and innovative thinking and assists with finding new and improved work methods and processes (Weinberger, 2009: 754). It is important that mistakes made by employees are not criticised, and that questioning and creative problem solving are recognised and appreciated – whether effective or not – which results in active thinking, progressive rather than ‘appropriate’ solutions and higher involvement from employees within the organisation (Tims *et al.*, 2011).

2.6.2.3. *Laissez-faire leadership*

Transactional and transformational leadership can be contrasted with a third leadership style referred to as a ‘passive avoidant’ or ‘*laissez-faire*’ leadership style which is in essence a non-leadership style or the absence of leadership (Louw & Venter, 2011: 451; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Omolayo (2007: 30) contends that no interference and minimal employee restriction is indicative of *laissez-faire* leadership. As a result there is seldom a clear plan to attain goals or clarity on the strategic direction. Within this leadership category, the passiveness of leaders leads to corrective rather than preventative action, decision making responsibilities are avoided and responsibility and authority are unutilised (Weinberger, 2009: 754). Bass and Avolio (1993) put forward that within the *laissez-faire* leadership style, leaders do not recognise or meet employee needs or recognise achievements and, therefore, motivation dwindles. *Laissez-faire* leadership can be described as the most passive and ineffective style across cultural borders, whereby engagement is lacking across and within managerial levels (Fukushige & Spicer, 2007: 509).

The *Laissez-faire* leadership style is not very well researched in comparison to the transactional and transformational leadership styles (Jackson *et al.*, 2012; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Page (2011) found that *laissez-faire* leadership decreases employee engagement and customer commitment in South Africa. Furthermore, servant leadership behaviour has been found to have a negative relationship with *laissez-faire* leadership (Washington, 2007). Within the Chinese context it has been suggested that the pursuit of *wu-wei* (neutral or effortless) can be likened to the *laissez-faire* leadership style. However, *wu-wei* can be described as a more intense form of purposeful and deliberate inaction and perceived as highly immoral within Chinese culture (Warner, 2010). The collectivistic and relational values of both African and Chinese culture is in conflict with the inherent nature of *laissez-faire* leadership. (Page, 2011; Fukushige & Spicer, 2007).

2.7. SUMMARY

This chapter has explored the concept of leadership both from a ‘western’ and ‘indigenous’ perspective. Leadership has been put forward as essential to the effective functioning of an organisation and essential to the establishment of competitive advantage within the global business environment. The chapter has highlighted that leadership is a universal phenomenon, but that it has emic and etic characteristics in different cultures (in particular see Section 2.2.4.) (Cox *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2005). The indigenous arguments made in this chapter suggest that; while leadership has been well researched within a western context, and while rigorously researched and generally accepted definitions (see Section 2.2.1.) and theories (see Sections 2.3., 2.4. and 2.5.) of leadership exists, there is a lack of indigenous (in the context of this study, South African and Chinese) definitions, theories and research on culture specific leadership (Javidan *et al.*, 2006; van Zyl, 2009). The discussions on African and South African leadership (see Section 2.3.), Chinese leadership (see Section 2.4.), and western leadership (see Section 2.5.) have brought to the fore that there are indeed similarities and differences between the leadership styles which are generally adopted. This study has chosen the FRLM as a leadership framework, and will adapt leadership style interview questions from the FRLM (see Section 2.6.2.).

Paternalistic and hierarchical leadership styles often adopted by South African and Chinese leaders may be incompatible with transformational leadership behaviour given a lack of empowerment (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005). South African and Chinese leaders ought to ensure that they adopt leadership styles and behaviours perceived to be transformational by all employees, engendering cultural understanding and cohesiveness across ethnic groups (Booyesen, 2001). What will be important for the study henceforth, and what should be especially noted is that South African and Chinese individuals may have different perspectives on the qualities and behaviour of a transformational leader. As a result the international leader operating within an intercultural context ought to consider localisation of leadership and organisational practices (Jackson, 2004). The discussion above illustrates that transformational leadership may not be entirely universal. However, the ethos of transformational leadership can be seen within Chinese and South African leadership.

The next chapter will look at the second phenomenon of interest in this study, that of QWL. The chapter will present literature and theories from both a western and indigenous perspective. It will also present the QWL model chosen for the purpose of this study.

CHAPTER THREE

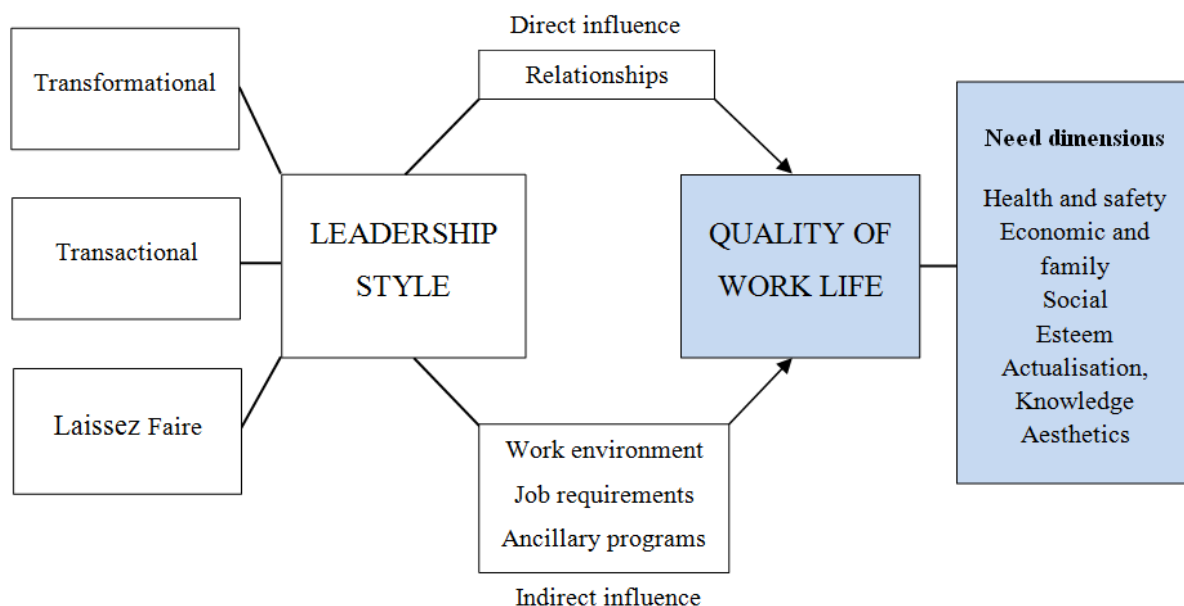
QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

3.1. OVERVIEW

Chapter Two, looking at leadership style from a western, eastern and African perspective, highlighted the complex nature of leadership within an intercultural context. Chapter Three will now focus on QWL. This will be followed by Chapter Four which will then discuss the potential relationship between the two phenomena – leadership and QWL – in order to better understand how leaders can build QWL through satisfaction of needs. This chapter aims to define QWL and explore the nature of QWL. Thereafter, connotes and antecedents of QWL will be discussed, followed by the influence that culture has on QWL in South Africa and China. Lastly QWL theories will be discussed, followed by a discussion of the chosen QWL framework.

Figure 3.1. below, illustrating the overall study, highlights the research construct that this chapter pertains to.

FIGURE 3.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

QWL is important in that sustainable competitive advantage in the contemporary business environment is said to lie in human capital and the knowledge economy (Crook *et al.* 2011;

Liu, Lepak, Takeuchi & Sims, 2003). It is put forward by Chan and Wyatt (2007) that it is imperative for organisations to try and maintain high quality personnel since dissatisfied workers are less productive and committed to an organisation (Zafer Acar, 2012). Dissatisfied workers therefore negatively impact upon the effectiveness and productivity of organisations through undesirable employee behaviours and attitudes (Sirgy, Reilly, Wu & Efraty, 2008). QWL is said to encompass a plethora of organisational phenomena, both in terms of connotes and antecedents which are rooted in the search for wellness and satisfaction (Costea, Crump & Holm, 2006). It has been demonstrated that developing more humanised jobs and improving QWL are vital in creating and retaining loyal and competent employees (Dousti *et al.*, 2012: 193; Huang, Lawler & Lei, 2007).

3.2. DEFINITION OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

According to Loscocco and Roschelle (1991: 198) defining 'QWL' is challenging in that it "centres around what it really means to say that someone is satisfied with or committed to their work". The complexity in defining QWL is intensified because there is no commonly accepted definition of QWL (Easton, Van Laar & Marlow-Vardy, 2013: 137; Chan & Wyatt, 2007: 502). Five QWL definition perspectives on the nature of QWL emerge; (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006: 121). These five definition perspectives include perceiving QWL as 'a variable', 'an approach', 'methods'; 'a movement' and 'everything' (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006: 121; Venkatachalam & Velayudhan, 1997).

QWL was originally seen as a variable relating to leaders and subordinates working together to improve the working experience (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006: 121; Walton, 1975). Later definitions emerged which associated QWL with various popular HR approaches and with a humanistic orientation which emphasised mutual goal attainment between organisations and employees. Soon after, a conceptually similar definition emerged, which described QWL as a method relating to techniques or tools which could be implemented to improve QWL (Martel & Dupuis, 2006: 340). After the 1970s the research boom into QWL subsided. However several authors begun to contend that QWL was a movement and an ideology or mind-set towards people and their role within an organisation (Martel & Dupuis, 2006: 340; Greenberg & Glaser, 1981). From the 1980s the most commonly held perspective towards QWL is that it pertains to every aspect of an individual's work life as well as non-work life variables that influence the work domain (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006: 121; Cummings & Worley, 1997; Yousuf, 1996; Nadler & Lawler, 1983).

For the purposes of this study, QWL will be defined as “employee satisfaction with a variety of needs through resources, activities and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace” (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 242). This definition emphasises an outcome of employee satisfaction as well as highlights the importance of the work and organisational environment in determining employee related outcomes. Mirvis and Lawler (1984) and Suttle (1977) took similar approaches to defining QWL, suggesting that both organisational and work characteristics influence QWL which is determined by employee wellness levels. Need satisfaction definitions of QWL have also been adopted in China by Chan and Wyatt (2007) and in Africa by Nguyen and Nguyen (2012: 88). For the most part, a trend can be seen in cross-cultural wellness research whereby indigenous definitions or conceptualisations of QWL or need satisfaction are not given, despite arguments suggests that culture generally influences these constructs. Nevertheless, the universality or distinctiveness of the QWL phenomenon is said by Kotzé (2005) to be uncertain and therefore Kotzé (2005) calls for indigenous definitions of QWL for third world countries.

3.3. THE NATURE OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Wyatt (1988) suggests that QWL can relate both to the ‘experiences of working’ as well as the ‘consequences of working’. The lack of consensus and range of definitions of QWL is often linked to the difficulty in trying to measure or understand subjective phenomena such as feelings or perceptions (Nayeri, Salehi & Noghabi, 2011: 107; Vagharseyyedin, Vanaki & Mohammadi, 2011). Moreover Kerce and Booth-Kewley (1993) contend that QWL can be expected to change with different cultural values and norms. This is supported by Lau and May (1998: 212) who contend that QWL is a “multidimensional construct and it may not be universal or eternal”. It has been said that the ‘individual malleability’ of QWL has made it dependent on interpretation and perception, making it very difficult to measure (Bassi, Bacher, Negri & Delle Fave, 2013; Argentero, Miglioretti & Angiletta, 2007). Despite these criticisms, however, the 1980s saw a majority of research asserting the subjectivity of QWL. Both the subjective and objective nature of QWL stem from employee health and wellbeing research (Lawler, 1982). Understanding wellness is thus an important component of understanding QWL.

3.3.1. Wellbeing theory

There are two dominant theoretical conceptualisations of pertaining to wellbeing – ‘subjective’ or ‘hedonic’ wellbeing, and ‘psychological’ or ‘eudaimonic’ wellbeing (Albuquerque, de Lima, Matos & Figueiredo, 2013; Bassi *et al.*, 2013). Subjective wellbeing is the scientific term to denote the ‘happy’ or ‘good’ life. The premise of subjective wellbeing is that individuals possess unique expectations, values and past experiences and as such react differently in the same situation and perceive the same situation differently (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). Subjective wellbeing and happiness literature has largely been associated with ‘hedonic’ measures of wellbeing (Diener, 2009, cited in Bassi *et al.*, 2013). The contemporary use of the word ‘happiness’ tends to refer to hedonism, whereby one subjectively decides whether they are getting what is important to them and the pleasure that comes from obtaining one’s desires (Waterman, 1993: 678). ‘Psychological wellbeing’ is described as relating to ‘positive functioning’ and seeks to ensure ‘mental health’ as opposed to pleasure (Albuquerque *et al.*, 2013). The psychological wellness viewpoint is considered to be even more subjective than subjective wellbeing since perceived constituents of psychological wellness differ across individuals and cultures (Linley, Maltby, Wood, Osborne & Hurling, 2009). Psychological wellbeing has been most commonly associated with eudaimonic measures of wellbeing which suggest that one experiences a life purpose, challenges, and growth, a happiness which is experienced through flourishing (Deci & Ryan, 2008: 1). Despite the differences between subjective and psychological frameworks, hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing are distinct but not mutually exclusive (Bassi *et al.*, 2013; Straume & Vittersø, 2012: 387; Deci & Ryan, 2008).

The way in which one defines wellness has implications for what determines QWL and what constitutes employee needs and employee desires because they influence the needs people have and how these needs can be met (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Moreover, the complexity of understanding employee needs is brought to the fore (Delle Fave, Brdar, Friere, Vella-Brodrick & Wissing, 2011). For the purpose of this study, QWL will be aligned to subjective wellness. From the definitions of QWL it is also apparent that both the outcome and process of QWL are important in determining the nature of QWL over and above wellness. As such one needs to investigate both connotes and antecedents of QWL (Nayeri *et al.*, 2011: 107).

3.4. CONNOTES OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Research has shown that QWL can be associated with several positive outcomes such as employee productivity, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, low turnover rates, job performance, low job stress, and reduced personal alienation (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012; Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Chan & Wyatt, 2007; Lee, Singhapakdi & Sirgy, 2007). Moreover QWL arguably influences overall life satisfaction and hence quality of life (Sirgy *et al.*, 2008: 182). Many connotes of QWL have been used by researchers as proxies for QWL either singularly or in some combination (Lee *et al.*, 2007). While job satisfaction is distinct from QWL, it is still the most commonly used proxy measure in QWL research (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009; Martel & Dupuis, 2006). Also, some dissatisfaction is necessary to encourage an active search for improvement and goal attainment among employees (Lawler, 1975). That said, tension and stress are important QWL variables which are often ignored by job satisfaction theories of QWL (Martel & Dupuis, 2006).

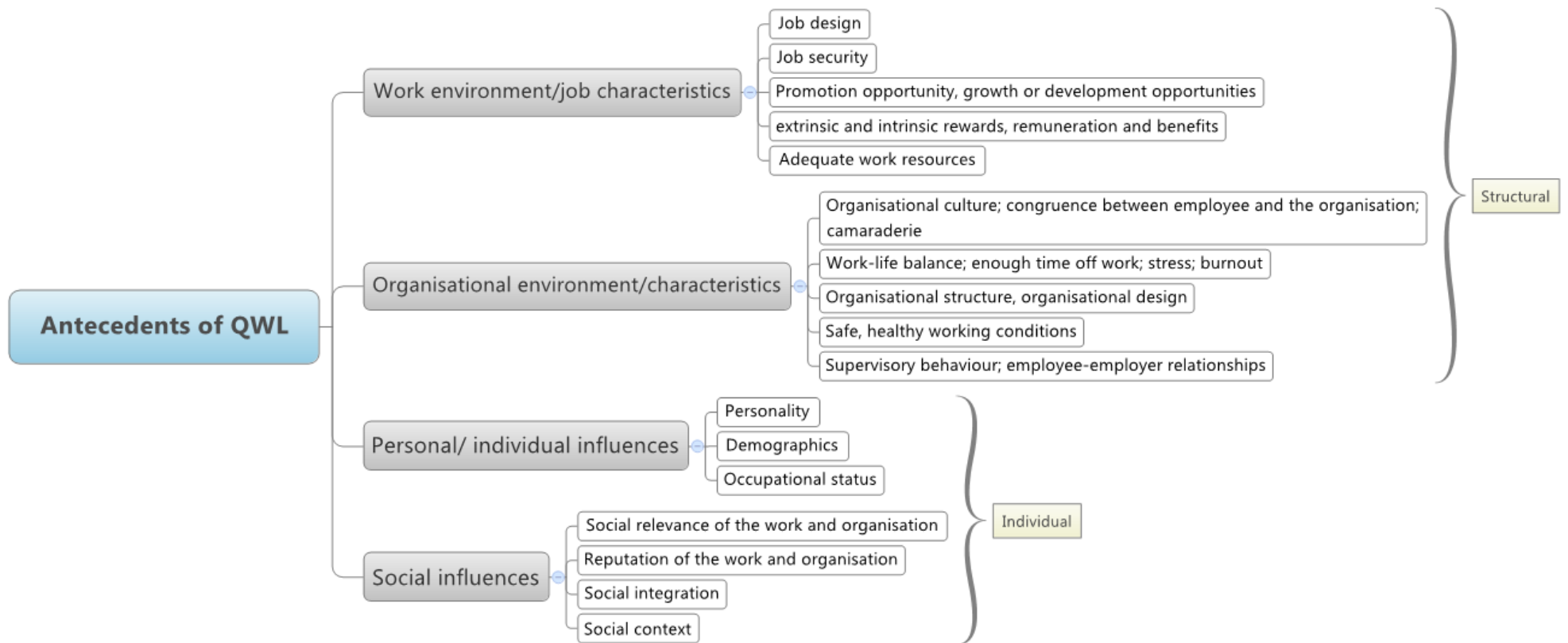
Notwithstanding the primary use of job satisfaction as an indication of QWL, other employee attitudes have also been adopted such as ‘organisational commitment’ (Igbaria, Parasuraman & Badawy, 1994). Organisational commitment is said to exist when employees strongly identify with and adopt the goals and values of the organisation and therefore are willing to actively achieve the goals, uphold the values and maintain membership (Dousti *et al.*, 2012: 193). According to Gospel (2003), organisational commitment is perhaps a better measure of QWL in that one may be satisfied with one’s work, but may not necessarily be committed to the organisation. The motivation for improving employee wellness is the corresponding improvement of organisational performance (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001; Lau & May, 1998). This is in line with the happy-productive worker thesis that holds that employee satisfaction results in a more productive, dedicated and loyal workforce (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 242; Lau & May, 1998: 213).

3.5. ANTECEDENTS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Antecedents are said to be important in trying to understand the process of creating and maintaining high levels of QWL as well as assisting in determining the sources of employee dissatisfaction (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Two broad perspectives on the antecedents of QWL can be identified within the literature – ‘structural’ and ‘individual’ (Albuquerque *et al.*, 2013; Johnsrud, 2002; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). The tenant of structural approaches is that work conditions have a significant influence on employees and the job satisfaction

derived from the workplace (Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). There are also authors who suggest that the work environment and organisational variables alone are insufficient to predict QWL in that people are inherently different and therefore perceive a particular work environment differently (Argentero *et al.*, 2007; Johnsrud, 2002: 380; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 183-184). Following this, a social theory emerged to highlight that the external context, beyond the organisation, can also influence QWL (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Figure 3.2. found below, is a compilation and illustration of the most commonly discussed antecedents of QWL (structural and personal) discovered during the literature review process.

FIGURE 3.2: ANTECEDENTS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

3.5.1. Work environment/job characteristics

Figure 3.2. indicates that a major superordinate QWL antecedent category is the 'work environment' or 'job characteristics', of which the first subordinate category is 'job design'. Job design is a broad categorisation for the way in which work and the work environment are structured and operate within an organisation. Commonly discussed job design elements include teamwork (Pawar, 2013; Argentero *et al.*, 2007; Sirgy, 2006; Bediako, 2002; Lau & May, 1998), working hours and work load (Pawar, 2013; Nayeri *et al.*, 2011; Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006) and allocation of duties and role clarity (Pawar, 2013; Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Jackson, Rothmann, & van de Vijver, 2006; Sirgy, 2006; Raiger, 2005; Sirgy *et al.*, 2001). Job security forms part of job design but is also dependent on the organisation and economy (Pawar, 2013: 345). Job security is important to building employee commitment and reducing stress since a lack of job security leads to a lack of trust within an organisation (Lau & May, 1998: 212). The opportunities for growth, potential for development and possibility of promotion offered by an organisation are also seen to influence QWL (see Figure 3.2.). Ventegodt, Merrick and Andersen (2003: 1055) assert that every individual strives to actualise themselves and that it is therefore imperative for these needs to be met.

Job rewards can be seen as falling into two categories; extrinsic benefits (pay and compensation, incentive plans, salary adjustment systems, equitable remuneration and merit system) and intrinsic benefits (job challenge, job meaning, task variety, complexity) (Bardmili, Siadat & Mohammadisadr, 2013; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Bediako, 2002; Igbaria *et al.*, 1994; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Both extrinsic and intrinsic benefits have been argued to be important and influential on QWL (Dousti *et al.*, 2012; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Sirgy, 2006; Lau, 2000; Igbaria *et al.*, 1994; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Adequate resources in order to carry out one's job are important in allowing employees to realise their full potential and complete work tasks without unnecessary difficulty (Nayeri *et al.*, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2007; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Sirgy, 2006; Bediako, 2002; Louis, 1998). At the same time, it is important to ensure that resources are being used efficiently and innovatively (Dolan, García, Cabezas & Tzafrir, 2008).

3.5.2. Organisational environment/characteristics

Organisational variables include organisational structure and design. They also include ‘softer’ or intangible variables such as organisational culture and camaraderie (see Figure 3.2.). Employee wellbeing is promoted by assisting employees to find balance amongst life domains by reducing role conflict and stress (Pawar, 2013; Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Gelfand *et al.*, 2007; Sirgy, 2006; Bediako, 2002). Working hours, career planning and support for non-working requirements assist to reduce emotional exhaustion, stress and burnout, thereby safeguarding productivity and reducing staff turnover (Pawar, 2013; Nayeri *et al.*, 2011; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Sirgy, 2006).

Organisational design and employee health and safety are common ‘hard’ antecedents of QWL discussed in the literature (Sirgy, 2006; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Bediako, 2002). In terms of organisational structure, there is a clear shift in perception of effective structure from bureaucratic and formal to more organic, participatory structures where employees can make decisions, share ideas and actively participate (Sirgy, 2006; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Leader-member relationships are important in that leaders largely dictate the nature of the work and organisational environments (see Chapter Four) (Sirgy, 2006; Raiger, 2005; Lau, 2000).

3.5.3. Personal/individual influences

Figure 3.2. indicates that personal influences should also be taken into account. Personality characteristics are relatively stable on an individual level, but vary from individual to individual (Yan & Turban, 2009; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Personality has an impact on attitudes and perceptions and therefore affects subjective wellbeing and job satisfaction (Yan & Turban, 2009; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Naturally, managing satisfaction across individuals can be challenging (Mostert & Rothmann, 2006; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Demographics is a commonly employed research component within QWL research (Dolan *et al.*, 2008; Igbaria *et al.*, 1994). The most commonly researched demographic variables include age (Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006), gender or sex (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Mostert & Rothmann, 2006; Johnsrud, 2002), marital status (Easton & Van Laar, 2012; Tsai, 2011; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006), number of children (Nayeri *et al.*, 2011; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006), race or ethnicity (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Mostert & Rothmann, 2006; Johnsrud, 2002) and education (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006). According to resource drain theory

(see Section 3.7.7.), employees with higher levels of income, age and education ought to be more satisfied with their level of QWL given that they have greater resources which are conducive to satisfying experiences (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Cheung & Leung, 2004: 24). The influence of race, ethnicity and education levels on work satisfaction is contested (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Mostert & Rothmann, 2006). Status and prestige has been said to be important in many cultures, including African and Chinese cultures (Marnewick, 2011; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Cheung & Leung, 2004).

3.5.4. Social influences

It has also been suggested that QWL is context dependent and thus extends beyond the individual within the work environment (Bassi *et al.*, 2013; Igbaria *et al.*, 1994). Common social variables include; social bonds, reference groups and membership beyond the work place (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Shamir & Saloman, 1985), socioeconomic and social status (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2001), social relevance of the work and organisation (Dousti *et al.*, 2012; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Walton, 1975), social integration (Afsar & Burcu, 2013; Sirgy, 2006), social amenities such as education and medical aid facilities (Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Gospel, 2003), inflation and level of economic growth (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Cheung & Leung, 2004) and constitutionalism (Taylor, 1978; Walton, 1975). While it can be very difficult to change many of these variables, it is important to be aware of, and effectively manage these variables as much as possible so as to try build social capital and pride in the work and organisation (Tsai, 2011; Sirgy, 2006; Sirgy *et al.*, 2001; Lau & May, 1998).

3.5.5. Integrated perspective

There are authors that contend that only one of the categories of connotes, work, organisational, personal and social, have any bearing on QWL. However, many authors argue for an integrated perspective in which several or all of these categories are considered to be relevant variables (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 187; Marks, Mirvis, Hackett & Grady, 1986: 67; Mirvis & Lawler, 1984). An integrative perspective may not only involve structural versus individual perspectives but may also pertain to subjective and objective job satisfaction as well (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 188) while others argue for integration in terms of the influence of time – past, present and future – on QWL (Martel & Dupuis, 2006: 337).

3.6. CULTURAL RELATIVITY OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Loscocco and Roschelle (1991: 200) put forward that “unfortunately, researchers have barely begun to consider racial-ethnic differences and the ways in which gender and race interact to affect employee reactions to their work roles”.

3.6.1. Quality of work life in South Africa

South African organisations and the leadership thereof tend to be derived from western systems, which Thomas and Bendixen (2000) argue often conflict with African values. Since the end of apartheid, South Africa has experienced radical changes in the nature of employment relations (Booyesen, 2007; Denton & Vloeberghs, 2002). These drastic shifts in the nature, values and beliefs, and racial and ethnic composition of organisations in South Africa coupled with an intercultural context further enhances the dynamic and complex nature, values and composition of the joint venture, making it perhaps more challenging to effectively manage QWL (Tsai, 2011).

According to the Global Competitiveness Report (Schwab, 2014), the two factors that most heavily impede on South Africa’s attractiveness as a business location include – ‘restrictive labor regulations’ and an ‘inadequately educated workforce’. Both of these challenges pertain to labour market efficiency which highlights that the labour force challenges faced by South Africa can and do affect not only individual satisfaction but also South Africa at large. The Global Competitiveness Report (Schwab, 2014) ranked South Africa 113th out of 144 countries in terms of ‘labour market efficiency’, 132nd for ‘health of workforce’, 139th for ‘wage flexibility’, 143rd for ‘rigid hiring and firing’, and 144th for ‘significant tensions in labour relations’.

Denton and Vloeberghs (2002) and Jackson (1999) call for a more humanistic approach to managing organisations in South Africa whereby employees are valued and developed. This was supported by Jackson’s (1999) findings that South African employees were motivated more by ‘developmental opportunities’ than ‘working and employment conditions’. As such QWL can be predicted to be higher when leaders value employees and assist them to grow (Delobelle, Rawlinson, Ntuli, Malatsi, Decock & Depoorter, 2010). It has been said that South Africans are very likely to value family over work (Jackson, 1999). Many South Africans, particularly within black South African cultures, live with or in close proximity to their extended family and not just nuclear families. It is for this reason that Abbott (2011)

asserts that bettering QWL and other related people management elements is likely to influence the satisfaction of employees. It is also likely to meet the needs of employees' families.

It may be important to not only understand what will satisfy South African employees but also to ensure that Chinese employees within these organisations also have their needs met by the organisation. A qualitative study conducted by McNamee *et al.* (2012) found that Chinese traders operating in South Africa and other African countries were often satisfied with their working lives and the study suggested that both locals and Chinese could learn from one another in terms of need satisfaction through work.

3.6.2. Quality of work life in China

The QWL concept has not been as popular within research or practice within China, relative to western countries, with virtually no QWL studies conducted in China (Zheng & Lamond, 2009; Chan & Wyatt, 2007; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006). Chan and Wyatt (2007: 502) assert that the economic and social shifts experienced by China since the 'open door policy' has resulted in a need "to pay attention to factors that will improve its ability to compete in the business world".

Within contemporary China, however, there has been a great shift away from the traditional *dan wei* labour practice to a less authoritative and intrusive system (Rowley, Benson & Warner, 2007). The increasing freedom of employees and the ability to control one's own personal life has increased employee satisfaction while still largely maintaining loyalty and work ethic (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Warner, 1996). QWL is highest in China when paternalism, personalism, communalism and job security are ensured (Jackson, 2014; Redding & Hsiao, 1990). Given the collective nature of Chinese employees, it has been suggested that work and life satisfaction are more likely to be influenced by collective work and societal circumstances (group welfare) than idiocentric antecedents of satisfaction such as pay and compensation, self-actualisation and socioeconomic status (Cheung & Leung, 2004: 31). Warner (2010) argues that the term 'job satisfaction' is in itself idiocentric and founded on personal reward and as such perception of what defines a rewarding job in China ought to be understood through a Confucian definition of reward.

One could also suggest that a collectivistic orientation and the maintenance of harmony through reciprocal relationships (discussed in Section 1.4.3.) may result in a greater focus on

employee needs through a complementary relationship between employees and an organisation's leaders (Zhou & Martocchio, 2001: 122).

It is evident that leaders expect employees to respect authority and to be obedient, which is not indicative of the South African workforce and may cause conflict and reduce QWL of both leaders (accused of authoritarianism) and followers (accused of insubordination) (Cheung, Wu, Chan & Wong, 2009; Booysen, 2007; Wasti, 1998). In return for filial piety, loyalty and obedience employees expect leaders to behave paternalistically and ensure need satisfaction for employees (Ip, 2009). Employees need to feel a sense of membership, interdependence and belonging stemming from Confucian values (Gandolfi & Bekker, 2008; Spector, Cooper, Poelmans, Allen, O'Driscoll, Sanchez, Sui, Dewe, Hart & Lu, 2004). Employees need to be able to trust that supervisors will take care of subordinates and make decisions in the best interest of the collective (Chen *et al.*, 2014).

One should also give particular attention to the work-family relationship and the influence thereof on employee satisfaction, given the strong family orientation in China endorsed by Confucian values (Jackson, 2014). The focus on family in China is shared with many cultural groups of South Africa (particularly African cultures) (Li, Leung, Chen & Luo, 2012).

The above exploration of possible Chinese and South African influences on the needs employees have and how a high quality work life is perceived brings to the fore both similarities (for instance the emphasis on family domains) and differences (such as the Chinese and South African work ethic) between China and South Africa. Moreover, similarities (for example spillover effects) and differences (for example in South Africa legislation impedes employee satisfaction) can be seen with Chinese and South African QWL perceptions and western QWL perceptions. The following section will explore western QWL theory in greater detail.

3.7. WESTERN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE THEORIES

According to Martel and Dupuis (2006), few contemporary articles have contributed to QWL theory or construct development. The frequency of QWL publications has dwindled since its burst in the 1970s. Five main theoretical QWL perspectives ('integration', 'need satisfaction', 'transfer' or 'spillover', 'compensation' and 'segmentation') emerged during this period, and remain the key perspectives (usually in some combination) underlying contemporary QWL

frameworks (Martel & Dupuis, 2006). These will now be discussed as well the chosen QWL framework designed by Sirgy *et al.* (2001).

3.7.1. The integration theory

The basic argument of the integration model is that by aligning the goals and needs of employees and the organisation, employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs while organisations are more likely to achieve goals and hence improve organisational performance (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990). Afsar and Burcu (2013) contend that the integrative framework is based on the assumption that QWL is a social movement and as such failing to create a high QWL would have repercussions beyond just the employee or the organisation. Originally the integrative model was aimed at lower level employees in an attempt to create a more inclusive organisational culture (Sashkin & Burke, 1987). Martel and Dupuis (2006: 343) bring to light that with rising education levels, the lower level employees may perceive the workplace as a resource for learning, personal growth and social support and not just as a source of remuneration, therefore work is increasingly becoming a vital component of overall life.

3.7.2. Need satisfaction theory

The basic premise of need satisfaction models of QWL is similar to that of general need satisfaction theories; needs must be satisfied through work and satisfaction and a sense of QWL will be experienced, depending on the degree to which these needs are met through involvement within an organisation (Chan & Wyatt, 2007; Sirgy *et al.*, 2001). Efraty and Sirgy (1990: 32) suggest that the interaction between an organisation and employees therefore results in need satisfaction and that as an organisation fulfils more employee needs, so QWL will increase. Sirgy *et al.* (2008: 182) suggest that “the core of the QWL movement is the satisfaction of employees’ needs through organizational development”. Loscocco and Roschelle (1991: 185) assert that QWL models stemming from need satisfaction have been critiqued on many grounds, the most significant being the assumption that needs are fixed or unchanging.

3.7.3. Transfer theory (spillover effect)

Closely tied to the need satisfaction theory of QWL, the ‘transfer theory’ suggests that satisfaction in one life domain can extend into other areas of life and as such dissatisfaction with one’s job may lead to lower satisfaction in non-work life and *vice versa* (Martel &

Dupuis, 2006: 344; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 201). Two spillover effects (horizontal and vertical spillover) need to be distinguished from one another. Horizontal spillover pertains to one life domain influencing another connected or neighbouring life domain (Chan & Wyatt, 2007: 504; Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 245). Vertical spillover effects concern the spillover from a domain that is higher in the hierarchy of domains to a subordinate domain (the hierarchy exists within the minds of individuals, the highest of which is life satisfaction or the quality of life) or from a lower domain to a higher one (Chan & Wyatt, 2007: 504; Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 245).

3.7.4. The compensation theory

The ‘compensation theory’ of QWL asserts that “there is a balance of influence between and among the life domains” (Chan & Wyatt, 2007: 504). When an individual experiences dissatisfaction in one life domain, the individual will attempt to compensate for this dissatisfaction by increasing satisfaction in another life domain through stimulating or challenging experiences (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 245; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 201). The increased satisfaction in one domain will therefore ‘compensate’ for the dissatisfaction in the other (Chan & Wyatt, 2007: 504). In terms of work dissatisfaction, the compensation model assumes that non-work activities will be explored that the individual finds enjoyable and derives satisfaction from (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 245). Loscocco and Roschelle (1991: 201) indicate that the compensation model is most applicable when individuals are in “routine or boring jobs” which are unable to meet the socio-emotional needs of individuals whereby they will seek to compensate for this.

3.7.5. The segmentation theory

The ‘segmentation theory’ can almost be described as the complete opposition to the transfer model. Segmentation theory holds that life domains are completely separate from one another and are by no means connected (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 201). From this premise it is clear that the segmentation theory assumes that there is no relationship between the different spheres of an individual’s life and as such they cannot influence or spillover into one another. Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 245) describes the manifestation of segmentation as employees that decide to purposefully stop spillover effects when dissatisfied with their work so as to prevent emotions from negatively impacting on their personal lives and attempt to suppress work thoughts, behaviours and attitudes when in other life domains and *vice versa*. This is seen as a coping mechanism.

3.7.6. The accommodation theory

The ‘accommodation theory’ asserts that individuals will voluntarily reduce their efforts and investment and forgo satisfaction in one life domain so as to better manage the demands of another life domain and gain satisfaction from that domain instead (Lambert, 1990). As such the accommodation model serves as a means by which individuals can reconcile work and non-work demands, particularly with the increasing number of woman in the workplace (Martel & Dupuis, 2006: 345). Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark and Baltes (2011: 695) suggest that a main contributor to the need to accommodate is the number of children an individual has.

3.7.7. Resource drain theory

The ‘resource drain theory’ has been described as predicting a negative relationship between work and QWL, given a limited supply of personal resources (such as time, attention and energy). Resource drain is said to stem from the stress factors experienced when carrying out a life role. Michel *et al.* (2011: 695) assert that the “role stressors that occur in each domain subtract from the finite resources available to the individual”. In this sense, life domains are in competition for finite resources which strains the individual and brings with it negative consequences both in the work and non-work domains.

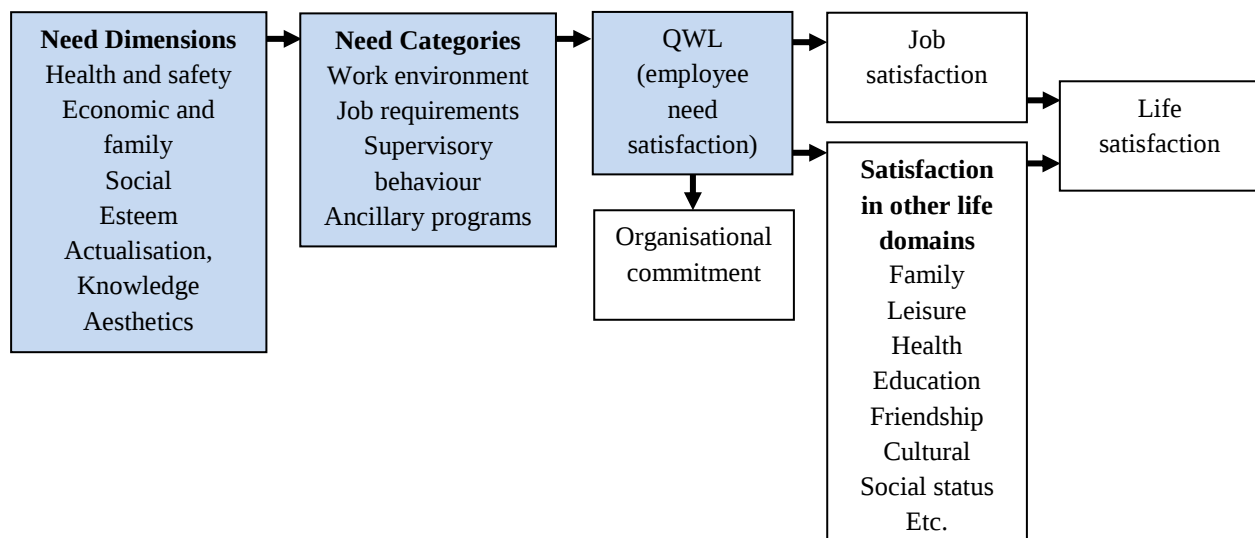
Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) indicate that the spillover, compensation and segmentation models of QWL have not been universally endorsed even though they are nevertheless the most commonly adopted models. Overall a great body of the research offers support for the transfer model (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 201). Related to that, it is important to note that many needs models have been criticised in terms of oversimplification and often not accounting for social influences and assuming that needs are stable over time (Gomez-Mejia, 1984). Given that satisfaction is the most common proxy for QWL studies, need satisfaction models are often appropriate in measuring the level of QWL within an organisation (Omodei & Wearing, 1990). Need satisfaction models are also advocated in the measuring of subjective wellbeing and employee job attitudes (Omodei & Wearing, 1990; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), thus making the models useful in measuring QWL perceptions. Despite the salience of the spillover and need satisfaction models, the compensation and segmentation models, and the accommodation model to a lesser extent, have also been proposed as valid QWL conceptualisations. Lambert (1990) suggests that the accommodation model and the

compensation model both result in poor work-life balance and, as such, one ought to monitor if these models are present within their organisation.

3.7.8. The Sirgy *et al.* (2001) Model

The framework chosen to represent QWL in this study was developed by Sirgy *et al.* (2001) and is entitled “a new measure of quality of work life based on need satisfaction and spillover theories” (see Figure 3.3.). This framework proposes that the extent to which the four need satisfaction categories – ‘work environment’, ‘job requirements’, ‘supervisory behaviour’ and ‘ancillary programmes’ – are perceived to meet employees’ needs, determines QWL. Within these four need satisfaction categories there are seven need dimensions – ‘health and safety’, ‘economic and family’, ‘social’, ‘esteem’, ‘actualisation’, ‘knowledge’ and ‘aesthetics’ (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 247-248). Enhanced QWL results in greater job satisfaction and organisational commitment as horizontal and vertical spillover effects (see Figure 3.3.). For the purpose of this study, the level of QWL was the only entity that was determined (illustrated in Figure 3.3. with shaded text boxes).

FIGURE 3.3: A NEW MEASURE OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE BASED ON NEED SATISFACTION AND SPILLOVER THEORIES



(Source: Adapted from Sirgy *et al.*, 2001)

Sirgy *et al.* (2001) contend that the QWL model developed in their study is advantageous in that not only is the level of need satisfaction within the workplace captured, but also it also captures employee perceptions of the antecedents of satisfaction which stem from the four need categories. A main need satisfaction theory which underpins the Sirgy *et al.* (2001)

model is the taxonomy of needs created by Maslow (1943, cited in Easton & Van Laar, 2012). It can be argued that an advantage of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model over Maslow's (1954, cited in Sirgy *et al.*, 2001) is that Sirgy *et al.* (2001) do not assume that different needs have different potencies. Furthermore it should be noted that while job need satisfaction is used as a proxy for QWL, Sirgy *et al.* (2001) clearly state that "QWL differs from job satisfaction which is an outcome of QWL". QWL is thus a broader construct than that of job satisfaction, even though Sirgy *et al.* (2001) assume that QWL leads to job satisfaction, satisfaction in other spheres of life and, finally, overall life satisfaction (see Figure 3.3.).

3.7.8.1. Need satisfaction categories and dimensions

According to Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 247-248) there are seven need dimensions – health and safety, economic and family, social, esteem, actualisation, knowledge, and aesthetics – which need to be satisfied in order to have a high level of QWL (see Figure 3.3.). These seven need dimensions fall within four need categories emanating from the work life environment, these include – work environment, job requirements, supervisory behaviour and ancillary programmes (see Figure 3.3.). The summation of the seven need dimensions according to the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model is said to be an indicator of the level of QWL life experienced by an individual (see Figure 3.3.). In line with Maslow's (1954, cited in Sirgy *et al.*, 2001) hierarchy of needs, Sirgy *et al.* (2001) suggest that health, safety, economic and family need dimensions are lower-order needs whilst social, esteem, actualisation, knowledge and aesthetic needs are higher-order needs.

Health and safety needs

The first lower need dimension of health and safety comprises of three needs - 'protection from ill health and injury at work' (workplace safety); 'protection from ill health and injury outside of work' (health benefits from employment) and 'enhancement of good health' ('encouragement at work of preventative measures of health care') – which are all said to be vital in fulfilling employees' health and safety needs (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 246). Figure 3.2. indicates that 'safe and healthy working conditions' are seen to be an important antecedent of QWL and a common variable in QWL studies, which stands to verify the inclusion of this need dimension.

Economic and family needs

The second lower order need identified by Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 246-247) is that of economic and family needs which similarly consists of three needs – ‘pay’, ‘job security’ and ‘other family needs’ (work-life balance). Figure 3.2. suggests that remuneration is not the only important factor in QWL. Other important factors include intrinsic benefits. This blind spot could arguably be a limitation of the framework developed by Sirgy *et al.* (2001). Alternatively, recognition for work (a higher-order need) is an intrinsic benefit, as evidenced by the overwhelming support of it in literature (Bardmili *et al.*, 2013; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006). ‘Job security’ was, however, identified as a common QWL variable (see Figure 3.2.) and as such there is justification for the relevance of the job security need. Other family needs are also corroborated in literature (indicated in Figure 3.2.) under the ‘work-life balance; enough time off work; stress; burnout’ antecedent category. The importance of family and job security in determining QWL perceptions in both South Africa (Section 3.6.1.) and China (Section 3.6.2.) has been illustrated. Hence, there is strong evidence in support of the relevance of economic and family needs.

Social needs

The first higher order need and the third need in the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) framework is social needs. This need dimension can be broken into two needs - ‘collegiality at work’ (co-operative and positive relationships in the workplace) and ‘leisure time off’ (balance between time spent working and time spent on leisure) (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 247). Figure 3.2. encapsulates the collegiality at work need, under the ‘camaraderie, social integration and social context’ antecedents, and ‘leisure time off needs, under the work-life balance and enough time off work’ antecedents.

Esteem needs

The second higher-order need identified by Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 247) is esteem needs, which include the need for ‘recognition and appreciation of work within the organisation’ (‘recognition and awards’ linked to performance) as well as the need for ‘recognition and appreciation of one’s work outside the organisation’ (‘for example within the local community or professional associations’). The esteem need dimension can thus be described as incorporating intrinsic benefits which other authors propose also has an influence on QWL (Bardmili *et al.*, 2013; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006; Bediako, 2002).

Actualisation needs

The third higher order need and the fifth need dimension of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 247) model is actualisation needs which can be broken down into two needs, firstly the need for ‘realisation of one’s potential within the organisation’ (potential is recognised in the workplace) and the need for ‘realisation of one’s potential as a professional’ (‘job is perceived to allow the person to become an expert in his or her field of expertise’). Closely related to actualisation needs is the higher-order need for knowledge.

Knowledge needs

The knowledge need dimension is the fourth higher order need identified in the Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 247) framework and incorporates the need for ‘learning to enhance job skills’ and ‘learning to enhance professional skills’. The antecedent category of ‘promotion, growth and development opportunities’ (see Figure 3.2.) corroborates the actualisation, esteem and knowledge needs identified by Sirgy *et al.* (2001). On the other hand there is evidence that while there is a strong need for self-actualisation in western countries, this need is not as prevalent in non-western countries (Huang, 2008: 78).

Aesthetics needs

The last higher order need dimension of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001: 247) QWL framework is the aesthetics need dimension which includes two need variables, that of ‘creativity at work’ (‘opportunities to be creative in solving job-related problems’) as well as ‘personal creativity and general aesthetics’, ‘opportunities at work to allow personal development of one’s sense of aesthetics and creative expression’) (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 247). Samuel and Chipunza (2009) argue that having opportunities to think innovatively and express opinions and ideas is an important element of job design. Additionally, that organisational culture has a major influence on the engagement and level of employee participation in the workplace. To that extent, Figure 3.2. highlights that ‘facilities and general work aesthetics’ can have a major influence on subjective QWL.

It can be seen that all seven needs of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) QWL model are strongly supported within the research community and that there is evidence indicating that these need dimensions are likely to indicate QWL. Easton and Van Laar (2012) do, however, criticise the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model as focussing more on QWL than other non-work life domains

and overall quality of life. Despite the proven validity and reliability (discussed in Section 5.8.), Sirgy *et al.* (2001) suggest that the model needs to be tested in different contexts.

Within the South African research context, there has been a stronger research focus on worker wellness (including topics such as burnout, occupational stress and happiness) than QWL specifically (van der Berg, 2011). Looking within the available QWL research conducted in South Africa highlights a variety of models and adapted models used. There is no widely accepted model that is well validated and tested within South Africa (Easton & Van Laar, 2012; Naudé, 2010). The model created by Van Laar, Edwards and Easton (2007) was arguably a better fitted model than that of Sirgy *et al.* (2001). Although, it must be noted that the Van Laar *et al.* (2007) model is also not well researched and is itself dependent on the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model as one of the theoretical bases for its development. At any rate, Section 3.7.3. justified the use of spillover and need satisfaction models in South Africa. Moreover, Fourie (2004) found that in South Africa there is a meaningful correlation between job satisfaction and QWL and, as such, while Fourie did not use the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model, the inference is that the study validates the use of job satisfaction as a proxy for QWL. The Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model was the most widely validated and reliable QWL instrument the researcher could find that had been used within both the Chinese and South African organisational context. Thus, in light of the discussion above, the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) was selected as a foundation for the interview guide questions (discussed in Section 5.6.2.1.; Appendix A) and informed the deductive process element of the data analysis (discussed in Section 5.7.).

3.9. SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the concept of QWL and emphasised the importance of promoting employee satisfaction in order to better enable organisations to attract and retain employees who are loyal, competent and productive (Dousti *et al.*, 2012). As was seen with Chapter Two, discussing leadership style, Chapter Three has taken a cultural approach to defining and discussing the QWL phenomenon (see Sections 3.2. and 3.6.). The chapter has highlighted a lack of established indigenous research, including research in the South African and Chinese cultural context, pertaining to the QWL phenomenon (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Given that QWL has overall received relatively less attention within the research community, at least in comparison to leadership, the lack of culture specific research becomes all the more

necessary. Therefore, there is a great need to understand the QWL concept from the South African and Chinese orientation.

In order to better understand the QWL concept, as well as the ways in which leadership could influence employee need satisfaction, this chapter explored some connotes and antecedents of QWL (see Sections 3.4. and 3.5.). The culture specific discussion of QWL highlights many differences and similarities between a South African and Chinese conception of QWL. There are also seeming differences and similarities in the extent to which employees' feel their needs are met, which one again illustrates the complexity of creating a high QWL for a diverse set of employees.

The Sirgy *et al.* (2001) QWL framework was chosen for the purpose of the study. Section 3.7.8. interrogated the model and discussed its context specific applications. While the quantitative measuring instrument did not include all of the antecedents explored in Section 3.5. the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model is a useful framework given that the phenomenological exploration of the need dimensions will allow for culture specific needs to emerge. More importantly, it will also allow for the needs which are not present within the framework to emerge. It can be said that both Chinese and South African leaders, and organisations operating both domestically and internationally, can improve organisational and employee outcomes by improving the QWL of employees (Zafer Acar, 2012; Dousti *et al.*, 2012). Given the subjective nature of the QWL phenomenon, and the personal and social influences on QWL, the establishment of QWL is particularly difficult within an intercultural context, and is likely to be unique to a given organisation (Chan & Wyatt, 2007; Hsu & Kernohan, 2006).

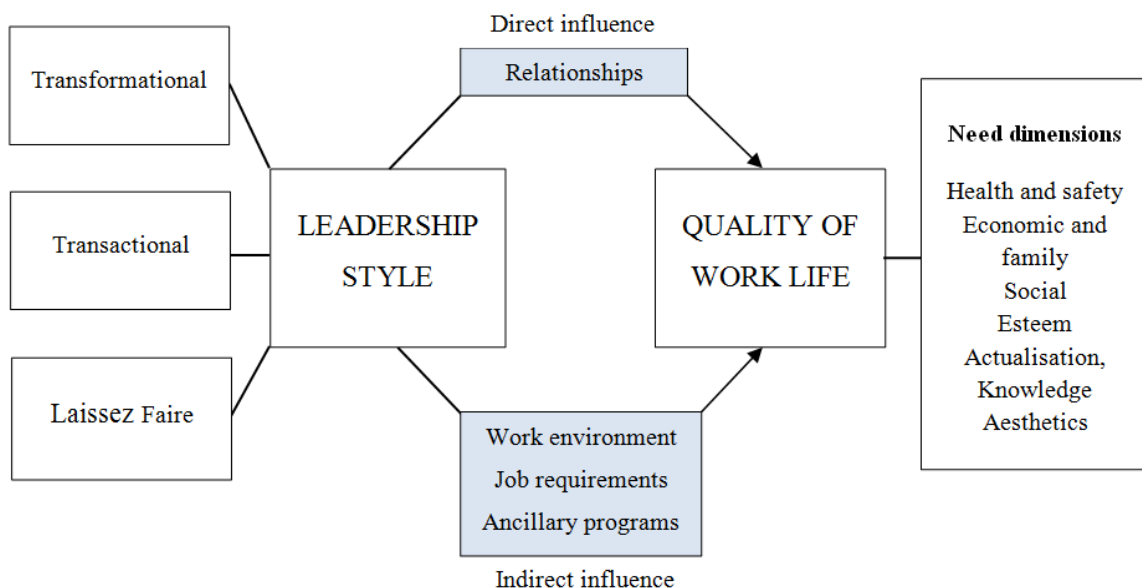
CHAPTER FOUR

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

4.1. OVERVIEW

So far, Chapter Two and Chapter Three of this study have interrogated the leadership style and QWL constructs respectively. Chapter Four will explore the relationship between leadership style (discussed in Chapter Two) and QWL (discussed in Chapter Three). Following this section of Chapter Four, Section 4.2. will discuss the leadership style-QWL relationship. Section 4.3. will look specifically at the transformational and transactional leadership styles, and the influence these have on QWL levels, while Sections 4.4. and 4.5. will provide an analysis of the leadership style-QWL relationship within the South African and Chinese intercultural contexts. A summary and conclusion section will summarise the chapter. Figure 4.1. below, illustrating the overall study, highlights the research construct that this chapter pertains to.

FIGURE 4.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

4.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Leadership behaviour has been found to be highly pervasive, influencing a plethora of employee related outcomes, among them, job and need satisfaction, morale and wellbeing, employee commitment and organisational citizenship and employee motivation (see Table 4.1.). Reduced employee turnover and absenteeism levels induce greater employee productivity and organisational effectiveness (Kara, Uysal, Sirgy & Lee, 2013; Yaghoubipoor, Tee & Ahmed, 2013). Arguably the most direct influence of leadership style on employees is the enhancement of employee-employer relationships (Kara *et al.*, 2013). Leadership style influences many, if not most, organisational facets such as promotion, availability of resources and job design (Dousti *et al.*, 2012). Leadership styles, then, not only directly impact on QWL through employee-employer relationships but also indirectly influence QWL through workplace dimensions determined by leaders (Harrison, 2005). Interestingly, Tsai (2011) correctly asserts that organisational value systems stem from leaders, in that the values held by organisations and leaders are likely to determine leadership behaviour and the behaviour expected of employees. Moreover values are likely to have a bearing on organisational leadership because of the perception of employees and the professed value and role of employees within an organisation. It is for this reason that Harrison (2005) contends that while QWL is influenced by many work and organisational variables, leadership style can be seen to be highly salient.

TABLE 4.1: LEADERSHIP PERVASIVENESS

Antecedents	Contributing authors
Job and need satisfaction	Kara <i>et al.</i> (2013); Yaghoubipoor <i>et al.</i> (2013); Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy (2012); Vo & Hannif (2011); Stander & Rothmann (2009); Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2008); Sirgy <i>et al.</i> (2008); Emery & Barker (2007); Nguni <i>et al.</i> (2006); Mosadegh Rad & Yarmohammadian (2006); Ayman & Chemers (1983)
Morale and wellbeing	Kara <i>et al.</i> (2013); Warner (2012); Vo & Hannif (2011); Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2008); Sirgy <i>et al.</i> (2008); Kuoppala, Lamminpää, Liira & Vainio (2008); Nielsen, Yarker, Brenner, Randall & Borg (2008); Wang (2008); Blunt & Jones (1997)
Employee commitment and organisational citizenship	Kara <i>et al.</i> (2013); Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy (2012); Stander & Rothmann (2009); Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2008); Limsila & Ogunlana (2008); Sirgy <i>et al.</i> (2008); Nguni <i>et al.</i> (2006); Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia (2004); Barling, Slater & Kelloway (2000)
Motivation	Kara <i>et al.</i> (2013); Warner (2012); Vo & Hannif (2011); Felfe & Heinitz (2010); Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe (2008); Mehta (2000)
Productivity	Kara <i>et al.</i> (2013); Yaghoubipoor <i>et al.</i> (2013); Erkutlu (2008); Wang (2008); Singh (2000); Blunt & Jones (1997)

(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

Harrison (2005) suggests that supportiveness, participation, group emphasis, performance expectations, communication and conflict management styles are important means by which leadership style can influence QWL. Leaders ought to guide employees and assist them with task ownership and work engagement by giving employees greater responsibility and autonomy (Kara *et al.*, 2013). Job satisfaction is debatably greater when employees have greater autonomy by improving self-efficacy and providing opportunities for growth (Vo & Hannif, 2011). Good leaders should encourage employees to think innovatively and creatively and to harness employees' practical knowledge to solve problems. They should also allow employees to participate in decision making (Kara *et al.*, 2013). Walumbwa *et al.* (2005) put forward that leaders should aim to improve employee confidence, motivation and effectiveness by attempting to meet employee's needs on an individual level through personalised attention. They should also, according to Walumbwa *et al.* (2005) encourage

learning and growth. Through engagement and co-operation, leaders are able to build better employee-employer relationships where leaders and followers work together to solve problems (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2012). QWL is positively affected by engaged leaders who ensure employee wellbeing and need satisfaction (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2008). By improving employee-employer relationships, and other workplace dimensions, not only is the QWL of employees improved but also the QWL experienced by leaders (Kotzé, 2005). This is beneficial for leaders in terms of greater need satisfaction. However, it also further improves leader behaviour and so to some extent a two-way relationship between leadership style and QWL could be hypothesised (Kara *et al.*, 2013).

It has been suggested that it is not individual leader's leadership style but rather the collective leadership styles of all leaders within an organisation that influences the level of QWL within an organisation (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). It can be concluded that poor leadership styles of one or several leaders will reduce the QWL of employees and leaders over time. Therefore, leaders need to be aware of how their behaviour influences subordinates (Kara *et al.*, 2013). Leaders hence ought to work with one another and with employees to ensure that variables leading to need satisfaction and promoting QWL are maximised, whilst attempting to reduce variables that create dissatisfaction for employees and simultaneously reduce QWL (Mafini & Pooe, 2013). In line with the discussion on the pertinence of transformational leadership (see Section 2.6.2. exploring the FRLDT Section 4.3. will now explore the extent to which the two leadership styles – transformational and transactional – within the selected FRLM can be expected to influence QWL levels.

4.3. THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP ON QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

Different leadership styles are said to influence QWL differently. However, there is general consensus that the adoption of more transformational leadership styles should illicit greater QWL levels than that of transactional leadership (Kara *et al.*, 2013). Walumbwa *et al.* (2005: 239) contend that “empirical and meta-analytic studies suggest that followers working with transformational leaders are more involved, satisfied, empowered, motivated, and committed to their organizations and demonstrate fewer withdrawal behaviors”. Transformational leadership behaviour can be said to improve employee satisfaction and QWL in that employees feel more valued and are more likely to see the relevance and importance of the work being done (Bass, 1998). Several studies have found that transformational leadership

styles result in greater employee wellbeing, commitment and satisfaction, among other employee outcomes (Kara *et al.*, 2013; Yaghoubipoor *et al.*, 2013; Jackson, Meyer & Wang, 2012; Felfe & Heinitz, 2010; Nguni *et al.*, 2006; Avolio *et al.*, 2004; Van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill & Stride, 2004; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990). Even though transformational leadership is argued to be more effective in improving QWL, this does not imply that transactional leadership is of no importance. Rather, what it means is that transactional leadership should only be used where appropriate (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2008). This is not to say that transactional leadership will definitely decrease QWL levels when transformational leadership is more appropriate for the situation. Instead, it is to say that it can be expected that transactional leadership styles will not improve QWL to the same extent, if at all (Jackson *et al.*, 2012).

Of particular relevance to this study are the findings of Kara *et al.* (2013), who used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2005, cited in Kara *et al.*, 2013) and the Sirgy *et al.* (2001, cited in Kara *et al.*, 2013) QWL model, and Yaghoubipoor *et al.* (2013), who adapted the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1990, cited in Yaghoubipoor *et al.*, 2013) and the Maslow (2000, cited in Yaghoubipoor *et al.*, 2013) need satisfaction model (from which the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model is derived) to collect data. Kara *et al.* (2013) found that no relationship exists between transactional leadership and QWL whilst transformational leadership was found to have a significant positive impact on QWL. Of particular interest should be the findings Yaghoubipoor *et al.* (2013: 24), that there was “a significant and positive relationship between the transformational leadership dimensions and job satisfaction”. It is safe to conclude, given this, that when leadership style or supervisory behaviour leads to need satisfaction then a higher QWL level will be experienced (Kara *et al.*, 2013; Sirgy *et al.*, 2001).

4.4. THE LEADERSHIP STYLE-QUALITY OF WORK LIFE RELATIONSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

Dissatisfaction with the work domain is experienced by almost all South African employees at some stage in work careers, irrespective of age, ethnicity and position within an organisation (van der Berg & Martins, 2013). Employee satisfaction is continuing to deteriorate and is a major challenge for South African organisational leaders who, consequently, need to work towards the enhancement of satisfaction so as to improve organisational and employee related outcomes (Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Denton &

Vloeberghs, 2002). The Global Competitiveness Report (Schwab, 2014) ranked South Africa last of all 144 participating countries in the world in terms of ‘cooperation in labour-employee relations’. While there is evidence that South African leaders are attempting to reduce dissatisfaction within the workplace (leader and employee dissatisfaction), attempts to improve QWL have not always been successful (van der Berg & Martins, 2013).

While QWL research in the South African and Chinese context is lacking, and research into the relationship between leadership and QWL is even scarcer, there are studies which have been conducted in South Africa which offer insight into the relationship between the phenomena (Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007). Moreover Greyvenstein and Cilliers (2012) highlight the problem of ‘the forgotten follower’ whereby most leadership research is from the perspective of meeting leader needs instead of follower needs. Related to that, less interest has been given to the relationship between leaders and followers. South African need satisfaction for both leaders and followers is lacking and as a result leaders are under immense pressure to gain employee support and increase productivity. Employees often have low motivation and organisational citizenship among other undesirable employee attitudes and behaviours which are damaging both to individual employees and to organisations (Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Kotzé, 2005). The argument that greater research is needed into understanding and harnessing the potential for leadership in order to enhance employee wellbeing is derived from the increasing need to improve satisfaction in the workplace (Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007). Moreover, South Africa needs more effective leaders within organisations, leaders that are able to meet the needs of employees (Luthans, Van Wyk & Walumbwa, 2004).

Leaders purportedly have an important role to play in alleviating employee dissatisfaction since leadership has a bearing on dissatisfaction levels (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). To that extent, Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) raise the importance of the role played by South African leaders in ensuring QWL and need satisfaction by making employees feel secure (safety and job security), cared for and listened to. Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) also suggest that the role expected from leaders in South Africa can be described as a transformational leadership role. A significant relationship was also found between QWL and management practices in South Africa by van der Berg and Martins (2013). They argued that when leader behaviour and practice is perceived positively by employees, this results in healthier relationships of trust and QWL. The study conducted by van der Berg and Martins (2013) also found that there was a stronger relationship between QWL and leader behaviour than

there was between QWL and the personality of employees. This is further confirmed by Castro and Martins (2010) who established that leadership styles of immediate managers directly and indirectly influence employee need satisfaction, and leadership style was mostly negatively affecting QWL levels.

A qualitative study conducted in South Africa by Greyvenstein and Cilliers (2012) highlights that even though organisational leaders were perceived to contribute negatively to wellbeing, employees felt that they were more trustworthy than political leaders. Pienaar and Van Zyl (2008, cited in Coetzee & de Villiers, 2010) found that leadership was a main contributor to dissatisfaction of black South African employees who had a strong need for personal relationships with and support from leaders while white employees felt mostly dissatisfied with work load. This is substantiated by the study conducted by Martins and Coetzee (2007) where it was ascertained that in South Africa employees, particularly black South African employees, experienced major dissatisfaction within the workplace largely attributed to poor experiences with leadership practice. As such Martins and Coetzee (2007) call for leadership styles and management practice that “address employees’ need for creative challenges and quality of work life”. Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) do however indicate that employees also need to reciprocate and assist leaders in creating mutually beneficial work systems that ensure employee wellbeing and organisational goals, which can be difficult to achieve.

Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) assert that the authoritarian leadership styles, often adopted in South African organisations, have largely resulted in a focus on financial performance. Following from this, employee dissatisfaction is seen as a fault on behalf of employees and the role of leaders in ensuring QWL is often overlooked. It is argued that a focus on task-orientated, as opposed to people-orientated leadership, is evident in South African organisations and a shift towards meeting both organisational and employee needs would be beneficial (Greyvenstein & Cilliers, 2012; Fletcher, 1999). Martins and Coetzee (2007) suggest that leaders in South Africa ought to merge organisational and employee needs to ensure high QWL levels, thereby motivating employees toward mutual need satisfaction. Leaders also need to have foresight into how organisational and leadership decisions affect employees and QWL rather than driving transformation from an estranged position (Greyvenstein & Cilliers, 2012).

Rothmann (2003: 17) describes the South African employment environment as having undergone significant changes in terms of “the type of work employees do, when they work

and how much they work”. These changes have largely been poorly received by employees, which Denton and Vloeberghs (2002) ascribe to leaders not valuing or treating employees as indispensable assets. They also attribute it to a poor understanding of the diverse employee needs, indicative of the South African workforce. The immense change and diversity of the South African work environment has indeed created an increasing interest in the ‘softer’ people aspects of organisational success and an interest in QWL of both followers and leaders (van der Berg & Martins, 2013). Hence, in order to improve QWL levels in South Africa, more diverse and competent leaders are needed who can align employees with an organisation’s mission, vision and goals and the encourage mutual attainment thereof. Inadequate leadership development is problematic in South Africa, and so to ensure that organisational leaders positively influence QWL levels, leaders need greater aptitude in this regard (Fletcher, 1999).

Walumbwa *et al.* (2005) asserts that leaders in South Africa and other African countries ought to adopt both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, where appropriate, and that leader behaviour needs to take into account the cultural complexities of local employees if employee resistance and other negative employee outcomes are to be avoided. Mokgolo, Mokgolo and Modiba (2012) found a significant relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and need satisfaction, and substantiated these findings with the argument that transformational leaders “try to transform the abilities, personal values and self-concepts of employees and move them to higher levels of needs and aspirations”. Mokgolo *et al.* (2012) also found that South African leaders are lacking in transformational leadership behaviour.

Walumbwa *et al.* (2005) suggests that post-1994, with the ending of apartheid, there is an increasing need for leaders that are practised in diversity management, whereby leaders ensure that the differences between employees are recognised and accommodated. Diversity management and cultural sensitivity is important, if leaders wish to create better QWL levels within an organisation (Luthans *et al.*, 2004). Diversity perplexes the effective satisfying of employee needs in that different ethnic groups tend to have different values, beliefs, norms and expectations (Kotzé, 2005). If leaders do not see value in diversity or place great importance on satisfying the unique needs of employees, then leaders cannot expect these employees to be motivated or productive (van der Berg & Martins, 2013; Fletcher, 1999).

One of the key values that shape leadership in Sub-Saharan Africa is the importance of social and personal relationships within the work environment. Within the African context, leadership is not a position or a variable within leaders. Rather, leadership exists in the relationships that leaders have with followers (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). Given the cultural importance of personal relationships in ensuring higher levels of QWL within South Africa, employees perceive the relationships with superiors as a core component of the work domain (Hui, Lee & Rousseau, 2004; Van Schalkwyk, du Toit, Bothma & Rothmann, 2010). This is confirmed by Martins and Coetzee (2007), who contend that leader behaviour and relationships with leaders are decidedly influential on satisfaction levels of employees, particularly with younger employees. Conversely the leadership role is also challenging, and leaders who do not satisfy their own social needs are also likely to experience decreased QWL (Greyvenstein & Cilliers, 2012; Coetzee & de Villiers, 2010).

From this, it is evident that QWL improvements are directly beneficial both to leaders as well as to their followers. There is, then, an indirect benefit to organisations, which in itself offers a motivation for the adoption of personnel management which resultantly improves QWL (Rothmann, Diedericks & Swart, 2013). A recommendation made by Fletcher (1999) is that South African organisations and leaders should conduct more employee research so as to better identify and thereby manage the factors which promote and impair need satisfaction in the work place. Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) suggest that South African leaders would be better equipped to understand and thereby improve need satisfaction within the organisational context if greater employee research is carried out. In order to perceive the significance of employee research, organisational leaders need to understand how QWL and satisfaction influences the organisation (Fletcher, 1999). A further recommendation by Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) is that there needs to be greater research into the cost-benefit implications of QWL interventions in order to further confirm the benefits of QWL and need satisfaction on employee and organisational outcomes (motivation and wellbeing has been found to be significantly influenced while organisational productivity and effectiveness is not as well confirmed).

4.5. THE LEADERSHIP STYLE-QUALITY OF WORK LIFE RELATIONSHIP IN CHINA

Generally, but particularly in South African literature, leaders not only influence employees directly through employee-employer relationships, but also through the establishment of work environment and organisational context variables which directly inhibit or promote employee satisfaction and wellness (Harrison, 2005; Hui *et al.*, 2004). The influence of leadership style on QWL within Chinese organisations can be expected to be moderated by culture, due to the influence of values such as collectivism on need satisfaction and QWL (discussed in greater detail in Section 3.6.) (Jackson *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, the Chinese leadership style is often described as paternalistic whereby the importance of reciprocal relationships, respect for authority and paternal care are advocated (discussed in Section 2.4.). It can hence be said that the cultural values imbedded within Chinese leadership styles and particularly the paternalistic nature of Chinese leadership, are likely to influence the way in which leaders attempt to meet employee needs (Peng, Lu, Shenkar & Wang, 2001).

Hui *et al.* (2004) posit that cultural values and the historical context within China have led to a work value whereby personal loyalty and attachment is a duty and not merely a consequence of job satisfaction or commitment. According to Chen *et al.* (2014) it has been argued that the loyalty of an employee is an indication of the employee's identification and attachment to his or her superior (discussed in Section 2.4. and Section 3.7.3.). The saliency of leadership in determining employee outcomes is well documented and entrenched within the Confucian value system through emphasis on relationalism, personalism and paternalism. The emphasis on relationalism, personalism and paternalism assists with the establishment of reciprocal and mutually beneficial interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers, founded on values such as respect, loyalty, benevolence and filial piety (Chen *et al.*, 2014). Harmony is maintained through the establishment of reciprocal relationships whereby, in line with social exchange theory, employees feel obligated to reciprocate their leaders' attempts to improve need satisfaction with desired employee behaviours – given the culturally endorsed sense of indebtedness (Chen *et al.*, 2014). The study conducted by Wang (2008: 928) in Chinese organisations found that “people with a high level of emotional bonds with both supervisor and their co-workers are more likely to feel the desire to work for the company”. Wong, Wong and Wong (2010) advocate that in order to establish good interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers it is important to have high levels of trust. Overall, if leaders in China engage in genuine initiatives to improve QWL, then employees

will have an ethical obligation to reciprocate by improving behaviour and attitudes (Hoare & Butcher, 2008; Peng *et al.*, 2001).

It has been highlighted in Section 2.4. that the high power distance indicative of what we can roughly call ‘Chinese culture’ is likely to result in leadership that is seldom withdrawn or diluted as a consequence of employee dissatisfaction (Blunt & Jones, 1997). The separation of leaders and followers is generally accepted both in society and organisations, which can be linked back to cultural values such as filial piety. Considering this, it seems appropriate to suggest that there is therefore little equality between leaders and subordinates (Seligman, 1999). What is important, again, is to understand that leaders set goals and prescribe goal attainment procedures. However, these decisions are not instilled in an authoritarian manner, rather, they are “carefully and humanely imposed” (Blunt & Jones, 1997: 13). This means that followers accept the authority of leaders and do not expect to themselves be leaders. Indeed, in order to maintain harmony by conforming to established social structures, followers may not often want to participate in the roles of leaders (Wu & Wang, 2012; Blunt & Jones, 1997).

Seligman (1999: 52) mentions how, despite high power distance, the typical Chinese leader is nevertheless “modest, even self-deprecating; he [sic] is moderate in habits, generous, and given to compromise and conciliation rather than direct confrontation”. To this extent, leaders can be expected to have integrity, to be honest and to exhibit propriety. Tsai (2011) found that several leadership style variables – ‘encouragement and support by leaders’, ‘trust and clear vision’, ‘consistent behaviour in this regard’ and ‘ability to convince subordinates to acknowledge that vision’ all significantly influences employee job satisfaction. Wu and Wang (2012) assert that leaders can evince greater levels of identification from subordinates through the clear and consistent articulation of an innovative and exciting strategy or vision. The premise being that, if employees can identify with the goals of a leader, then the subordinate is more likely to identify themselves with the said leader. Consequently, the subordinate can devote more energy towards attaining the vision with the understanding that goal attainment benefits both leaders and followers. Evidently, the interface between leadership and QWL is complex, dynamic and multifaceted and there are apparent paradoxes which exist, and these certainly complicate the understanding of these phenomena (Lau & May, 1998).

So, leaders who are more charismatic and who exhibit transformational leadership behaviours influence employee QWL by being sensitive to employee needs and by having the ability to motivate the said employees through need satisfaction (Wu & Wang, 2012). The link between transformational leadership behaviour on employee related outcomes such as QWL is thus encapsulated in the leader's positive effect on the job and organisational variables that enhance need satisfaction – relationally and through the meeting of employees other needs (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Koh, Steers & Terborg, 1995). To be sure, we can hypothesise that; when relationships between leaders and followers are not reciprocal or mutually beneficial, there is discord rather than harmony and that, as a result, QWL will be reduced both for leaders as well as followers. The notable and increasing focus on transformational leadership behaviour on employee outcomes in the Chinese context has been found by Wu and Wang (2012). They suggest that Confucianism assists the establishment of transformational leadership styles and transformational leaders are more likely to satisfy employee needs and improve employee performance (Warner, 2012). Consequently, it can be expected that leaders within Chinese organisations operating in South Africa are more likely to achieve higher levels of QWL through transformational behaviour which is sensitive to the cultural values of all employees.

Over and above the influence of the cultural variables on QWL (discussed in Section 3.6.2.), the paternalistic nature of leadership is a key influence on QWL in China (Gelfand *et al.*, 2007: 492). Western literature and research seems to indicate that paternalistic leadership is detrimental to QWL and that the perceived authoritarian nature of paternalistic leadership should be avoided (Chen *et al.*, 2014). Chen *et al.* (2014) contend that in developing countries, paternalistic leadership can in fact improve QWL and satisfaction levels through relationships between superiors and followers, whereby paternal care and protection is given to employees in return for loyalty, respect for authority, and conformity. On the one hand, Chinese employees prefer a centralised organisational structure and often feel insecure and a loss of 'face' when work demands greater participation or superiority (Peng *et al.*, 2001). On the other hand, Chen *et al.* (2011: 4) propose that "the emotions induced by transformational leaders could be directed toward both the leader and the organization as a whole. In contrast, the emotions induced by paternalistic leaders most likely remain at the interpersonal level, that is, toward the leaders who exercise the paternalistic leadership".

Organisational leaders in China apparently gain legitimacy in a different way to leaders in the west (Blunt & Jones, 1997). Western leaders are legitimised through leader performance and

support fostered from employees. As such there is a current focus in the west on “teamwork, empowerment, employee satisfaction and morale” (Blunt & Jones, 1997: 13). Chinese organisational leaders are also said to gain legitimacy through interpersonal relationships and non-utilitarian qualities in a leader (Lau & May, 1998). Moreover, legitimacy is to some extent inherently granted within the Chinese culture in that there is maintenance of harmony through social structures and prescribed behaviour. The value placed on relationships is thus the most important motivating factor in promoting organisational citizenship behaviour in a Chinese context (Hui *et al.*, 2004). This is supported by Wang (2008) who contends that the interpersonal relationships, between employees and leaders and between co-workers, play an instrumental role in building commitment and ensuring the subjective and psychological wellbeing of employees. Following from this, one has to heed a central recourse; if QWL improvements are desired, then organisational leaders in China ought to make a significant effort to actively satisfy employee social needs by attempting to establish interpersonal relationships with followers (Wu & Wang, 2012).

Relationships are still important in western organisations, however, within Chinese organisations relationships demonstrate a greater amount of personalism. Relationships between superiors and subordinates can be more intense and are likely to play a larger role in determining levels of satisfaction than in western countries (Hui *et al.*, 2004). The importance of relationships and of maintaining harmony through relationships is of differing importance to different employees since Chinese employees and leaders differ in the extent to which values are endorsed (Wu & Wang, 2012; Hui *et al.*, 2004). The arguments of Hui *et al.* (2004) and Wu and Wang (2012) can be linked with the discussion of personal or individual influences on QWL levels (discussed in Section 3.5.3.). While it is beyond the scope of this research to include an in depth look at personal influences on QWL, several demographic variables are included in the study which may offer insight into the component of personal influences on QWL levels within a Chinese cultural context (see Figure 3.2.).

4.6. SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the potential relationships between leadership style and level of QWL. Five broad areas of leadership pervasiveness were identified – job and need satisfaction, morale and wellbeing, employee commitment and organisational citizenship, motivation, and productivity (see Section 4.2.). Following this general exploration of the stated influence of leadership style on QWL, Section 4.3. explored the influence of transformational and transaction leadership on QWL. The chapter illustrated that transformational leadership is more likely to improve QWL levels than is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is expected to have a lesser positive influence on QWL in general. And so, different leadership styles are better suited to different situations and, as such, transactional leadership is at times likely to lead to greater need satisfaction. Lastly, the chapter explored the relationship between leadership style and QWL from a cultural orientation, looking specifically at the South African and Chinese context.

As a result of the literature Chapters Two, Three and Four exploring the research phenomena of the study, the researcher gathered and analysed data so as to answer the research questions. The research design and methodology will be discussed in the following Chapter, Five. The next chapter will discuss the research design and methodology adopted by this study in order to do justice to the purpose of this study, thereby attempting to meet its research objectives. The research design and methodology will present the ways in which the findings in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight were derived.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1. OVERVIEW

The previous chapter explored the relationship between leadership style (Chapter Two) QWL (Chapter Three). The design and methodology, discussed in this chapter, enabled the researcher to fulfil the primary research aim to explore the potential influences of leadership styles on QWL. By meeting this aim, this study will contribute to the understanding of the dynamics of Chinese organisations in South Africa and assist in creating greater intercultural synergy within these intercultural organisations (Chapter Four). Chapter Five begins by focusing on the definition and nature of research, research paradigms and research objectives. This is followed by an interrogation of research design and methodology as a whole as well as a deeper interrogation into data collection, data analysis, and qualitative quality criteria checks. Lastly, the ethical considerations of the research will be discussed.

5.2. DEFINITION OF RESEARCH

Research can be defined as the rigorous, objective and systematic process followed to find solutions to problems and to facilitate decision making (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010: 2; Hair *et al.*, 2007: 4; Zikmund, 2003: 5). The research process involves adopting appropriate, valid and reliable methodologies which enables a researcher to plan, collect, interpret and disseminate data. This scientific method is thus described as being formal, rigorous, verifiable and valid (Lundberg, 1942: 5, cited in Kumar, 2005: 7). ‘Business research’ is in general considered to exist within the social science category (Hair *et al.*, 2007: 5). Social research (distinguishable from pure research) seeks to understand phenomena within a social context and, generally, this relates to understanding human behaviour or interactions (Kumar, 2005: 7).

5.3. RESEARCH PARADIGMS

A ‘paradigm’ can be defined as the “process of scientific practice based on people’s philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge” (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 46). As such, in terms of research, paradigms are universally endorsed and dictate how research ought to be conducted in terms of assumptions pertaining to theories, methodologies and data interpretation. Research paradigms are useful in that they provide a

framework for a research undertaking and enable social scientists to understand phenomena through the associated assumptions pertaining to research (Creswell, 1994). Furthermore Remenyi (1996) contends that research paradigms assist to guarantee the integrity, reliability and replicability of a research study.

Within social sciences, two main paradigms emerge; ‘positivism’ and ‘phenomenologism’ (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 47; Welman & Kruger, 2001: 7). It has been argued that research paradigms exist in a continuum and that research seldom falls within a ‘pure’ form of one of the two extremes, which has resulted in a plethora of acceptable research assumptions (see Table 5.1.) (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Research paradigms are not a pure dichotomy and whereby the philosophy adopted when undertaking research may be derived from several paradigms such as “positivist, interpretive, phenomenolist, action or participatory, feminist, qualitative, quantitative – and the academic discipline in which you have been trained” (Kumar, 2005: 6). Table 5.1. below illustrates that there are major differences in the assumptions – ontology, epistemology, axiology, rhetoricality, and methodology – between the positivist and phenomenological research paradigms which are important to consider since the assumptions adopted tend to guide the research process (Berg & Lune, 2004; Creswell, 1994).

TABLE 5.1: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE PARADIGM ASSUMPTIONS

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological assumption	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological assumption	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological assumption	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Rhetorical assumption	What is the language of research?	Formal (rule based)	Informal (context based)
		Based on set definitions	Evolving decisions
		Impersonal voice	Personal voice
Methodological assumptions	What is the process of research?	Use of accepted quantitative words	Accepted qualitative words
		Deductive process	Inductive process
		Cause and effect	Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors
		Static design – categories isolated before study	Emerging design – categories identified during research process
		Context-free	Context-bound
		Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understanding	Patterns, theories developed for understanding
		Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Accurate and reliable through verification

(Source: Creswell, 1994: 5)

These differences in philosophical assumptions (in Table 5.1.) have resulted in many differences between the research produced in positivistic versus phenomenological

paradigms. Table 5.2. below highlights that positivistic and phenomenological research paradigms differ on several dimensions (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 47).

TABLE 5.2: FEATURES OF POSITIVISTIC AND PHENOMENOLOGICAL PARADIGMS

Positivistic paradigm	Phenomenological paradigm
Tends to produce quantitative data	Tends to produce qualitative data
Uses large samples	Uses small samples
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generating theories
Data are highly specific and precise	Data are rich and subjective
The location is artificial	The location is natural
Reliability is high	Reliability is low
Validity is low	Validity is high
Generalise from sample to population	Generalises from one setting to another

(Source: Collis & Hussey, 2003: 47)

While positivistic and phenomenological research paradigms have dominated research, alternative research paradigms have emerged over time, for example; social constructivism, postpositivism, post modernism, pragmatism, critical race and critical theory, queer paradigm, indigenous paradigm, feminist paradigm, disability paradigm and the subtle realist paradigm (Kumar, 2005). Of the aforementioned alternative research paradigms critical theory and hermeneutics where also suited to the specific nature of this study (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Critical theory, similar to the phenomenological paradigm, posits that reality is subjective and value-laden however further contends that research ought to be a platform to create social change (Welman & Kruger, 2001). The ethos of the paradigm calls for the overhaul of constructed social reality which potentially prevents the emergence an accurate understanding of the ‘truth’, and hinders growth and advancement (Bryman, 2012). In as much research should aim to interrogate accepted structures and arrangements so as to reconceptualise the ‘truth’ and challenge the status quo.

Hermeneutics and hermeneutical phenomenology research paradigms are qualitative research philosophies which focus on the interpretation of meaning from subjective data so as to draw

meaningful conclusions (Hair *et al.*, 2007). Hermeneutics and phenomenological hermeneutics have largely been adopted within the human or social sciences whereby a focus is given to the understanding of the contextual or latent influences to interpretation, for both the researcher and within data (Duncan-Hales, 2013). Examples of the influencing variables are location, history, language, and culture. The ‘elusive’ or non-prescriptive nature coupled with a high level of researcher influence on findings of hermeneutical philosophies and methodologies has been the predominant criticism to these research approaches (Bryman, 2012). Nevertheless the emphasis on subjective interpretation and search for more meaningful interpretations of the truth enables hermeneutics to bring to the fore intended or inherent meaning. In as much narrative analysis as opposed to content analysis is generally associated with this philosophy.

Critical theory is argued to be well suited to indigenous research as well as exploratory research whereby little pre-existing theoretical and conceptual understanding is present. While hermeneutical philosophy is well suited to the understanding of cultural influences. Nevertheless the researcher was of the belief that phenomenological assumptions which draw on relevant interpretivistic and contextual influences where appropriate was better suited to this study given that the study’s focus was not to explore the cultural context but rather to understand the employee and leader perceptions of the QWL and leadership style experienced and consequently the relationships between two phenomena taking into account the inter-cultural context (Duncan-Hales, 2013). As such hermeneutical techniques philosophies where drawn on so as to ensure an overall respect for contextual influence however the findings where aligned to a phenomenological interpretation through content analysis technique. A critical theory approach was seen to be beyond the time limitations of this study.

It is beyond the scope of this study to explore the extant of research pertaining to the various research paradigms that have emerged over time and in as much only the selected research paradigm of phenomenology will be further explored (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

5.3.1. Phenomenological paradigm

The phenomenological research paradigm is particularly concerned with the study and holistic understanding of phenomena (Remenyi, 1996). A ‘phenomenon’ is defined as “a fact or occurrence that appears or is perceived, especially one of which the cause is in question” (Allen, 1990, cited in Collis & Hussey, 2003: 53). Within the phenomenological paradigm, reality is not seen to be singular but is perceived as subjective in nature. In other words,

reality is a social construction and dependent on people's individualised and idiosyncratic perceptions (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Gronhaug, 2001). Given the assumptions of subjectivity, the purpose of phenomenological research is generally geared towards the meaning of social phenomenon as opposed to the measurement or frequency of the phenomena (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

Stemming from this perception of reality is the phenomenological research belief that the research process can influence the phenomena being researched and furthermore that the researcher is not independent from the phenomena being researched (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 53; Remenyi, 1996). Within business research a phenomenological philosophy attempts to understand the behaviour of individuals from the point of view of the individual participant (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 53).

5.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary research aim is to explore the potential influences of leadership styles on QWL. By meeting this aim, this study will contribute to the understanding of the dynamics of Chinese organisations in South Africa and assist in creating greater intercultural synergy within these intercultural organisations.

In order to achieve this research aim the following research objectives will be explored;

- To describe Chinese and South African definitions of leadership
- To discuss the dominant leadership style described by participants
- To describe Chinese and South African definitions of QWL
- To discuss the perceived QWL level described by participants
- To explore how leadership style influences QWL levels

The primary research aim and objective five is exploratory in nature (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 47), given the lack of established theory and research, particularly within the intercultural context (Harrison, 2005; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005). Objectives one to four are descriptive in that they aim to describe the definitions of leadership and QWL (objectives one and three) as well as to describe the dominant leadership style and the QWL level within the unit of analysis (objectives two and four) (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 47). Descriptive research aims to describe the characteristics of phenomena or the perceptions of a phenomenon (Kumar, 2005: 10; Zikmund, 2003: 55). Exploratory research is adopted for the purpose of theory

development where little systematic and generally accepted knowledge exists, or to ascertain the feasibility or appropriateness of researching particular problems in the future (Kumar, 2005: 10).

5.5. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design and methodology represents the ‘mode of inquiry’ or approaches to the research process (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 55; Zikmund, 2003: 65). The two main research methodology categories are ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative methodology’ (Kumar, 2005: 16).

5.5.1. Qualitative and quantitative research design

Qualitative research methodologies are commonly associated with the phenomenological or qualitative research paradigm. However, it is considered appropriate to conduct research with a positivist philosophy but a qualitative methodology, and *vice versa* (Creswell, 1994: 1). Table 5.3. below highlights the main differences between quantitative and qualitative modes of inquiry in terms of purpose and properties.

TABLE 5.3: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS

Description	Quantitative approach	Qualitative approach
Purpose	Collect quantitative data More useful for testing Provides summary information on many characteristics Useful in tracking trends	Collect qualitative data More useful for discovering Provides in-depth (deeper understanding) information on a few characteristics Discovers ‘hidden’ motivations and values
Properties	More structured data collection, techniques and objective ratings High concern for representativeness Emphasis on achieving reliability and validity of measures used Relatively short interviews (1 to 20 minutes) Interviewer questions directly but does not probe deeply Large samples (over 50) Results relatively objective	More unstructured data collection techniques requiring subjective interpretation Less concern for representativeness Emphasis on the trustworthiness of respondents Relatively long interviews (30 minutes to many hours) Interviewer actively probes and must be highly skilled Sample size (1-50) Results relatively subjective

(Source: Adapted from Hair *et al.*, 2007: 152)

Taking into account the lack of intercultural and indigenous research, a qualitative research methodology was chosen for this study given the rich and subjective data obtained and the need to develop rather than test theory (as shown in Table 5.3. above) (Hair *et al.*, 2007: 152). Figure 5.1. below illustrates the research methodologies often adopted when either a positivist or a phenomenological approach to social science is taken (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 60).

FIGURE 5.1: METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES ASSOCIATED WITH THE MAIN PARADIGMS

Positivistic	APPROACH TO SOCIAL SCIENCES	Phenomenological
<i>Associated methodologies</i>		<i>Associated methodologies</i>
Cross-sectional studies		Action research
Experimental studies		Case studies
Longitudinal studies		Ethnography
Surveys		Feminist perspective
		Grounded theory
		Hermeneutics
		Participative enquiry

(Source: Collis & Hussey, 2003: 60)

This study focuses on contemporary phenomenon, particularly given the boundary condition of intercultural organisational behaviour in South Africa. As such, this research is well suited to a case study approach for data collection (Remenyi, 2012: 10; Yin, 2009).

5.5.2. Case study research design

While case studies are often described as exploratory in nature, Collis and Hussey (2003: 68) highlight that case studies can also be descriptive, illustrative, experimental and explanatory. Yin (2009: 35) adds that an important aspect of case study research design is the development or testing of theory. This is achieved in that case studies, when conducted thoroughly, produce in-depth and detailed data with rich descriptions which finds patterns often overlooked by other methodologies (Table 5.4. below). An important prerequisite for a useful case study is the unit of analysis chosen and the context which is representative of other cases of the same type (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010: 30). Without this assumption, the knowledge created is not relevant to theory development. Nor, for that matter, can the results and findings be generalised beyond the case (Kumar, 2005: 113; Zikmund, 2003: 116). The findings and conclusions of this study that emerge will only be considered generalisable in terms of the context in which the findings are generated. However, the recommendations and conclusions drawn may serve as guiding principles for the consideration of similar case organisations as well as for the generation of generally applicable theories (Yin, 2009: 14).

TABLE 5.4: DEFINITION OF CASE STUDY RESEARCH

AUTHORS		COMPONENTS			
	Qualitative	Single unit of analysis	Bounded by context	Bounded by time	In-depth
Creswell (1994)		√		√	√
Welman & Kruger (2001)		√		√	√
Collis & Hussey (2003)	√	√	√	√	√
Zikmund (2003)		√			√
Kumar (2005)		√			√
Hair <i>et al.</i> (2007)		√	√		√
Dul & Hak (2008)	√	√	√	√	√
Yin (2009)			√		√
Sekaran & Bougie (2010)	√		√		√
Remenyi (2012)	√		√	√	√

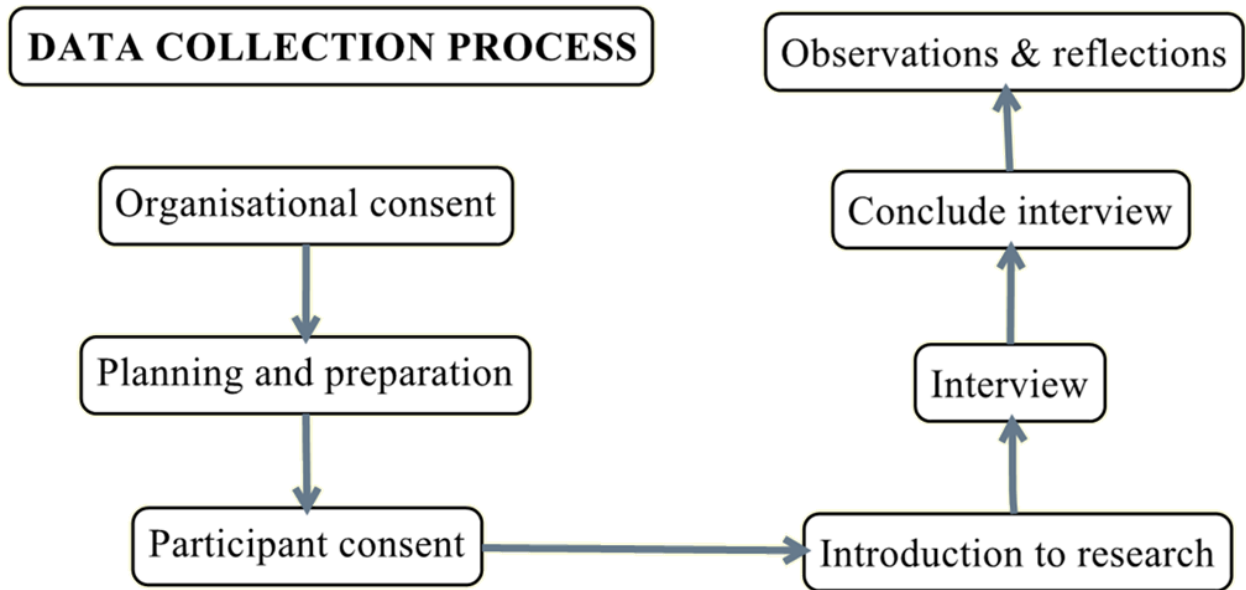
(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

A comparative design was beyond the scope of the study whereby the value added from a multiple case study approach is offset by the additional resources and time required given that the exploratory research design requires detailed data and findings (Remenyi, 2012: 22). There is great variation in intercultural contexts within an organisation and therefore a multiple case study design could be extremely complex (Bräutigam, 2009; Yin, 2009: 14). Space and time limitations preclude the researcher's going into detail, suffice to say that chosen methodology is adequately consistent with the complexity of the unit of analysis.

5.6. DATA COLLECTION

The data collection design elements, which are discussed further, include the sample and the sampling technique (discussed in Section 5.6.1.), and the data collection methods (discussed in Section 5.6.2.). Figure 5.2. illustrates the overall data collection process followed.

FIGURE 5.2: THE DATA COLLECTION PROCESS



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

5.6.1. Sample and sampling technique

It is impractical and costly to study the population, and so a representative sample is studied instead (within the research constraints). Furthermore, the findings drawn are generalised to the population (Kumar, 2005: 23; Welman & Kruger, 2001: 46). Sampling techniques can be broadly broken into 'probability' and 'non-probability sampling' (Hair *et al.*, 2007; Zikmund, 2003: 71). The population of this study is Chinese organisations in South Africa and, for this reason, non-probability sampling was adopted (Kumar, 2005: 178).

The unit of analysis is a mining organisation, referred to as Organisation ABC, determined through 'purposive sampling' in that the organisation needed to provide a Chinese and South African intercultural environment. A database of Chinese organisations operating in South Africa was created, and a contact list of appropriate organisations was used by the researcher to request participation in the research. The unit of observation or sample included willing employees of organisation ABC within the executive, skilled, and semi-skilled employment codes. Purposive sampling was the specific sampling technique used to determine the unit of observation. This method lends itself to the selection of appropriate participants (Dul & Hak, 2008: 47).

5.6.1.1. Description of the organisation

Organisation ABC is a joint venture between a Chinese state-owned enterprise (Group XYZ) and a South African organisation (Group DEF), each of which holds a 50% stake in the ABC venture. ABC organisation operates within the mining and minerals industry, the core business being the production of chrome and ferrochrome. The head office is based in the Gauteng province and the mining operation is in the Mpumalanga Province.

5.6.1.2. Description of the participants

TABLE 5.5: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF PARTICIPANTS

Code number	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Education	Employment code	Years of tenure	Stay in SA (years)
1 C-L	37	M	CH	Phd	E	8	8
2 C-R	35	M	CH	PGM	E	1.4	8
3 C-R	32	M	CH	Ba (PGH)	E	2	2
4 S-L	39	M	W	PG	E	2	
5 S-L	33	M	W	PGH	DU	3.5	
6 S-R	28	F	W	PGH	DL	5	
7 S-L	39	M	B	PGH	DU	1.5	
8 S-R	43	M	B	B, D	DL	4	
9 S-R	28	M	B	Ba	CU	3.8	
10 S-L	48	M	B	D	CU	26	
11 S-L	25	F	C	Ba	CU	0.7	
12 S-L	40	M	W	D	DL	20	
13 S-R	40	F	W	Ba, AD	CL	10	
14 S-R	64	F	W	D	CU	36	
15 S-R	29	F	B	No data	DL	6.2	
16 S-L	35	F	B	B	DL	6	

Notes. S-L= South African Leader; C-L= Chinese leader; S-R= South African leader-rater; C-R= Chinese leader-rater; M= Male; F=Female; W= White; B= Black; C= Coloured; CH= Chinese; PG= Post graduate degree (unspecified); Phd= Doctor of philosophy; PGH= Post graduate honors degree; PGM= Post graduate masters degree; Ba (PGH)= Bachelor degree in China *; Ba= Bachelors degree; AD= Advanced diploma; D= Diploma

*A bachelor's degree in China is equivalent to a post graduate honors degree in South Africa

Only employees within employment codes C (skilled employees) to E (executive or senior management) would be included in the study. In total, sixteen interviews were scheduled, the time for each interview period was one hour. In summary the sample included;

- Three employees at headquarters
- Six employees at the mining operation (office environment)
- Seven employees at the mining operation (plant or lab environment)

Code numbers were assigned to the participants which indicate: the ascending order in which the interviews were conducted (1-16), whether the participant was South African (S) or Chinese (C) and, lastly, whether the participant answered questions from the perspective of the leader (L) or leader-rater (R).

5.6.2. Data collection methods

The primary data was collected through interviews and researcher observations while the secondary data analysis technique was made up of document analysis. The main data collection technique consisted of interviews and the supporting data collection techniques included observations and reflections, in addition to document analysis.

5.6.2.1. Interviews

Interviews are a formal data collection technique, involving personal one-on-one contact between the researcher and knowledgeable informants, commonly used to gather verbal data from human subjects (Remenyi, 2013: 1; Kumar, 2005: 123). Interviews can be ‘structured’ – a rigid design where the interview is precisely planned and organised into an interview schedule. Alternatively, they can be ‘unstructured’, where the interview guide can be adapted during the interview (Kumar, 2005: 123). The construction of interview questions may be required – either wholly or in part, through adapting of existing instruments (Turner, 2010: 757).

One interview guide was used for all of the interviews conducted, which was adaptable to Chinese and South African leaders and leader-raters. The research questions pertaining to leadership style and QWL were adapted from two theoretical frameworks, namely, leadership questions from Bass and Avolio’s (1997) FRLM (discussed in Section 2.6.2.) and QWL questions from Sirgy *et al.*’s (2001) QWL framework (discussed in Section 3.7.8.).

The interview guide comprised of three sections; A: six biographical questions for all participants, an additional question for Chinese participants, and one observation, B: 12 leadership style questions, and C: 13 QWL questions. While the questions were focused, they were also open-ended so that maximum relevant and useful data was obtained (Turner, 2010: 757). The questions were structured into segments and were variable focused so as to form a frame of analysis.

Firstly, the researcher explained the research study and interview process thereby establishing informed consent (see Figure 5.2.). The participants were asked to participate willingly and were informed of their rights as participants both verbally and in writing (Appendix C). Fifteen of the sixteen interviews were recorded and detailed notes of the non-recorded interview were taken. The interviews were on average 38 minutes long.

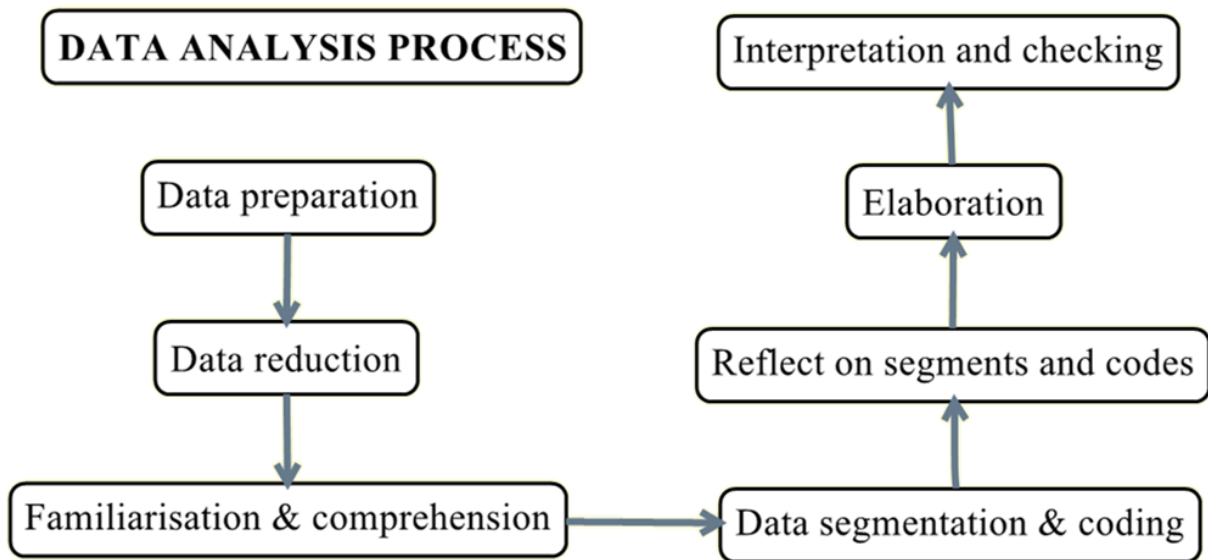
5.6.2.2. Supporting data collection techniques

Two supporting data collection methods were used – observations and reflections, and documents. The supporting data collection techniques were used by the researcher to enhance the quality and integrity of the data collection and analysis. The researcher made observations and noted the working environment, participants and the general interview process. The researcher also made reflections at the end of each interview, and at the end of the day. These observations and reflections pertained to the answering of the research objectives, as well as to the research design and methodology. This was done in order to add meaning to the research findings and to refine the researcher's skills. In this context, documents refer to secondary data not created for the researcher or by the researcher but exist separate to the research endeavour (Bryman, 2012: 543). The company supplied an employee breakdown of the mining operation. Prior to the interviews, the financial statements, websites and trending articles on Organisation ABC, Group XYZ, and Group DEF were explored.

5.7. DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of data analysis is to seek answers to the stated research problem by transforming the raw data collected into meaningful and useful information (Remenyi, 2012: 106; Kumar, 2005: 220). The data analysis process followed by the researcher was formulated by comparing and contrasting various models, taking into account the nature and design of the research and the purpose of the research (Figure 5.3.).

FIGURE 5.3: DATA ANALYSIS PROCESS



(Source: Researcher's own compilation).

5.7.1. Data preparation

All interviews and field notes were transcribed. The content alone was included and the unnecessary information that did not assist in answering the research objectives, such as the explanation of the study, was omitted. All interview transcripts were checked for accuracy. Secondly, the data was checked for reliability and validity so as to ensure quality findings and conclusions (see Section 5.8.).

5.7.2. Content analysis

Content analysis assigns codes to data in an objective, systematic and replicable manner and in so doing, reduces and adds meaning to the data (Bryman, 2012). Content analysis is advantageous as it is a 'transparent' and flexible method, well suited to large data sets containing rich and subjective descriptions and perceptions (Bryman, 2012: 305). Linking to the continuous and dynamic nature of qualitative data analysis, Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 373) contend that the coding process is 'iterative', meaning data is repeatedly referred back to as the understanding or ideas of the researched phenomenon develops. All content analysis was done manually, except for quantifications for which Microsoft Excel was used.

Three broad approaches to content analysis can be identified – conventional content analysis (codes derived inductively without predetermined coding frame), directed content analysis (codes derived deductively from theory and frameworks), and a summative content analysis

which “involves counting and comparisons, usually of keywords or content, followed by the interpretation of the underlying context” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005: 1277). According to Elo and Kyngäs (2008: 109) the choice between inductive and deductive content analysis ought to depend on the nature of the problem under investigation. It should be noted that quantification here does not aim to infer meaning, rather it aims to identify usage or frequency. In this way, it highlights the potential universalities of the phenomena of study (Wojnar & Swanson, 2007: 174). Weighted scores (X_w) were calculated as $X_w = X/w$, where X is the un-weighted score and W is the factor weighting. Frequency refers to the frequency of occurrence unless otherwise stated, calculated through a process of counting. Frequency distributions were calculated using the relative frequency (f_i) calculation of $f_i = \frac{f}{n}$ where f is the absolute frequency and n is the total number of observations. The percentage frequency (f_p) was then calculated by $f_p = f_i \times 100$. All mean scores ($\bar{x}$) were calculated as arithmetic mean scores. The expected value of QWL ($E\bar{x}$) was calculated using mean scores ($\bar{x}$) whereby $E\bar{x} = \sum \bar{x}/n$, and n is the number of mean values.

Meaning in context is arguably a qualitative quality research criterion, which pertains to data analysis and interpretation within the holistic (physical, cultural, social, symbolic) context (Christiansen & Dahl, 2005: 97). Biographical indicators of the research sample were analysed and included in the beginning of the individual coding sheets and accompanied all quotations within the findings chapters to gain meaning in context (Exhibit 5.1.). The importance of meaning in context is of particular importance given the intercultural approach to this study.

EXHIBIT 5.1: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Code number	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Education	Employment code	Years of tenure	Stay in RSA (years)
4 S-L	39	M	W	PG	E	24	N/A

5.7.2.1. Description of the content analysis process

A first, the level of inductive content analysis was conducted on each interview transcript to aid in familiarisation, comprehension and immersion (Exhibit 5.2.). A coding sheet (see Appendix C) was created which sectionalised and segmented the data, thus creating a frame of analysis.

EXHIBIT 5.2: INDIVIDUAL CODING SHEET

Segment	Quotes and pages	Keys
Leadership section		
1. Definition	“My opinion of leadership is to motivate and encourage and coordinate your team to get the best possible performance from them” (1) “It is to develop your guys, they need to, they need to enjoy their work and, you know, give them the responsibility and accountability to do what they have to do in the department” (1)	• Motivate • Encourage • Coordinate team • Best performance • Develop • Employees enjoy work • Departmental responsibility and accountability

The exhibit is an excerpt from the leadership section pertaining to the definition segment, illustrating the first level of analysis, i.e. ‘individual quotes and keys’. Following this, the researcher analysed the data in terms of ‘cluster quotes and keys’ so as to achieve the research objectives. The second level of textual content analysis method and technique differed across the research objectives, given the nature of the objective. The second level of content analysis will now be discussed per research objective given that they differ.

Objective one

The individual codes and keys were analysed in terms of Chinese and South African, and leader and leader-rater clusters for the definition of leadership and effective leadership. To determine dominant codes for the South African cluster, the threshold frequency was three and for the Chinese cluster, two. The threshold was reduced for the Chinese participants given that there were fewer Chinese participants. Given the small Chinese sample, the comprehensive codes for the Chinese QWL definition also included codes common both to the Chinese and South African clusters and the codes substantiated by literature.

Objective two

The second level of content analysis consisted of assigning deductive codes to the responses of each participant. The codes used were the nine leadership style dimensions as per the Bass and Avolio (1997) framework (example in Exhibit 5.3). The described absence of a leadership style was indicated with the prefix ‘not’.

EXHIBIT 5.3: INDIVIDUAL CODING SHEET FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE

Segment	Quotes and pages	Inductive keys	Deductive keys
Leadership section			
2. Definition	“My opinion of leadership is to motivate and encourage and coordinate your team to get the best possible performance from them” (1)	• Motivate • Encourage • Coordinate team • Best performance from employees	• Inspirational motivation

Thereafter, the frequency of the leadership codes per participant were calculated. All of the ‘absent’ leadership codes were assigned a numerical value of -1 and ‘present’ codes a value of 1. The frequency scores for the three leadership styles – transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire* – were calculated by summing the leadership dimension scored within that leadership style per participant. Weighted scores were then calculated per participant – transformational leadership scores were weighted by a factor of five, transactional by a factor of three and *laissez-faire* by a factor of one. Frequency scores do not indicate potency across participants. Instead, they highlight the dominant leadership style that is described per participant. The weighted leadership scores were used to determine which leadership style is dominant per participant, and not to rank the extent to which each participant described the leadership styles.

Mean frequency scores showed the distribution of the dominant leadership style described for the total sample as well as in terms of Chinese and South African, and leaders and leader-

raters clusters. The arithmetic mean calculations aided the researcher to determine patterns and trends in the findings and thereby to better describe the dominant leadership style.

Objective three

To answer research objective three the inductive codes from first level of content analysis for each were grouped into Chinese and South African, and leader and leader-rater clusters. The frequency threshold for both South African and Chinese clusters to determine dominant codes was two. Given the small Chinese sample, the comprehensive codes for the Chinese QWL definition also included codes common both to the Chinese and South African clusters and the codes substantiated by literature.

Objective four

The themes for QWL levels were arrived at deductively and are equivalent to the seven need dimensions of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) QWL model (discussed in Section 3.7.8.). The second level of content analysis consisted of assigning a level of satisfaction to each of the need dimensions using a four point Lickert scale – satisfied, partly satisfied, partly unsatisfied, and unsatisfied – or stating that the participant did not have that need – not relevant – for each participant. Four response categories were selected for equal intervals and appropriateness for the sample size of 16 (Lindeberg, 1998; Spector, 1976: 374).

The level of satisfaction coding key was converted into a numerical key whereby satisfied= 2, partly satisfied= 1, not relevant= 0, partly unsatisfied= -1, and unsatisfied= -2. Arithmetic mean scores for the seven need dimensions were calculated (for the whole sample as well as for the Chinese and South African clusters) and were used to calculate the expected value of QWL. The mean scores were interpreted as; in general more satisfied ($\bar{x} > 1$), partly satisfied ($0 < \bar{x} < 1$), partly unsatisfied ($0 < \bar{x} < -1$), or unsatisfied ($\bar{x} < -1$) with a need or the need is not relevant ($\bar{x} = 0$). The antecedents to QWL were determined through analysis of the ‘individual quotes and keys’ with a threshold frequency for dominance of seven

Objective five

The last research objective was met by cross-tabulating the leadership and QWL findings to determine whether patterns between the dominant leadership style and level of QWL described by each participant could be seen in the sample or clusters thereof. The cross-tabulation findings used to calculate the percentage distribution across the sample and

clusters. The findings were interrogated and substantiated using the quotes, literature and findings from Chapters Six and Seven.

5.8. QUALITATIVE QUALITY CRITERIA

Qualitative research has been criticised as being a weak, non-scientific form of research relative to quantitative research (Hair *et al.*, 2007). However quantifying phenomena does not ensure quality research but rather a “careful, thoughtful, knowledgeable approach whether qualitative or quantitative research methods are used” (Hair *et al.*, 2007: 288).

5.8.1. Reliability and dependability

Reliability is pertinent because if there is no regularity in whatever phenomenon is being researched, then it is questionable whether something relevant and meaningful is in fact being researched (Silverman, 2010; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). Reliability, in terms of qualitative research, is thought to pertain more to dependability in contemporary studies (Silverman, 2010). In terms of dependability, research needs to be replicable and consistent findings ought to emerge in different cases or contexts (Lichtman, 2014: 386-387). The dependability of this study is enhanced, given the detailed description of the design and methodology, the number of interviews (n=16) and a single case study design that make the study a feasible one to replicate. The interview guide and methodology processes act as an audit trail, contributing to the likelihood of consistent data across participants and studies. Findings were interrogated against existing theory and research. However, the nature of an intercultural single case study is unlikely to result in perfectly consistent findings given the context-dependent nature of leadership style and QWL. Dependability is also enhanced by objectivity. The two levels of data analysis improve rigour and dependability. The transcripts were checked for accuracy and completeness and findings were checked against the transcripts.

Two frameworks were utilized throughout the research process – Bass and Avolio’s (1997) FRLM (discussed in Section 2.6.2.) and from Sirgy *et al.* (2001) QWL framework (discussed in Section 3.7.8.). The FRLDM was found to be valid and reliable in western (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2008; Kirkbride, 2006; Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1997), South African (Page, 2011; Hayward, Amos & Baxter, 2008; Hall & Maritz, 1997) and eastern (Leong & Fischer, 2011; Tsai *et al.*, 2011; Yang *et al.*, 2011; Koh *et al.*, 1995) contexts. The validity and reliability of the MLQ was confirmed

using a six month test-retest, which was conducted by Bass and Avolio (1997). The studies conducted by Botha (2001) and Ristow (1998) found that the MLQ was not a reliable measure of transactional leadership in South Africa. More recently, in South Africa, Page (2011) found that all of the FRLDM dimensions were good or acceptable, except for ‘MBE (passive)’. In Singapore, five of the nine MLQ leadership styles were found to be significant after construct validity tests (Koh *et al.*, 1995). It was found by Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler and Shi (2004) through confirmatory factor analysis that the MLQ instrument was both valid and reliable and that there was measurement equivalence between Chinese and Indian research samples. Apart from the FRLDT, a few other leadership models have been found to be valid and reliable both globally as well as in the South African and Chinese intercultural context. For this reason, it seemed appropriate that the FRLDT inform this context specific research process.

Sirgy *et al.* (2001) rigorously validated the proposed model, using three different research samples and relevant statistical tests. Efraty, Sirgy and Siegel (2000) assisted in the refinement of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model which was further validated by Kara *et al.* (2013) and Lee *et al.* (2007) who determined high predictive validity. Despite the proven validity, Sirgy *et al.* (2001) suggest that the model needs to be tested in different contexts. Afsar and Burcu (2013) found a high internal reliability and only health and safety and social need dimensions were found to have relatively low reliability. The researcher explored the literature pertaining to antecedents of QWL so as to further interrogate the appropriateness of the model and highlight potential QWL antecedents or dimensions not included in the framework.

5.8.2. Validity, transferability, and credibility

Internal validity can be likened to the credibility or trustworthiness of the research (Laura, 1991). Credibility thus “establishes confidence in the findings” and builds trust with research participants (Mayer, 2008: 105). Definitions of leadership style and QWL were obtained so as to ensure alignment between the way participants and the researcher perceived the research phenomena. The researcher was immersed in the data having conducted the interviews at the head office and mining operation as well as conducting the data analysis manually. The interview guide and subsequent frame of analysis was based on valid and reliable frameworks and was reviewed by the research supervisor and an independent expert researcher. The researcher made use of probing questions, where appropriate, to ensure that the participants’

answers where clear, meaningful and on topic (Boyce & Neale, 2006: 6). The interview transcripts were all checked and field notes used (as mentioned in methodology) to aid accurate analysis. Findings were based on persistent observations (high frequency of occurrence) and ‘thick’ descriptions.

Transferability, otherwise known as generalisability, can be likened to external validity (Lichtman, 2014: 386-387). Transferability was established through a detailed description of the design and methodology both in theory as and as adopted by this study, allowing for accurate interpretation and replication of findings.

5.8.3. Objectivity and confirmability

Confirmability can be likened to objectivity and refers to the “degree to which results could be confirmed or corroborated by others” (Lichtman, 2014: 386-387). In other words, the research findings can be confirmed when the study is replicated in different settings or against previous research or literature developments (Laura, 1991). The detailed methodology presents a detailed design and methodology and aids in the verification of findings. Objectivity was maintained by reducing researcher bias throughout the data collection and content analysis process, so as to provide an honest representation of theory and provide sound findings (Berg & Lune, 2004). Confirmability was also achieved in part through researcher immersion in the theory and data to ensure clear conceptualisation of research constructs and the reality of the social context of the case study.

5.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Lichtman (2014), there are several guiding principles that ethical researchers need to take into account. These include; do no harm to participants, respect the privacy and anonymity of participants, ensure confidentiality, getting informed consent, truthfulness and accuracy in interpreting and reporting data, building rapport and friendship, avoid intrusiveness in terms of space, time and personal lives and avoiding inappropriate behaviour. Mayer (2008: 110) asserts that respecting the rights of participants is a vital ethical consideration which relates to informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, and transparency. All of these ethical considerations can be seen to be achieved by the researcher, who gained informed consent from the participating organisation and interview participants.

Anonymity was assured by removing all names and assigning a pseudonym name to the organisation and a participant identification key, and ensuring that organisational or

participant identification variables were minimised that could also be used to identify participants (for example job titles) were listed separately thereby rendering them useless to identifying participants. Accuracy and truthfulness were ensured, and confidentiality protected. The purpose of the study and the research group and what the data would be used for were discussed, and thereafter all questions were answered to ensure transparency, informed consent and rapport. The data was prepared, analysed and interpreted in an ethically aware manner attempting to always uphold the qualitative quality criterion. All participant requests – within reason – were considered, for example participant 11 S-L did not wish to be recorded.

5.11. SUMMARY

This chapter has explored the research design and methodology of the overall study, as well as the associated assumptions and philosophies that underpin the study. The chapter explored theory as well as the design and methodology of this specific study. Overall Chapter Five has looked at the definition and nature of research in Section 5.2., research paradigms and the associated assumptions and implications in Section 5.3. (particularly the phenomenological paradigm adopted in this study), research objectives in Section 5.4. Following from this Section 5.5. focused on design and methodology – the qualitative research design adopting a case study approach. Thereafter, the data collection and data analysis processes were explored. Lastly the goodness and soundness of the research was explored in terms of selected qualitative quality criteria (Section 5.8.). The ethical considerations of the research were also explored (Section 5.9.).

Chapter Six, Seven, and Eight will now present the research findings and discussion pertaining to leadership style, QWL, and the potential relationships between leadership style and QWL respectively. These findings chapters were derived according to the philosophy and research design and methodology presented in Chapter Five.

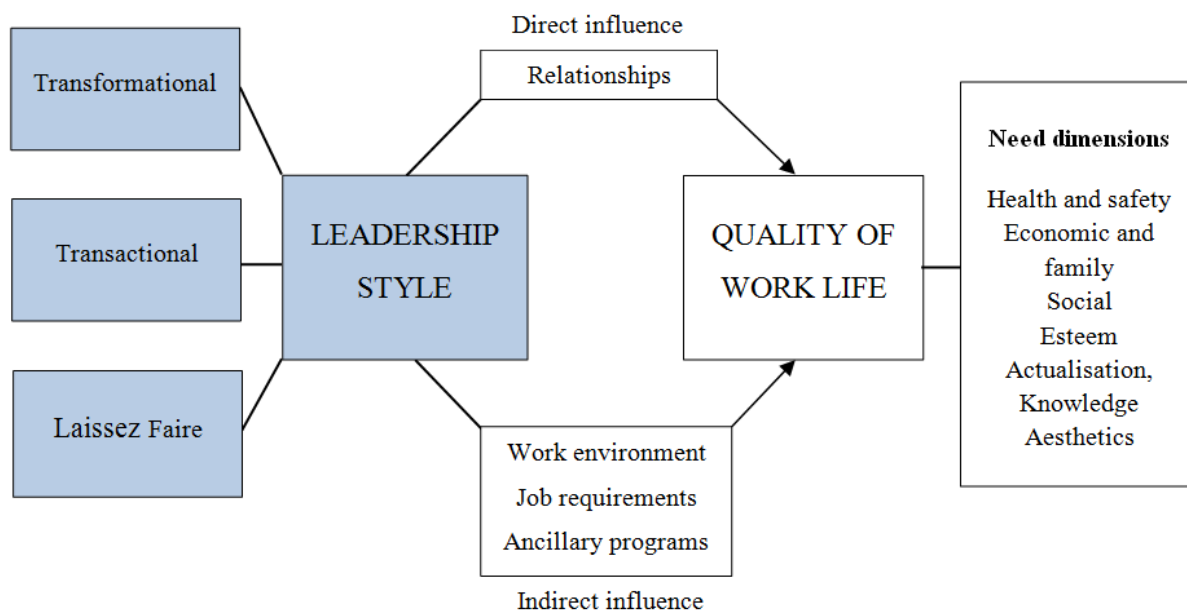
CHAPTER SIX

LEADERSHIP STYLE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter will present and discuss the findings related to leadership style. Section 6.2. will provide an overview of the biographical indicators of the sample to contextualise the findings. Indigenous definitions of leadership will be presented (Section 6.3.) and Section 6.4. will describe the dominant leadership styles, thus giving effect to objectives one and two. The three findings and discussion chapters will be summarised in terms of key findings (in Sections 6.5., 7.4. and 8.3. respectively) so as to form the basis of the conclusions and recommendations (Chapter Nine). Figure 6.1. below illustrates the overall study, and highlights the research construct that the findings of this chapter pertain to.

FIGURE 6.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

Findings will be substantiated with literature, research and quotations. Quotations in italics are verbatim while square brackets illustrate text added to improve understanding and coherence. Biographical data will accompany all quotations for meaning in context (Exhibit 6.1.)

EXHIBIT 6.1: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA ACCOMPANYING QUOTATIONS

Code number	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Education	Employment code	Years of tenure	Stay in SA (years)
-------------	-----	--------	-----------	-----------	-----------------	-----------------	--------------------

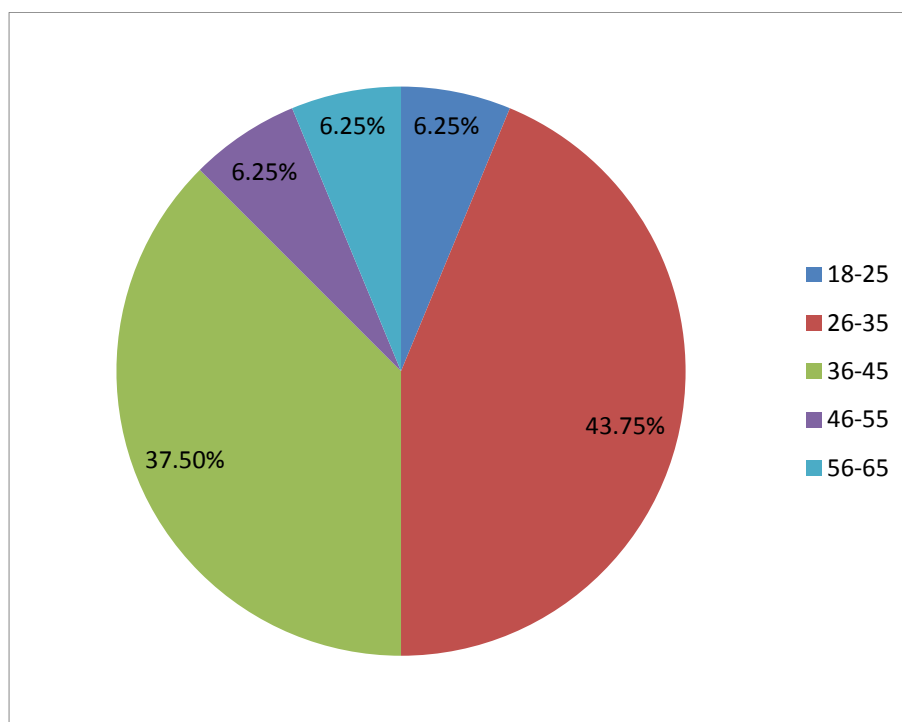
6.2. BIOGRAPHICAL DATA INDICATORS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

This section will present descriptive statistics of selected biographical data indicators. The raw data pertaining to this biographical information can be found in Table 5.5.

6.2.1. Distribution of age

The average age was 37.19 years (n=16). Within the research sample 6.25% (n=1) of participants were between the ages of 18 and 25, 43.75% (n=7) between the ages of 26 and 35, 37.5% (n=6) between the ages of 36 and 45, 6.25% (n=1) between the ages of 46 and 55, and 6.25% (n=1) between the ages of 56 and 65. This distribution (as seen in Figure 6.2.) is skewed towards the age category of 26 to 45, this can be expected given the age of retirement of 65 years. As such the spread is not even, but is nevertheless representative of the South African labour market.

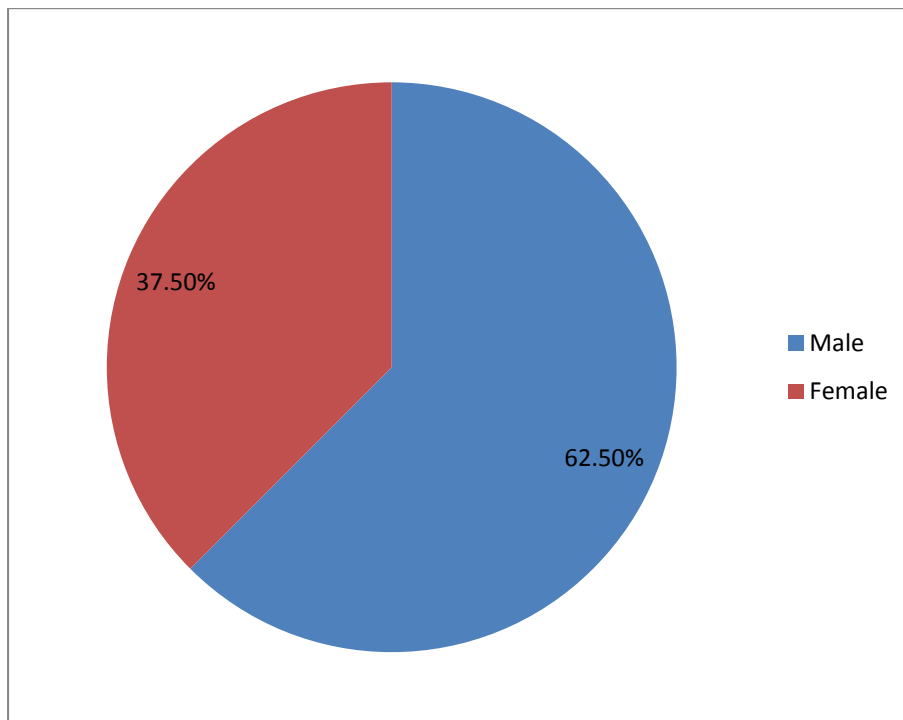
FIGURE 6.2: DISTRIBUTION OF AGE



6.2.2. Distribution of gender

Gender as opposed to sex was used, the research sample was 37.5% (n=6) female and 62.5% (n=10) male (as seen in Figure 6.3.) This is appropriate given the mining industry and the participating organisation is male dominated.

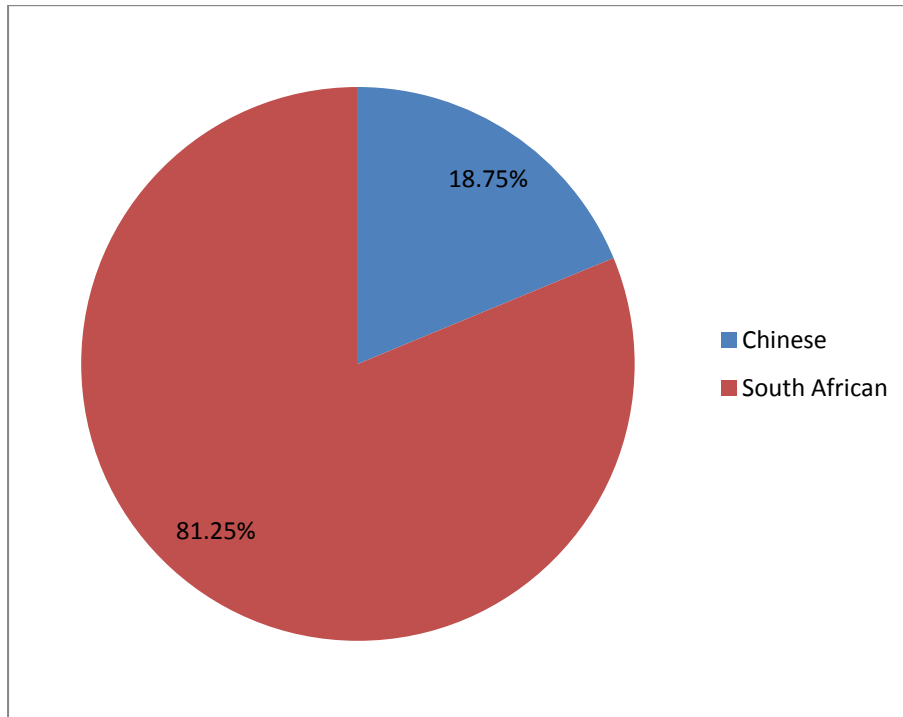
FIGURE 6.3: DISTRIBUTION OF GENDER



6.2.3. Distribution of nationality

The research sample was 18.75% (n=3) Chinese and 81.25% (n=13) South African (Figure 6.4.). A larger sample of Chinese participants was not possible given that few Chinese employees are in the joint venture.

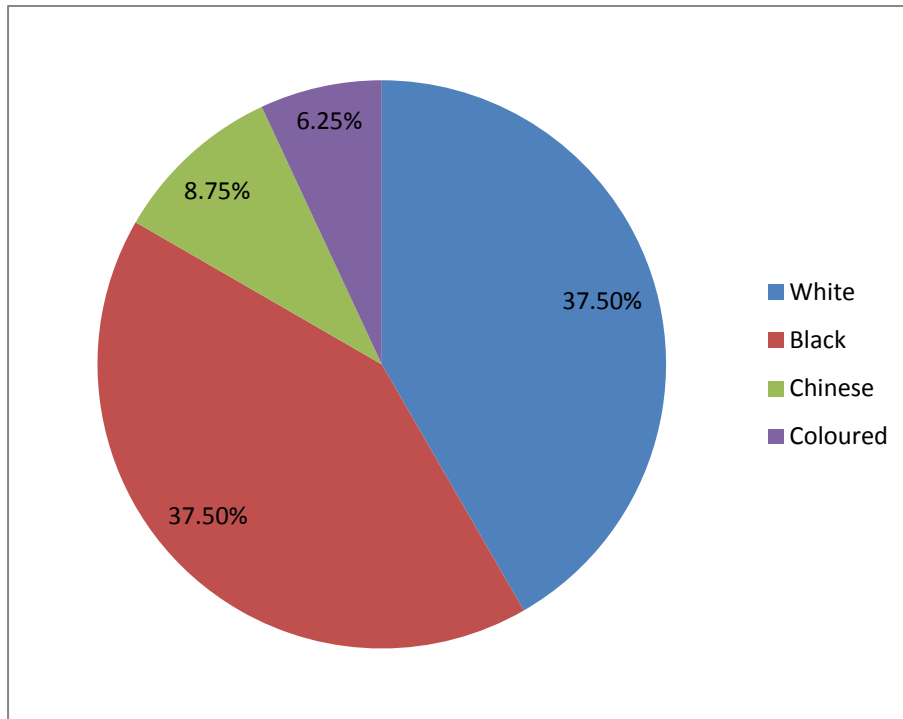
FIGURE 6.4: DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONALITY



6.2.4. Distribution of ethnicity

Within the sample 37.5% (n=6) of participants are white, 37.5% (n=6) are black, 8.75% (n=3) are Chinese, and 6.25% (n=1) are coloured (as seen in Figure 6.5.) (in Table 5.5.).

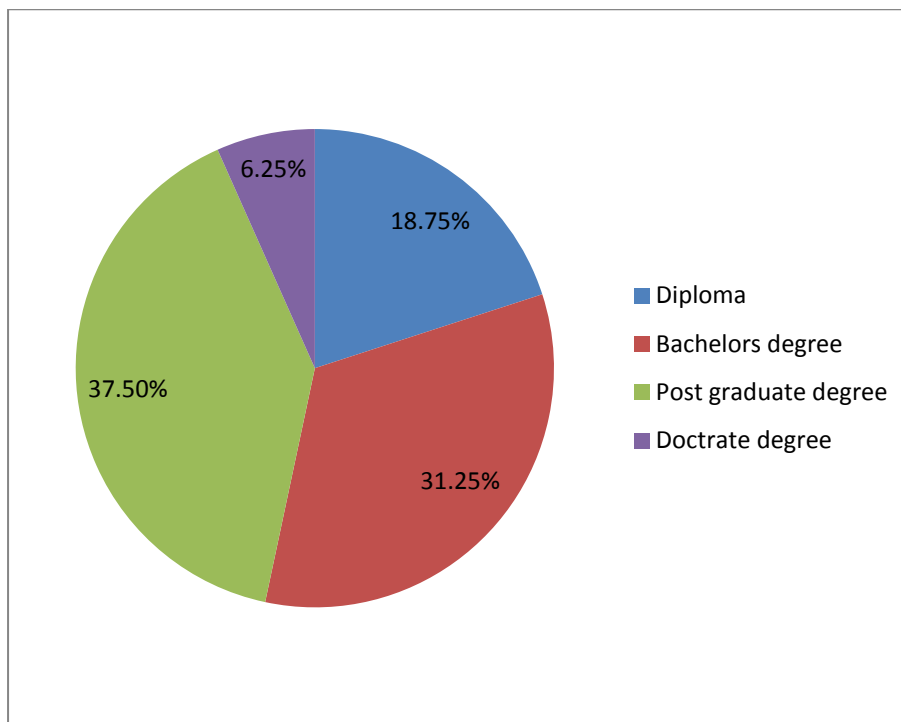
FIGURE 6.5: DISTRIBUTION OF ETHNICITY



6.2.5. Distribution of education

The education systems are different in China and South Africa. For instance, an honours degree in China forms part of a bachelors degree, and this has been accounted for. The sample can be described as well-educated with all participants (n=15) having a diploma or a degree as their highest level of education. This can be expected, given that all the participants are at least skilled employees (see Section 5.6.1.). In the research sample, 18.75% (n=3) had a diploma as their highest level of education, 31.25% (n=5) had a bachelors degree, 37.5% (n=6) had a post graduate degree (honours or masters), and 6.25% (n=1) had a doctorate degree (see Figure 6.6.).

FIGURE 6.6: DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION

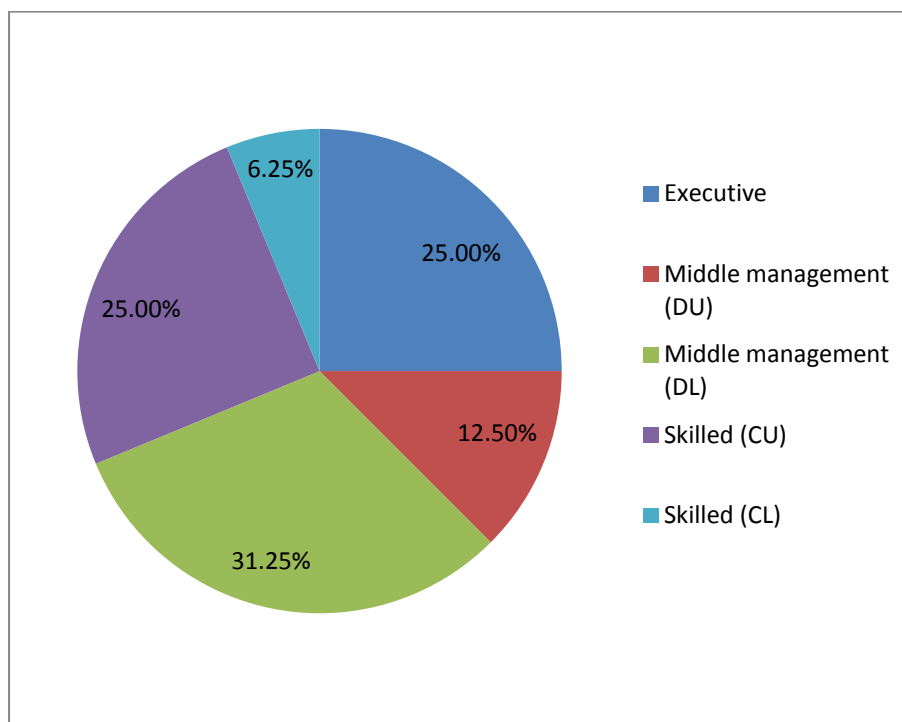


6.2.6. Distribution of position in the organisation and employment levels

The positions of the research participants have been separated from other participant data to protect anonymity and are listed alphabetically: Buyer, Employee Representative and Practitioner, Financial Controller, General Manager, Human Resources Specialist and Acting Human Resources Supervisor, Human Resources Development Specialist, Laboratory Specialist, Learning Engineer, Logistics Manager, Managing Director, Organisation ABC Specialist, Practitioner for Internal Development and Corporate Social Investment, Production Superintendent, Production Superintendent, Specialist, and Supervisor.

The employment levels of these positions, as indicated by employment codes, were distributed as follows; senior management 25% (n=4), middle management (upper) 12.5% (n=2), middle management (lower) 31.25% (n=5), skilled employees (upper) 25% (n=4), skilled employees (lower) 6.25% (n=1) (see Figure 6.7.).

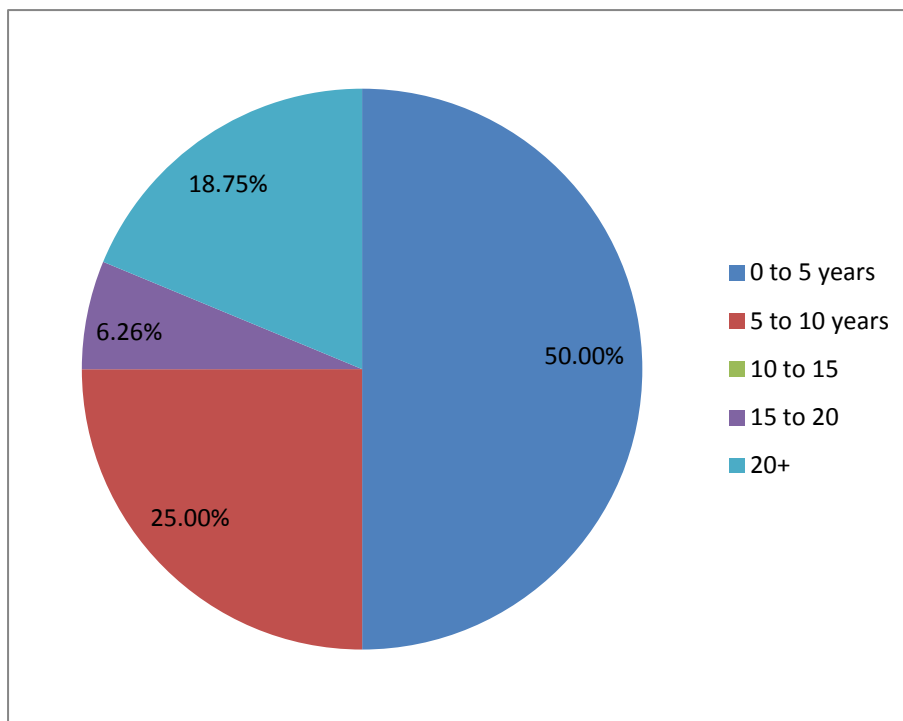
FIGURE 6.7: DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYMENT CODES



6.2.7. Distribution of years of tenure

The average years of tenure in the organisation was 10.76 years (n=16). The distribution of years of tenure categories were as follows: 50% (n=8) have stayed between 0 and 5 years, 25% (n=4) between 5 and 10 years, 0% (n=0) between 10 and 15 years, 6.25% (n=1) between 15 and 20 years, and 18.75% (n=3) more than 20 years (see Figure 6.8.). This distribution is seen to be appropriate for this study, given the balance between relatively new employees and those who have been employed for a long time. QWL can, at any rate, be better measured with a combination both of seasoned employees as well as newer employees.

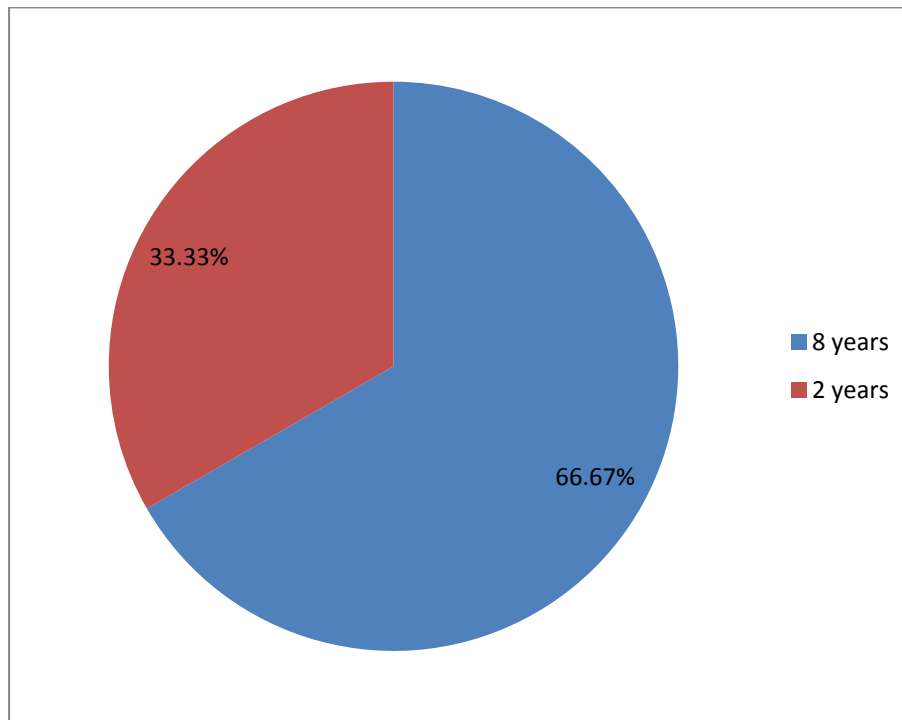
FIGURE 6.8: DISTRIBUTION OF YEARS OF TENURE



6.2.8. Distribution of stay in South Africa

Looking at the Chinese participants ($n=3$) in the research, 66.67% ($n=2$) have been working in South Africa for 8 years and 33.33% ($n=1$) has been working in South Africa for 2 years (see Figure 6.9.). As such, two participants have been working in South Africa for a relatively long time while one participant is new to the South African working environment.

FIGURE 6.9: DISTRIBUTION OF STAY IN SOUTH AFRICA



Having presented the biographical data indicators of the participants, Section 6.3. below will now explore indigenous definitions of leadership so as to meet the first research objective. Understanding indigenous definitions of leadership improves upon the quality of the research (as discussed in Section 5.8.).

6.3. INDIGENOUS DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP

The participants were asked to define leadership as well as effective and ineffective leadership so as to determine indigenous definitions of leadership. Dominant leadership definition themes and codes, for South African (see Section 6.3.1.) and Chinese (see Section 6.3.2.) participants were determined.

6.3.1. South African definition of leadership

This section explores South African participants' leadership definitions, the importance of which is encapsulated in the potential cultural influences on leadership style used and its effectiveness. For example Participant 9 S-R, suggests that;

“You need to understand that people may differ coming from different cultures [sic]. You need to understand that, as a leader you might come across different challenges from different people and must learn to be patient [...]” (9 S-R).

9 S-R	28	M	B	Ba	CU	3.8
-------	----	---	---	----	----	-----

Three main themes emerged from the data – behavioural, traits and leadership outcomes. Table 6.1. and 6.2. present the codes and themes for leadership and leadership effectiveness respectively.

TABLE 6.1: THEMES AND CODES FOR SOUTH AFRICAN LEADERSHIP DEFINITION

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
10 S-L	Leadership is not just a position	1
BEHAVIOURAL THEME		
7 S-L	Behavioural trait	1
4 S-L, 8 S-R	Motivate	2
4 S-L	Encourage	1
4 S-L	Coordinate team	1
11 S-L, 6 S-R, 14 S-R	Leading by example	3
5 S-L, 16 S-L, 14 S-R	Guidance	3
16 S-L	Listening to people	1
4 S-L, 5 S-L	Develop employees	2
4 S-L, 5 S-L	Responsibility and accountability	2
5 S-L	Job enrichment	1
6 S-R, 8 S-R, 9 S-R	Work together with and be involved with the team	7
9 S-R	Decision making skills	1

14 S-R	Open to employee's ideas	1
14 S-R	Open to change	1
9 S-R	Planning	1
9 S-R	Understand different cultures and people	1
15 S-R	Provide information	1
6 S-R	Feedback	1
6 S-R	Recognition	1
10 S-L	Solve issues and problems	2
TRAITS THEME		
9 S-R	Individual's qualities	1
16 S-L	Being objective	1
11 S-L	Approachability	1
11 S-L	People-orientated	1
11 S-L	Goal-orientated	1
16 S-L	Not passive	1
12 S-L	Not manipulative	1
9 S-R	Need to be diverse	1
9 S-R	Patient	1
6 S-R , 14 S-R	Not authoritative	2
LEADERSHIP OUTCOME THEME		
4 S-L	Best performance from employees	1
4 S-L	Employees enjoy work	1
5 S-L	Sense of belonging	1
11 S-L	Trust and respect	1
11 S-L	Consensus	1
7 S-L, 12 S-L, 11 S-L, 8 S-R, 15 S-R	Influence people to attain common organisational goals	4
8 S-R	Improvements within organisation	1

Notes. f = Frequency

TABLE 6.2: THEMES AND CODES FOR SOUTH AFRICAN LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
16 S-L	Leadership is not just a position	1
12 S-L	Who you are and way you do things	1
BEHAVIOURAL THEME		
4 S-L	Bring out the best in people	1
4 S-L	Provide resources	1
5 S-L, 12 S-L	Motivate	2
4 S-L, 5 S-L, 8 S-R, 9 S-R	Responsibility and accountability	6
5 S-L, 6 S-R, 14 S-R	Work together with and be involved with the team	3
5 S-L	Consistent expectations	1
5 S-L, 7 S-L	Leading by example	3
5 S-L, 7 S-L, 9 S-R, 13 S-R, 14 S-R	Effective communication	8
11 S-L	Understand different cultures and people	1
11 S-L	Constructive feedback	1
11 S-L	Meet individual needs	1
11 S-L	Fairness and equality	1
11 S-L	Take feedback	1
11 S-L, 16 S-L	Aware of own and others weaknesses and lack of knowledge	2
8 S-R	Allow people to use their strengths and capabilities	1
12 S-L	Problem solving	1
14 S-R	Guidance	1
14 S-R	Open to change	1
13, S-R, 15 S-R	Open to employee's ideas	3
15 S-R	Decision making skills	1
9 S-R	Believe in followers	1

5 S-L 13 S-R	Honour promises and word	2
13 S-R	Listening to people	1
13 S-R	Solidarity	1
10 S-L	Implement policies	1

TRAITS THEME

4 S-L	Maturity	1
11 S-L, 12 S-L, 14 S-R	Emotional intelligence	3
10 S-L	Not passive	1
12 S-L, 13 S-R, 14 S-R, 15 S-R	Being knowledgeable	8
5 S-L, 8 S-R, 11 S-L, 13 S-R, 14 S-R, 15 S-R	Not authoritative	8
12 S-L	Personality	2
15 S-R	Approachability	1
6 S-R	Personal perspective	2
13 S-R	Honest	1
13 S-R	Reliable	1
12 S-L	Supportive	1
10 S-L	Accommodating	1

LEADERSHIP OUTCOME THEME

4 S-L	Best performance from employees	1
4 S-L, 11 S-L	Employees want to work	2
4 S-L	No politics	1
4 S-L	Employees enjoy work	1
5 S-L, 7 S-L, 9 S-R, 13 S-R	Trust and respect	6
5 S-L, 8 S-R, 15 S-R	Do not fear leaders	3
7 S-L, 10 S-L; 11 S-L, 12 S-L	Influence people to attain common organisational goals	7
7 S-L	Consensus	1
12 S-L	People left behind or stepped over to attain goals	1
9 S-R	Team spirit	1

SITUATIONAL THEME

12 S-L	The way you play each role	1
--------	----------------------------	---

RELATIONAL THEME

9 S-R	Relationships
-------	---------------

9 S-R	Leader because of followers
-------	-----------------------------

Notes. f = Frequency

6.3.1.1. Comprehensive leadership definition themes and codes

The threshold frequency was again three. These dominant codes (see Table 6.3.) emerged from either; leadership definitions, effective and ineffective leadership descriptions or the summation of frequencies from the leadership and effective and ineffective leadership definitions. Overall it was found within this study that there are 13 key components to how the South African participants describe leadership across three themes (as indicated in Table 6.3.).

TABLE 6.3: COMPREHENSIVE THEMES AND CODES FOR SOUTH AFRICAN LEADERSHIP DEFINITION

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i> (6.1.)	<i>f</i> (6.2.)	Σf
BEHAVIOURAL THEME				
4 S-L, 5 S-L, 8 S-R, 12 S-L	Motivate	2	2	4
4 S-L, 5 S-L, 8 S-R, 9 S-R	Responsibility and accountability	2	6	8
5 S-L, 6 S-R, 8 S-R, 9 S-R, 14 S-R	Work together with and be involved with the team	7	3	10
5 S-L, 7 S-L, 11 S-L, 6 S-R, 14 S-R	Leading by example	3	3	6
5 S-L, 7 S-L, 9 S-R, 13 S-R, 14 S-R	Effective communication	0	8	8
5 S-L, 14 S-R, 16 S-L,	Guidance	3	1	4
13 S-R, 14 S-R, 15 S-R	Open to employee's ideas	1	3	4
TRAITS THEME				
11 S-L, 12 S-L, 14 S-R	Emotional intelligence	0	3	3
12 S-L, 13 S-R, 14 S-R, 15 S-R	Being knowledgeable	0	8	8
5 S-L, 11 S-L, 6 S-R, 8 S-R, 13S-R, 14 S-R, 15 S-R	Not authoritative	2	8	10
LEADERSHIP OUTCOME THEME				
5 S-L, 7 S-L, 11 S-L 9 S-R, 13 S-R	Trust and respect	1	6	7
5 S-L, 8 S-R, 15 S-R	Do not fear leaders	0	3	3
7 S-L, 8 S-R, 11 S-L, 12 S-L, 15 S-R	Influence people to attain common organisational goals	4	7	11

Notes. SA *f*= Frequency scores for South African participants; CH *f*= Frequency scores for Chinese participants; Σf = sum of the frequencies

The dominant codes in Table 6.3. above have been organised into eight categories – ‘work together with and be involved with the team’; participative leadership; ‘leading by example and trust and respect’; ‘emotional intelligence’; ‘motivate and influence people to attain common organisational goals; effective communication; responsibility and accountability;

and ‘being knowledgeable’. These defining points of leaders are in line with the definitions of leadership which emerged in the 70s until present-day, where leadership is seen as ‘a process’, an ‘interaction’ between leaders and follows and a ‘personality’ or behaviour, which results in leaders ‘influencing’ followers so to attain ‘organisational goals’ (see Table 2.1.).

Work together with and be involved with the team

Two dominant codes was that of ‘work together with and be involved with the team’ and ‘not authoritative’, categorised within the behavioural and traits theme respectively (see Table 6.3.). A leader working together with their subordinates irrespective of organisational level reflects a low power distance and encompasses the ethos of server leadership (Taylor, 2013; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Washington, 2007). As discussed in Section 2.6.1., server leadership styles are accompanied by a shift away from the centralisation of power, hierarchy and patriarchy (Washington, 2007). The role of the leader is thus seen not as focal position of power or a strict issuing of directives and order, but rather, it is seen as a means to empower employees through relational engagement (Taylor, 2013). This is corroborated by the participant 16 S-L, describing effective leadership as;

“[...] not just sitting there, just standing in position. Being there for the people. People knowing that you are there for them [sic]” (16 S-L).

16 S-L	35	F	B	Ba	DL	6
--------	----	---	---	----	----	---

Participative leadership

The dominant code of not being authoritative (Table 6.3.) is also encapsulated within the server leadership style whereby legitimate power is gained through the guidance and valuing of employees. It also involves helping employees through employee development, addressing employee problems and the meeting of employee needs (Masango, 2002: 713). Highlighted within the non-authoritative leadership are dominant codes of ‘guidance’, ‘responsibility and accountability, and ‘openness to employees’ ideas’. The descriptions above are classifiable as transformational leadership behaviours such as idealised influence (attributes) and individualised consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Leaders need to assist employees to complete their work tasks, harness their potential and utilise the knowledge and ideas of followers. The participative leadership category is supported by the dominant code of ‘do not fear leaders’ (see Table 6.3.), in which force and intimidation lead to compliance. This

compliance is a result of fear rather than a voluntary participation. The focus on voluntary participation and avoiding force and intimidation is also seen to be indicative of African leadership definitions in theory (see Section 2.2.1.). Participant 8 S-R supports this view, by describing an ineffective leader as;

“[...] an autocratic leader works in the short term, in the sense that if you get people to be afraid of you, they do exactly what you saying [...] unfortunately [...] emotions are heating up [...] That is why you will find an autocratic leader turns to yelling people about, because if you work by yelling at people you gonna have to keep yelling and if you stop yelling everything stops [sic]” (8 S-R)

8 S-R	43	M	B	Ba, D	DL	4
-------	----	---	---	-------	----	---

Leading by example, trust and respect

‘Leading by example’ was also a dominant code found within the data (see Table 6.3.). Leading by example was identified by Boon (1996) as being a traditional South African leadership quality still prevalent in the contemporary organisational context. Moreover leading by example was identified by Tims *et al.* (2011) as a component to the idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership. Leading by example was attributed to the server leader by van Staden (2007) and Joseph and Winston (2005). They suggest that leaders exhibit the behaviours and attitudes that are expected from subordinates and in so doing evince a voluntary participation through the establishment of trust relationships. The establishment of trust is key predecessor to the formation of respect between leaders and subordinates and, as such, legitimate respect takes time to develop (Kriel, 2008).

Emotional intelligence

‘Emotional intelligence’ has been argued to be related to the “service-orientated philosophy” of servant leadership (Hayward, Amos & Baxter, 2008; van Staden, 2007). Sosik and Megerian (1999) found that leaders with higher levels of emotional intelligence were seen to be more effective from the follower perspective. Furthermore a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership was proven by Bulford (2001). Leaders with greater emotional intelligence are more likely to be able to identify, understand and meet employee needs within the work place through greater empathy and awareness (Sy, Tram & O’hara, 2006; Slaski & Cartwright, 2003). Participant 4 S-L highlighted the link

between emotional intelligence, effective leadership and need satisfaction when discussing performance management systems;

“[...] this year we are focussing a lot on the emotional intelligence development of the guys, which is really those leadership skills that you don’t get through a university programme, focusing on developing that in the middle management and the senior managers you know to create that work environment where people enjoy their work” (4 S-L)

4 S-L	39	M	W	PG	E	2
-------	----	---	---	----	---	---

Emotional intelligence has also been argued to be increasingly relevant within cross-cultural work settings (Dickson, 2003).

Motivate and influence people to attain common organisational goals

Motivation has been key to many perspectives on effective leadership, according to the meta-analysis by Gelfand *et al.* (2007). Moreover, it can be seen to be a transformational leadership behaviour, and is encapsulated within the inspirational motivation (discussed in Section 2.6.2.2.) dimension of the FRLM (discussed in Section 2.6.2.). Motivation is seen to be closely tied to fostering a shared vision and inspiring subordinates to work towards the achievement of these collective goals by making employees’ work meaningful (Louw & Venter, 2011). As such it can be seen that motivation is closely linked with the dominant code of influencing people to attain common organisational goals. As illustrated in Table 2.1. the generally agreed upon outcome or purpose of leadership is to ‘influence’ followers so as to attain ‘organisational goals’. As such, the presence of this dominant code (see Table 6.3.) is well corroborated within literature.

Effective communication

The dominant code of effective communication is supported by the leadership definition adopted for this study; “an interpersonal process through which a leader directs the activities of individuals or groups towards the purposeful pursuance of given objectives within a particular situation by means of communication” (Gerber *et al.*, 1996: 343). Communication is a diverse and multifaceted phenomenon. Not only is communication essential to disseminate information and co-ordinate activities, but is it also vital in building relationships within the workplace, sharing ideas and opinions and creating a platform for accessing employees’ intellectual capital and the general development of employees through debate and

the answering of questions (Easton *et al.*, 2013; Fang & Faure, 2011; Jackson, 2011). Therefore, effective communication structures are said to be a two-way communication, reflective of structures in which both leaders and subordinates communicate openly and honestly in a manner that is not offensive, harsh or likely to cause negative affect (Tims *et al.*, 2011). However, effective communication is complicated within the context of this study, given cultural and linguistic differences between South African and Chinese communication (Hooker, 2012).

Responsibility and accountability

Giving employees greater autonomy to complete their work results in more enriched jobs and requires giving employees greater responsibility and accountability (Brunsson & Sahlin-Andersson, 2000). By reducing control, interference and micro-management, leaders can better harness employees' technical and tactical knowledge and skills and allow for employee growth and development (Linn, 2003). Furthermore, it has been shown that greater responsibility and accountability represents greater trust between leaders and followers thus intensifying positive leader-follower relationships and greater employee satisfaction (Littrell & Nkomo, 2005; Raiger, 2005; Rothner, 2005).

Being knowledgeable

Leaders being knowledgeable was a dominant leadership code that emerged within the traits theme (see Table 6.3.) Leaders themselves also need to ensure that they have knowledge about external and internal factors of the organisation. For example, the nature and current changes within the industry and the nature of subordinate's tasks which enable leaders to better achieve organisational goals and self-knowledge. By implication, the knowledge ought to be both tacit and explicit knowledge (Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw & Oosthuizen, 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2011: 169). Moreover, leaders' ability to perform leadership functions such as planning and decision making is hinged when they are knowledgeable (Meditinos, Chatzoudes, Tsairidis & Theriou, 2011). Knowledge can be seen to be increasingly vital, given the knowledge economy. Leaders then need to manage knowledge within the organisation (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008), ensuring that knowledge is developed, harnessed and disseminated to all organisational levels (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2008). The diversity in the 'knowledge' which emerged from the content analysis exemplifies the far reaching nature of knowledge. For example participants 16 S-L and 13 S-R described ineffective leaders as;

“Not knowing what’s going on. Not knowing the character of the people that you work with [...] myself being good at this, Ms. Anonymous, one of my analysts maybe being good at that, because as people we are not the same” (16 S-L)

35	F	B	Ba	DL	6	35
----	---	---	----	----	---	----

Knowledge can be seen to be an essential yet often overlooked prerequisite to effective leadership behaviour since there are a plethora of references to leaders needing knowledge. At the same time, there is less of a reflection on what that knowledge ought to be or what it consists in (Meditinos *et al.*, 2011). In terms of the uniqueness of the South African leadership definition codes, one may argue that the codes of consensus between leaders and followers and the importance of understanding different cultures and people are the only two codes distinctively more in line with African than western conceptions of leadership.

6.3.2. Chinese definition of leadership

Section 6.3.2. will describe leadership indigenously, from the Chinese participants’ perspective. Generalisable findings cannot be drawn from a small number of participants but findings provide an indication of how leadership is defined by Chinese senior management within this context. From the in-depth content analysis of the Chinese participants’ leadership and leadership effectiveness definitions (see Table 6.4. and 6.5.) it was found that four main themes emerged from the data, namely, behavioural, traits, leadership outcomes and situational. As such, it is evident that a new theme emerged from the Chinese participants’ definition of leadership, that being situational, which was not present within the South African definition of leadership.

TABLE 6.4: THEMES AND CODES FOR CHINESE LEADERSHIP DEFINITION

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
BEHAVIOURAL THEME		
1 C-L	Manage company	1
2 C-R	Make everyone happy	1
2 C-R	Planning	1
2 C-R	Unite with partners	1
TRAITS THEME		
2 C-R	Personality	1
3 C-R	Capable	1
2 C-R	Solidarity	1
LEADERSHIP OUTCOMES THEME		
3 C-R	Trust and respect	1
3 C-R	Employees should follow the leader	1
1 C-L, 2 C-R	Create shareholder value	2
SITUATIONAL THEME		
2 C-R	Unity in good and bad times	1

Notes. *f* = Frequency

TABLE 6.5: THEMES AND CODES FOR CHINESE LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
BEHAVIOURAL THEME		
2 C-R	Behaviour	1
2 C-R	Localised leadership	1
1 C-R	How you work	1
3 C-R	Cooperate	1
1 C-L	Not controlling	1
TRAITS THEME		
2 C-R, 3 C-R	Being knowledgeable	2
3 C-R	Considerate	1
3 C-R	Professionalism	1
3 C-R	Not particular	1

Notes. f = Frequency

6.3.2.1. Comprehensive leadership definition themes and codes

Overall, it was found within this study that there are two dominant codes – above the threshold frequency of two – pertaining to how the Chinese participants describe leadership across the three leadership definition themes – ‘being knowledgeable’ and ‘create shareholder value’ (as indicated in Table 6.6.). The behaviour and trait themes were specifically referred to by participant 2 C-R seen in the codes ‘behaviour’ and ‘personality’ in Table 6.6. below. Moreover, five codes found in Table 6.6. can also be seen in the South African leadership definition, which for the purpose of this study will be termed ‘common codes’. The researcher will elaborate on the two dominant codes, the common codes as well as codes verifiable within literature and past research to determine the key components of the Chinese definition of leadership, given that the small sample size limits persistent observation (see Table 6.6.).

TABLE 6.6: COMPREHENSIVE THEMES AND CODES FOR CHINESE LEADERSHIP DEFINITION

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
BEHAVIOURAL THEME		
2 C-R	Behaviour	1
2 C-R	Localised leadership	1
1 C-L	Manage company	1
2 C-R	Make everyone happy	1
2 C-R	Planning	1
2 C-R	Unite with partners	1
2 C-R	Localised leadership	1
3 C-R	Cooperate	1
TRAITS THEME		
2 C-R	Personality	1
2 C-R, 3 C-R	Being knowledgeable	2
3 C-R	Considerate	1
3 C-R	Professionalism	1
3 C-R	Capable	1
2 C-R	Solidarity	1
LEADERSHIP OUTCOME THEME		
3 C-R	Trust and respect	1
3 C-R	Employees should follow the leader	1
1 C-L, 2 C-R	Create shareholder value	2
SITUATIONAL THEME		
2 C-R	Unity in good and bad times	1

Notes. *f* = Frequency

Common leadership codes

The common leadership codes include; ‘being knowledgeable’, ‘capable’, ‘cooperate’, ‘planning’, and ‘trust and respect’.

Being knowledgeable

‘Being knowledgeable’ was identified as both a dominant code and a common code and therefore can be said to be the most prevailing influence on Chinese leadership conceptualisations (see Table 6.6.). Bass (1990) asserts that knowledge, capacity and cooperation were among others, key common leadership traits that influence leadership capability. Connerley and Pedersen (2005) assert that knowledge has been extensively shown to be a common or etic leadership characteristic which explains the presence of the knowledge code within both the South African and Chinese data sets. It stands to reason that knowledge is not in itself a skill, role or capability however is an enabling agent that empowers leaders to be better equipped to fulfil their leadership role, as such it is not having knowledge but the application thereof that affects leadership effectiveness (Conger, 2004; Arvonen & Ekvall, 1999).

Capable

It has been said that leaders who are capable are more likely to be influential and to attain the strategic intent of an organisation (Duignan, 2003). Achieving desired outcomes makes a leader capable and the determinants of a capable leader are context specific (Robinson, 2010; Duignan, 2003). Capabilities change and thus need to be continually grown and adapted and new capabilities built so as to be aligned with work, organisational, and external environment demands (Stiles, 2012; Yeung & Ready, 1995). One should note that not only do leaders need to grow their capabilities but this is similarly important for subordinates if the organisation is to create a competent and productive workforce (Stiles, 2012). What complicates the building of capabilities however is that there exists no generally accepted list of comprehensive capabilities, and no clear specifications as to how to identify or further capabilities (Paauwe, & Farndale, 2012; Robinson, 2010). While capabilities are often linked to the leadership construct, the determinants of capability are context-bound moreover cross-cultural and intercultural capabilities can be argued to be important given the context of this study (Teagarden & Von Glinow, 1997).

Cooperation

Within the Chinese context, it was argued in Section 2.4. that co-operation was a Confucian value however cooperation can be said to be vital in leadership also in South Africa in that co-operation is embedded in participative leadership and consensus building (Nkomo, 2011; Jackson, 1999; Khandwalla, 1995). Co-operation in an intercultural context can be said to exist on two levels - between leaders and followers and between countries. Furthermore within the joint venture context of this study co-operation is also important between the holding companies (Horwitz, Kamoche & Chew, 2001; de Mooij, 2000), one can argue that the emergent code in Table 6.6. of 'uniting with partners' encapsulates co-operation between holding companies and highlights the Chinese acknowledgement of the multi-levelled nature of co-operation. Co-operation between leaders and follows was highlighted by Avolio, Kahai, Dumdum and Sivasubramaniam (2001, cited in Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004) to be a transformational leadership behaviour. Co-operation between leaders and followers has also been linked to the employee satisfaction (Ronnona, 2003).

Planning

Planning as a leadership task emerged in the 1930's (Kriel, 2008) and is commonly classified as emerging from 'scientific leadership' or the functions of managers - planning, organising, leading and controlling (Browaeys & Price, 2011). According to Williams (2013: 9) planning is the "determining of organizational goals and a means for achieving them". While planning is seen to be important by both the Chinese (Hafsi & Yan, 2007) and South African leaders and is an often cited leadership task according to Louw and Venter (2010) it is important to note that planning ought to be accompanied with the successful execution of plans. Hofstede and Minkov (2010) contend that a long-term orientation (as is the case with China) is associated with a greater emphasis on strategic planning and the forgoing of short-term gains whereas a shorter-term orientation is associated with a declining focus and regard for the planning function.

Trust and respect

Trust is argued to be etic and highly pervasive across cultures (Saunders, Skinner, Dietz, Gillespie & Lewicki, 2010.). Not only is the importance of trust greater in some societies than others there is also variability in how trust is established and conceptualised (Alden, 2006; Zaheer & Zaheer, 2006; Raiger, 2005). Nevertheless the building of trust through behaviours

such as loyalty, keeping promises and reciprocity is seen to be an important factor in building strong relationships, in and out of the workplace (Saunders *et al.*, 2010; Kriel, 2008). Trust between leaders and followers is linked to co-operation, leader legitimacy and a willingness to follow leaders (which was a leadership outcome code, see Table 6.6.) (Saunders *et al.*, 2010; Masango, 2002). Trust is instrumental in successful international or intercultural collaborations (Zaheer & Zaheer, 2006) and is said to be a transformational leadership value (Washington, 2007). As discussed in Section 2.4. loyalty, trust and respect being deferred to superiors are regarded highly amongst Chinese society (Chen *et al.*, 2014).

Dominant leadership codes

Create shareholder value

Participant 3 C-R highlights that the vision, mission and goal of the organisation is to create value for shareholders:

“I think I know [the vision, mission and goals is] [...] to benefit the shareholders” (3 C-R).

3 C-R	32	M	Ch	Ba (PGH)	E	2	2
-------	----	---	----	----------	---	---	---

Furthermore participant 1 C-L also highlighted that creating value was a key component of the vision, mission and goals of the organisation:

“How to fight many things for the year and where to add the value for one [holding company] in South Africa another one in China [...] we invite them [the South Africans] to join in our meeting in China. So during that time we usually like that opportunity to show them what [is] the mission for now, what’s happening, and what’s our value for next year” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

One could thus argue that the overarching mission of the senior management level Chinese leadership is thus to create value. As such while the nature of the vision, mission and goals is different among the Chinese and South African samples one may argue that a defining point across both Chinese and South African leadership is the attainment of organisational strategic intent. The South African participants had a broader conceptualisation of the purpose or outcomes of leaders than did the Chinese participants (see Table 6.1.). South African literature has asserted that creating shareholder value is an implicit organisational goal and

inherent in the very existence of organisations and in as much cannot in itself be the organisations mission and it is unlikely to get buy-in from employees (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2008). This does not however seem to be the case within Chinese perceptions of leadership. Moreover the emphasis on value creation stands in contrast to the argument made by Fang (2006) that *guanxi* and the establishment of loyalty and trust between leaders and subordinates is of extreme importance even more so than profit objectives.

Verifiable code

Localised leadership

The need for indigenous definitions for organisational phenomena is illustrated within the Chinese leadership definition data given the found importance of localising leadership styles was seen to be important by all three Chinese participants and formed part of the comprehensive Chinese leadership codes (see Table 6.6.). This is supported by Horwitz, Ferguson, Rivett & Lee (2005) who found that localisation was seen to be a key success factor to the success of Chinese organisations in Africa. While localised leadership is not a distinctively Chinese leadership value it can be said that given the intercultural context that localised leadership is a useful internationalisation strategy when operating in a foreign country for example; by reducing relocation costs, reducing potential cultural conflict, and harnessing the indigenous or local knowledge about the industry, markets and the like (Louw & Venter, 2011: 454; Chen & Wilson, 2003) Participant 2 C-R, when discussing effective leadership, asserted that;

“I think he must understanding the local [...] game rule [sic], Like the law, the accountant systems [sic], the human resource systems [...] he must understand the local ruling. That make[s] everything effective. If we always do in Chinese way then that’s not work [sic]” (2 C-R)

2 C-R	35	M	Ch	PGM	E	1.4	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	-----	---

This arguably highlights that the local environment including factors such as the legal and cultural context need to be adapted to when conducting business in a foreign country. Localised leadership within the intercultural context was also implied by participant 1 C-L when discussing his personal leadership style. According to participant 1 C-L;

“My leader style I think it quite different [from] the leadership in China. But here we are setting [...] the leadership in a different sense [...] [sic]. So the leader style here is more cooperative with the local people either from the high level or even for the middle level because it’s all new to us [Chinese], because we are foreigner here. And also the different cultures and then make the team work, to add value. That’s the style we want for here [...] what is the types of company, how to cooperate, how to use both of the company or the different culture [sic]” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

6.4. DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLES

In order to understand the dominant leadership style of participants the overall dominant leadership style will be explored as well as the dominant leadership styles of the Chinese and South African, leaders and leader-raters and employment code clusters.

6.4.1. General dominant leadership style

The dominant leadership dimensions (as per the Bass and Avolio (1997) framework) where determined by frequency of occurrence (as discussed in Section 5.7.2.). The weighted leadership scores where used to determine which leadership style is dominant per participant.

TABLE 6.7: DOMINANT LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS AND STYLES

	Dimensions								styles			Weighted Score		
Participant	IA	IB	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBE (a)	MBE (p)	LF	TF	TA	LF _w	TF _w	TA _w
1 C-L	16	8	13	8	10	10	9	2	-1	55	29	-1	11	9.7
2 C-R	4	-1	-3	-3	3	6	0	0	1	0	6	1	0	2.0
3 C-R	7	0	0	5	1	0	0	2	0	13	2	0	2.6	0.7
4 S-L	4	3	3	16	7	1	1	1	0	26	3	0	5.2	1.0
5 S-L	12	7	6	14	21	8	3	2	0	60	13	0	12	4.3
6 S-R	0	5	3	1	10	1	5	-1	5	19	5	5	3.8	1.7
7 S-L	12	6	13	4	20	6	9	4	0	55	19	0	11	6.3
8 S-R	6	5	13	8	10	7	6	2	2	42	15	2	8.4	5.0
9 S-R	14	11	11	2	13	0	2	1	1	51	3	1	10.2	1.0
10 S-L	10	4	4	0	5	1	2	0	0	23	3	0	4.6	1.0
11 S-L	17	12	14	12	24	5	5	3	-2	79	13	-2	15.8	4.3
12 S-L	5	8	8	6	9	1	5	0	0	36	6	0	7.2	2.0
13 S-R	9	3	-2	-1	8	5	-1	6	5	17	10	5	3.4	3.3
14 S-R	2	2	-6	-1	-6	2	-2	4	17	-9	4	17	-1.8	1.3
15 S-R	-5	1	4	1	-1	6	-1	5	2	0	10	2	0	3.3
16 S-L	14	8	8	5	15	5	2	1	-4	50	8	-4	10	2.7
n=	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16

Percentage frequency distribution for dominant leadership styles and dimensions

$f =$	5	0	1	1	6	2	0	0	1	-	-	3	11	2
SA $f =$	3	0	1	1	6	1	0	0	1	-	-	3	9	1
CH $f =$	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	-	-	0	2	1
$f_p =$ (n=16)	31.25%	-	6.25%	6.25%	37.5%	12.5%	-	-	6.25%	-	-	18.75%	68.75%	12.5%
SA $f_p =$ (n=13)	23.08%	-	7.69%	7.69%	46.15%	7.69%	-	-	7.69%	-	-	23.08%	69.23%	7.69%
CH $f_p =$ (n=3)	66.67%	-	-	-	-	33.33%	-	-	-	-	-	-	66.67%	33.33%

Notes. $f =$ Frequency; $f_p =$ Percentage frequency; SA= South African; CH= Chinese; IA= Idealised influence (a); IB= Idealised behaviour; IM= Inspirational motivation; IS= Intellectual stimulation; IC= Individualised consideration; CR= Contingent reward; MBE= Management-by-exception; LF= Laissez-faire; TF= Transformational leadership; TA= Transactional leadership; [X]_w= Weighted score

In Table 6.7. above, it is evident that the dominant leadership style described is transformational leadership, 68.75% (n=11) of participants, followed by *laissez-faire* leadership, 18.75% (n=3) and, lastly, transactional leadership which accounted for 12.5% (n=2). Looking at the distribution of the frequency scores across nationality in Table 6.7. above, it can be seen that 69.23% (n=9) of the South African participants described a dominant leadership style of transformational leadership, 23.08% (n=3) described *laissez-faire*, and 7.69% (n=1) described transactional. Of the Chinese participants 66.67% (n=2) described a dominant leadership style of transformational leadership, 33.33% (n=1) described transactional leadership, and 0% described *laissez-faire* leadership. Therefore, transformational leadership can be said to be significantly more prevalent within the participating organisation across the whole research sample (n=16) as well as across nationality. Table 6.8. below indicates that of the eight participants that were interviewed as leaders, 100% (n=8) described their dominant leadership style as transformational. Table 6.7. indicates that 37.5% (n=3) of the leader-raters described their leader's dominant leadership style as transformational, 25% (n=2) as transactional, and 37.5% (n=3) as *laissez-faire*. These findings (in Table 6.8.) can be seen to highlight the importance of a leader and leader-rater perspective in that leaders are more inclined to describe themselves as exhibiting transformational leadership styles than leader-raters.

TABLE 6.8. DISTRIBUTION OF DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLES ACROSS LEADERS AND LEADER-RATERS

Dominant leadership style	Leaders	Leader-raters
Transformational	n=8 50% (total) 100% (leaders)	n=3 $f_p = 18.75\%$ (total) $f_p = 37.5\%$ (raters)
Transactional	-	n=2 $f_p = 12.5\%$ (total) $f_p = 25\%$ (raters)
<i>Laissez-faire</i>	-	n=3 $f_p = 18.75\%$ (total) $f_p = 37.5\%$ (raters)

Notes. n= number of observations; f_p = percentage frequency

While the dominant leadership style that emerged from the data is transformational leadership, there were participants who described *laissez-faire* and transactional leadership styles (see Table 6.7.). As such, the argument put forward by Moore and Rudd (2004) that there is a notable movement away from traditional ('transactional leadership') towards that of 'transformational leadership' is substantiated by the findings. The tendency for the leaders to describe themselves as being more transformational than the leader-raters and describing a higher QWL may be explained by the theory of self-enhancing biases. According to this theory, there is a disposition to perceive oneself more positively than others do, particularly when one is in a high position of power (Pinder, 2008). Furthermore, it can be argued that the tendency for leaders to view themselves in higher regard than others generally do can be linked to their tendency to indicate higher QWL ratings. For example, people influenced by their tendencies of self-enhancement bias also often tend to be more positive about their own future and reflect overall higher levels of self-esteem (Pinder, 2008).

While people tend to over-rate their own abilities in general, the self-enhancement of leaders tends to be even greater than general (Van der Kam, Janssen, van der Vegt & Stoker, 2014; Sedikides & Gregg, 2008). While self-ratings are useful in terms of understanding how leaders perceive their own leadership style and abilities, follower ratings may be more accurate and reliable (Aarons *et al.*, 2015: 1). While transformational leadership style which is argued to be the preferential leadership style emerged as the dominant leadership style, all of the participants described all of the leadership styles to some degree.

6.4.2. South African dominant leadership style

From Table 6.7. evidently, the dominant leadership style was that of transformational leadership, described by 69.23% (n=9) of the South African participants, followed by *laissez-faire* leadership described by 23.08% (n=3) participants, and transactional leadership only being described by 7.69% (n=1). Looking at the distribution of the dominant leadership styles described by South African participants across leaders and leader-raters, Table 6.7. shows that 85.71% (n=6) of the leaders described their personal leadership style as being transformational while only 14.29% (n=1) described their leadership style as being *laissez-faire*.

It was found by several researchers that South African leaders exhibited greater transformational leadership behaviour than transactional leadership. For instance, Mokgolo *et al.* (2012), Page (2011) and Duma (2010). However Nyengane (2007) found that while South African leaders exhibited transformational leadership behaviour, it was not at the ideal level. One can argue that transformational leadership within South Africa can be expected, given the need for culturally sensitive leaders (van Zyl, 2009: 143; Nkomo & Cook, 2006: 85; Shonhiwa, 2006: 37). Additionally, South African paternalistic leadership can be seen to embody the ‘transformational leader’, given the foci on consensus, personalism, moral example and humanism, and a high use of charisma (Nkomo and Cook, 2006; Shonhiwa, 2006; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005).

Referring to Table 6.7. among the South African participants, individualised consideration was the most dominant leadership dimension described by six participants (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 16 S-L), followed by idealised influence (attributes) (9 S-R; 10 S-L; 13 S-R). Four other dimensions were dominant for only one participant; intellectual stimulation (4 S-L), inspirational motivation (8 S-R), contingent reward (15 S-R) and *laissez-faire* leadership (14 S-R). The transformational leadership dimensions of idealised influence (attributes) and individualised consideration are strongly endorsed and will therefore be interrogated further.

6.4.2.1. Individualised consideration

The strong focus on the individualised consideration – 46.15% (n=6) of the South African participants described the process of individualised consideration as the dominant leadership style. This supports the argument that a concern for employees, building employee potential and valuing employees as individuals (as opposed to organisational assets) is strongly valued both by leaders and followers (Van Rensburg, 2009; van der Colff, 2003; Burns (1978, cited in Weinberger, 2009). For example, one of the leader participants stated that;

“Every person is an entity on its own” (5 S-L)

5 S-L	33	M	W	PGH	DU	3.5
-------	----	---	---	-----	----	-----

Participant 4 S-L also described himself as a ‘coach’ and a ‘co-ordinator’ and with that identification, offers guidance instead of giving orders. This again is indicative of the importance of building and developing employees. Participant 4 S-L believes additionally that;

“Effective leaders [have got] to bring the best out of their people [and] if you are able to do that then you have an organisation where every person will want to work in, and if you get that part right you now give the right resources to the guy, they enjoy their work and once they start doing that [...] their performance picks up significantly” (4 S-L)

4 S-L	39	M	W	PG	E	2
-------	----	---	---	----	---	---

It can be said however that it is not only leaders who advocated that leaders within Organisation ABC exhibited individualised consideration. For example, participant 9 S-R says;

“I like her leadership style simply because she believes in us; she believes she is a leader because of us. And she believes that for her to implement whatever, she must try to build a sound relationship with her subordinates” (9 S-R)

9 S-R	28	M	B	Ba	CU	3.8
-------	----	---	---	----	----	-----

These quotes, from both the leaders and the leader-raters, highlight the value placed on individuals – their wellbeing and development – as well as the value of having good working relationships, in order to meet organisational and employee goals. Individualised consideration can thus align with values that are inherent within African humanism, communalism and *ubuntu* (Nkomo, 2011; Nyengane, 2007; Masango, 2002). From the interviews, many employee development initiatives and practices emerged. These include; a leadership development programme, a department specifically dedicated to employee training and development; payment for employee formal education; the establishment of acting positions; and the monitoring of high performing employees to enable promotion. Individualised consideration has been described as ‘developmental leadership’, and is aligned to the values of inter-connectedness and humanism, through a focus on the value of the individual, support and relationalism as well as a focus on fulfilling the needs that individuals have (Hayward, Amos & Baxter, 2008; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Walumbwa *et al.* (2005: 235) see the benevolence and concern for the welfare of subordinates, which can be ascribed to African leaders, as being concomitant with leadership that resembles individualised consideration.

6.4.2.2. Idealised influence (attributes)

The second most dominant leadership dimension within the transformational leadership style was that of idealised influence (attributes). This largely pertains to the building of trust and respect between leaders and subordinates. Of the South African participants, 23.08% (n=3) described a dominant leadership style dimension of idealised influence (attributes). The pertinence of idealised influence (attributes) is emphasised in that ‘leading by example’ and ‘trust and respect’ emerged as a key code when defining leadership, by South African (5 S-L, 7 S-L, 9 S-R, 11 S-L, 13 S-R) and a Chinese (3 C-R) participants (see the discussion on the comprehensive leadership definition discussions in Section 6.3.1. and Section 6.3.2.). The findings of this study strongly support the importance of idealised influence (attributes) as an essential leadership outcome that positively influences employees. This is confirmed by the studies conducted in mining companies in the Mpumalanga province by van der Merwe (2015) and McLaggan, Bezuidenhout and Botha (2013). From a South African leader perspective, participants 5 S-L and 11 S-L highlight that the building of trust and respect is a key component to establishing healthy relationships between leaders and followers. Specifically participant 5 S-L contends that:

“You work for a team, if there’s no trust in a leader [...] [the] subordinate relationship it will never work” (5 S-L).

5 S-L	33	M	W	PGH	DU	3.5
-------	----	---	---	-----	----	-----

The perspective of participant 5 S-L above, is substantiated by Masango’s (2002) arguments that without the establishment of trust and popular consent, leaders will not be able to build leader legitimacy. Mahembe and Engelbrecht (2013) contend that idealised influence is a key leadership characteristic not clearly incorporated within server leadership. However, the idealised influence (attributes) do not incorporate important cultural values such as authenticity and humility. For this reason, the importance of idealised influence needs to be seen in light of the cultural context and leadership preferences of the Chinese and South African participants.

Idealised influence (attributes) can also be seen to be interlinked with inspirational motivation, creating change within the organisation and other organisational phenomena which require popular consent and employee support. To that extent, subordinates are more willing to work towards organisational goals or instil changes when they trust the judgement

of their leaders (Barrick, Thurgood, Smith & Courtright, 2015; Brown and Treviño, 2009). This was supported by both leaders (5 S-L; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 16 S-L) as well as leader-raters (13 S-R; 14 S-R; 15 S-R). Furthermore, participant 11 S-L insisted that she was able to establish a strong sense of task ownership for her subordinates through trust. She was also able to respect relationships since subordinates did not fear that she would take credit for their work.

The establishment of trust and respect, however, are not consistent throughout the organisation or even within individual leaders. This is evidenced within the data in that the leadership style described by participant 6 S-R was seen to have an idealised influence (attributes) score of zero, while participant 15 S-R had a negative idealised influence (attributes) score for the said leadership dimension. Moreover, participants 14 S-R and 12 S-L scored poorly in terms of idealised influence (attributes), relative to the other leadership dimensions. Participant 15 S-R in particular emphasised that she in fact felt extremely insecure within her job. She reckons that what is telling for her, are her leader's anticipation of subordinates making mistakes, or the leader's reservations about the inevitable failure of the subordinate's ideas;

“If they were dismissed because of a mistake I can also make a mistake, do you understand? I do my job to the very best of my ability but I cannot guarantee that I won't make a mistake. And I fear that if I do make a mistake, which I probably will make, then I might be dismissed, I'm that scared” (15 S-R).

15 S-R	29	F	B	No data	DL	6.2
--------	----	---	---	---------	----	-----

The next section will now explore the dominant leadership style described by the Chinese participants.

6.4.3. Chinese dominant leadership style

Table 6.7. above highlights that 66.67% (n=2) of Chinese participants described transformational leadership as the dominant leadership style, 33.33% (n=1) described transactional and none described *laissez-faire*. The finding that the dominant leadership style described by the Chinese participants was that of transformational leadership is supported by previous studies. It has been argued that paternal, bureaucratic and authoritative leadership in China is in conflict with the ethos of transformational leadership (Wu & Wang, 2012; Leong & Fischer, 2011). In the first instance, Leong and Fischer (2011) found that Chinese leaders were not significantly transformational and Walumbwa, Lawler and Avolio (2007) found that

the Chinese sample included in their study had relatively lower transformational leadership scores than did the samples in India, Kenya and the United States.

The Chinese leadership at Organisation ABC has therefore embodied a market-orientated mind-set, where leadership style has been aligned to the South African environment. This is in opposition to a rigidity on traditional Chinese leadership (Wang, 2007). A Chinese senior manager described his leadership style in the following words;

“I think it’s quite different from the leadership in China. But here we are setting the leadership in a very different sense. So I think Italians come here they send [Italian employees], we [Chinese employees are] normally plan B, local company men normally is the chairman [sic]” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

This is reiterated by participant 2 C-R who argued that, on the one hand, when interacting or working with the Chinese holding company, a Chinese leadership-subordinate style is adopted. On the other hand, according to participant 2 C-R, when working with South Africans within the context of the joint venture, a more localised leadership style is adopted. This finding is substantiated by the emergence of localised leadership as a key code, given by all three of the Chinese participants (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 3 C-R), in the Chinese definition of leadership (see Section 6.3.2.). Traditional Chinese values which influence leadership behaviour have not been entirely overhauled, but rather strategically orientated to enhance intercultural harmony with the South African stakeholders (Wang *et al.*, 2013; Jackson *et al.*, 2013; Prince, 2005). This is reiterated by the comment made by participant 1 C-L that;

“I think the general leadership [...] for us [Chinese employees], our country determines the way [we] have the relationship with the top level inside [the organisation] and from our top level [in the holding company] outside” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

Looking now at the leadership dimensions (see Table 6.7.), two of the three Chinese participants (1 C-L, 3 C-R) had a transformational leadership dimension that was dominant – idealised influence (attributes). While one participant (2 C-R) had a transactional leadership dimension that was dominant – that of contingent reward, the pertinence of idealised influence (attributes) is reiterated by the fact that idealised influence (attributes) had the

highest rank relative to the other transformational leadership dimensions (see Table 6.7.). Individualised consideration was the only other leadership dimension within the transformational leadership style that did not rank negatively or that did not receive a rating of zero by any of the Chinese participants (see Table 6.7.). So, idealised influence (attributes) and individualised consideration (both of which were also the two most dominant transformational leadership dimensions within the sample of South African participants, see Section 6.4.2.) will be further investigated so as to better understand the dominant transformational leadership style.

6.4.3.1. Idealised influence (attributes)

Given the strong focus on relationships both at the societal and organisational level within the Chinese context, the prevalence of this leadership dimension could have been predicted. This leadership dimension is relational in nature, and has a strong focus on the building of trust relationships between leaders and subordinates. In addition, looking at Section 6.3.2. one can see that trust and respect was an element to the Chinese definition of leadership. This, coupled with the defining codes of unity and solidarity, reiterates the focus on healthy trust relationships and the establishment of a harmonious dyadic leader-follower engagement (Handley *et al.*, 2013). The argument by Walumbwa *et al.* (2004) in Section 2.6.2.2. that Chinese transformational leadership is focused on deep relationships based on trust, respect and benevolence supports the emergence of idealised influence (attributes) as a dominant leadership style dimension. The strict instructions which must be adhered to exactly, described by participant 2 C-R, support the descriptions of bureaucratic leadership on the part of the Chinese (discussed in Section 2.4.). They also lend credence to the emphasis on rules, the centralisation of power and control, and the value on hierarchy and deference of powers and decisions to leaders. These are qualities often ascribed to a Chinese leadership style (Hafsi & Yan, 2007). These findings therefore support the arguments that Chinese leaders often afford employees the capacity and authority to openly share ideas and criticisms and that the centralisation of Chinese leadership is often accompanied by the decentralisation of task completion (Hafsi & Yan, 2007; Wang, 2007) (discussed in Section 2.4.).

6.4.3.2. Individualised consideration

The individualised consideration dimension can be substantiated by cultural values of benevolence, uncertainty avoidance and a high regard for life-long learning (Shao & Webber, 2006; Cheng *et al.*, 2004). Paternalistic leaders in China are expected to repay the obedience and respect of subordinates with benevolence, for example by taking care of employees, granting favours and giving individualised consideration to employee needs (Cheung & Chan, 2005). This argument highlights that despite China being a collective society, individual needs are considered important and are only overthrown to the group when there is a conflict between individual and group needs being met (Cheng *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore it can be argued that having a coach or a mentor is highly valued within Chinese society in that the benevolence of the leader and teacher gives a sense of security (Rowley *et al.*, 2007). In line with Confucianism, learning can be seen to include both vocational and personal learning (Ip, 2009). Hence, the role of the teacher or mentor is perceived rather highly in Chinese culture (Rarick, 2007). Often, Chinese employees are encouraged to follow a self-learning mind-set and are encouraged to engage actively in learning activities (Rowley *et al.*, 2007). This was evidenced in the interview with participants 2 C-R and 3 C-R. Participant 2 C-R, when discussing his leader, mentioned that;

“He encourage[s] us quite often and let us [...] study outside you[r] position. Like I am a financial controller, he also encourage me to take part in some projects [...] I think I was encouraged to try something new, to learn something new” (2 C-R)

2 C-R	35	M	Ch	PGM	E	1.4	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	-----	---

Furthermore, participant 3 C-R highlighted that while he believed more formal training could be provided to him, he was satisfied that his leader does coach him individually.

Participant 2 C-R also suggested that his direct leader assisted him with mistakes and that they found solutions together. Several times during his interview, participant 1 C-L brought to the fore the importance of learning not only formally but also interculturally. The participant also emphasised knowledge sharing, particularly in terms of tacit and cultural knowledge between the Chinese and South African employees. Such sharing ideally takes the form of un-coercive coaching. For example participant 1 C-L contended that;

“[...] when [we] come from china, sometimes we know a lot of resources from China and [...] for instance [...] the local people, [...] don’t really know that you are maybe like them. They don’t really know what the Chinese culture is [...] so sometime[s] maybe they going down to china to go and open their eyes [sic] and see what new things will add value to them. that is our style, let them see first, then I check how to improve our business unit and that’s the style” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

It can be said that Chinese policies at the political level have advocated co-operation and mutual learning which is arguably substantiated by the strong focus on being acquainted with the local business practice (discussed above in this section) as well as by Participant 1 C-L’s claim that there is an attempt to integrate Chinese knowledge and best practice to South African employees within the organisation (Jackson, 2014).

6.5. SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

The findings of this chapter pertain to the topic of leadership style perceptions – defining the idea of leadership as well as describing the leadership style as experienced by participants. Overall, the study found 13 key components to the ways in which the South African participants describe leadership across three themes – behavioural, traits and leadership outcomes (as indicated in Table 6.3.). The dominant codes where restructured into eight categories. In no particular order, these are; working with the team; participative leadership; leading by example, trust and respect; emotional intelligence, motivation and influence on people to attain common organisational goals; effective communication; responsibility and accountability; and, finally, being knowledgeable (see Table 6.9. below).

From the in-depth content analysis of the Chinese participants’ definitions of leadership, it was found that four main themes emerged from the data – behavioural, traits, leadership outcomes and situational. This study, then, finds three common themes between the South African and Chinese samples. It also finds one code unique to the Chinese participants. Overall 11 codes where included in order to understand the way in which the Chinese participants describe leadership. For them, this is a matter of being knowledgeable, creating shareholder value, being capable, and trust and respect.

TABLE 6.9: COMPREHENSIVE CODES FOR THE CHINESE AND SOUTH AFRICAN CLUSTERS

South African cluster	Chinese cluster
BEHAVIOURAL THEME	
Effective communication	Localised leadership
Guidance	Planning
Open to employee's ideas	Cooperate
Motivate	
Responsibility and accountability	
Work together with and be involved with the team	
Leading by example	
TRAITS THEME	
Being knowledgeable	Being knowledgeable
Not authoritative	Capable
Emotional intelligence	
LEADERSHIP OUTCOME THEME	
Trust and respect	Trust and respect
Do not fear leaders	Create shareholder value
Influence people to attain common organisational goals	

Table 6.9. above shows that there were no common behavioural leadership codes between South African and Chinese participants when comparing the comprehensive code list. However, 'being knowledgeable' was common within the traits theme and 'trust and respect' within the leadership outcome theme. Other similarities can be found between the South African and Chinese leadership and leadership effectiveness definitions. At any rate, not all of these codes were included within the comprehensive codes for both clusters.

After the description of indigenous definitions of the leadership construct the research then described the dominant leadership style which is prevalent within the organisation. The study

found that the dominant leadership style was that of transformational leadership in the view of the entire research sample, both the South African and Chinese clusters (see Table 6.10.).

TABLE 6.10: PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION FOR DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLES AND DIMENSIONS

Percentage frequency	Leadership styles		
	<i>Transformational</i>	<i>Transactional</i>	<i>Laissez-faire</i>
f_p , (n=16)	68.75%	12.5%	18.75%
SA f_p , (n=13)	69.23%	7.69%	23.08%
CH f_p , (n=3)	66.67%	33.33%	33.33%

Notes. f_p = Percentage frequency; SA f_p = Percentage frequency for South African participants; CH f_p = Percentage frequency for Chinese Participants; n= Number of observations

Further to the findings in Table 6.10. above, the findings illustrate that the leaders were much more inclined to describe themselves as transformational as opposed to transactional or *laissez-faire*. At the same time, the leader-raters did altogether concur, despite both the leaders and leader-raters describing a transformational leadership style most dominantly. No Chinese participants described a *laissez-faire* leadership style, this being the most notable difference between the Chinese and South African leadership style findings in Table 6.10. On the other hand, it can be seen that the frequency percentage for the transformational leadership style for the Chinese and South African clusters are very similar in that they are both similar to the overall frequency percentage. The interview content analyses conducted as part of the data analysis process revealed a notable trend in leadership perceptions, based on employment codes. The dominant leadership style described within each of the employment code clusters was once again, transformational leadership. The senior management employment code had the greatest percentage of participants describe a transformational leadership style, this was followed by the middle management employment code and the skilled employment code had the lowest number. It is interesting to not how employees within higher employment codes are associated with descriptions of transformational leadership.

While the dominant leadership style found was that of transformational leadership, Table 6.11. below illustrates that most participants described leadership as being situational. Leaders thus ought to ensure that leadership styles and behaviours are appropriate to the

context. The ethos of a transformational leader is not to always exhibit transformational leadership behaviours, but to also exhibit transactional leadership behaviours where appropriate.

Within the dominant leaderships style described, the most prevailing leadership dimensions were identified and discussed both for the South African and Chinese clusters within the sample unit (see Table 6.11.).

TABLE 6.11: SUMMARY OF SOUTH AFRICAN AND CHINESE DOMINANT TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

South African leadership codes	Chinese leadership codes
Idealised influence (attributes)	Idealised influence (attributes)
Individualised consideration	Individualised consideration
Intellectual stimulation	
Inspirational motivation	

Overall it can be said that the transformational leadership behaviours of idealised influence (attributes) and individualised consideration speak to common dominant leadership styles described by Chinese and South African participants. It can be said that these commonalities can be used to engineer QWL improvements and build positive relationships within the work place. On the other hand it can be said that the leaders within the participating organisation ought to be aware of the low idealised influence (behaviour) described.

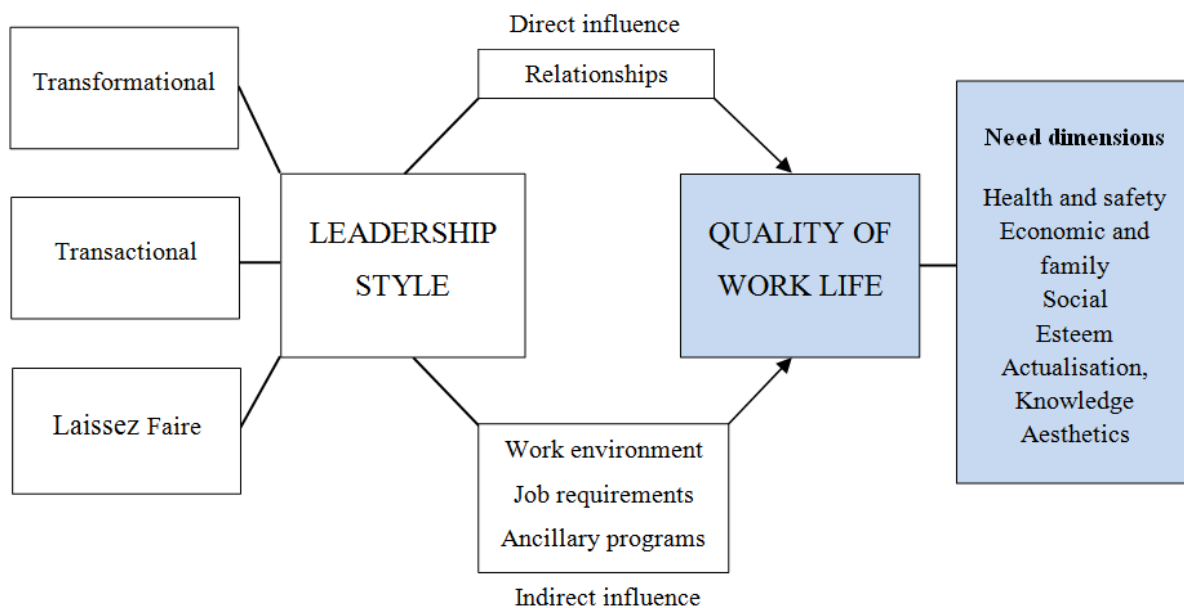
CHAPTER SEVEN

QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

7.1. OVERVIEW

Chapter Six presented the biographical data indicators as well as the findings and discussion relating to leadership style, thereby giving effect to the first two research objectives. Chapter seven will now present and discuss the QWL findings of the study so to achieve research objectives three and four, namely; to discuss indigenous – Chinese and South African – definitions of QWL, and to describe the perceived QWL level. Figure 7.1. below illustrates the overall study and highlights the research construct that the findings of this chapter pertain to.

FIGURE 7.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

7.2. INDIGENOUS DEFINITIONS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

The participants were asked to define QWL. Dominant QWL definition themes and codes were identified and discussed for South African (see Section 7.2.1.) and Chinese (see Section 7.2.2.) participants.

7.2.1. South African definition of quality of work life

It can be seen when comparing Table 7.1. and Table 6.1. that the South African participants had greater variability in their definitions pertaining to QWL (Table 7.1.) than leadership (Table 6.1.) evidenced by the greater number of codes. This greater variability stands in testament to the subjective nature of QWL (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Nevertheless, the importance of QWL was highlighted Participant 12 S-L when defining QWL;

“Well that’s the core of a successful company or not. If your workers is unsatisfied you [...] can see what happens they aren’t really there you know what I mean. You gonna have problems [sic]” (12 S-L)

12 S-L	40	M	W	D	DL	20
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

7.2.1.1. Quality of work life definition themes

From the in-depth content analysis of the South African participants QWL definitions three broad themes emerged - the nature of QWL, antecedents to QWL (structural and individual), and connotes of QWL (see Table 7.1.). As such participants had differing perspectives on defining QWL.

TABLE 7.1: SOUTH AFRICAN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE DEFINITION

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
NATURE OF QWL THEME		
12 S-L	Core to a successful company	1
9 S-R; 12 S-L	Wellbeing	2
11 S-L	Content with job	1
4 S-L; 5 S-L; 6 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 16 S-L	Motivation to attend work	8
6 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R	Happiness or enjoyment	8
14-S-R; 12 S-L	Job satisfaction	2
12 S-L;	Wasteful to meet all demands	1
5 S-L	Difficult to create	1
5 S-L; 9 S-R	Work environment	2

6 S-R; 13 S-R	Issues, problems, not always fun	2
9 S-R	Need satisfaction	1

STRUCTURAL ANTECEDENTS THEME

10 S-L	Responsibility	1
4 S-L	Purpose of work is more than the salary	1
9 S-R; 10 S-L	Autonomy and freedom	2
10 S-L	Decision making	1
10 S-L	Quality is checked	1
9 S-R; 10 S-L; 13 S-R	Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas	5
9 S-R; 11 S-L	Career and personal development	4
6 S-R; 12 S-L	Health and safety	2
12 S-L	Clear goals	1
12 S-L	Employee assistance	1
5 S-L; 12 S-L	Intrinsic rewards (more than a salary)	2
7 S-L	Organisational culture	1
14 S-R	Build knowledge, learning opportunities	1
9 S-R	Support	2
6 S-R	Resources, equipment, facilities	1
6 S-R	Clean and hygienic	1

PERSONAL ANTECEDENTS THEME

11 S-L; 13 S-R	Being successful	2
11 S-L; 13 S-R	Purposefulness of work	2
14-S-R; 11 S-L	Feel valued	2
11 S-L	Work is valued by organisation	1
16 S-L	Employee is proud of work	1
11 S-L; 13 S-R	Daily achievement and self-actualisation	3
16 S-L	Worth time away from family	2
12 S-L	Earned your salary	1

12 S-L	Leaders interested in wellbeing	1
12 S-L	Listened to	1
7 S-L	Work-life balance	1
7 S-L; 14-S-R	Values (Respect, integrity, care)	1
7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R	Collegiality and team spirit	4
7 S-L	Company is part of your family	1
9 S-R	Identify and meet needs	1
15 S-R	Stress	1
15 S-R	Not scared	1
CONNOTES THEME		
9 S-R; 12 S-L	Influences productivity	2
11 S-L	Vertical spillover	1
11 S-L; 12 S-L; 16 S-L	Horizontal spillover	3
12 S-L	Influences engagement	1

Notes. f = Frequency

7.2.1.2. Quality of work life dominant codes

Dominant codes are those above the threshold frequency of three. It can be seen in Table 7.1. a total of seven dominant codes emerged (shaded above).

Happiness or enjoyment

‘Happiness or enjoyment’ as put forth by the participants (6 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R) refers to subjective wellbeing (discussed in Section 3.3.1.) The description of QWL in relation to happiness and wellbeing is well illustrated by Participant 9 S-R:

“I would say one of the key elements [of QWL] would be being a happy employee. You know the more you are happy when you are working, the more you are productive [...] The support that you get in your organisation, the support I’m talking about is employee wellness and other problems that goes with identifying the needs of employees, [...] what can be done to solve them?” (9 S-R)

9 S-R	28	M	B	Ba	CU	3.8
-------	----	---	---	----	----	-----

Psychological wellbeing is also however present within codes such as ‘the purposefulness of work’, ‘being successful’ and ‘career and personal development’ (see Table 7.1.). *Motivation to attend work*

Motivation to attend work was raised by seven South African participants (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 6 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 16 S-L) (Table 7.1.). QWL can influence absenteeism in the short term and turnover in the long run (Delobelle *et al.*, 2010; Darr & Johns, 2008). Employees who look forward to their work are more passionate and loyal (Naudé, 2010; Darr & Johns, 2008).

Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas

Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas was raised by three participants (9 S-R; 10 S-L; 13 S-R). The application of knowledge and expression of ideas and opinions represents a mutually beneficial job design in that employees gain satisfaction through participation and a sense of value contribution but organisations benefit from the harnessing of employee’s intellectual capital (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Grant, 2007), this is evidenced by participant 9 S-R who said;

“What makes me happy is that we are given this platform to develop, we are not limited by anyone. We’ve got a strong platform to do things our own way and then asked for opinions by our leaders. And they won’t even shut you down, even if it’s bad, they will try to support you” (9 S-R)

9 S-R	28	M	B	B	CU	3.8
-------	----	---	---	---	----	-----

Career and personal development

Table 7.1. highlights that ‘career and personal development’ is also a dominant code . While career and personal development was only raised by two participants (9 S-R; 11 S-L), the participants strongly endorsed the code. In line with self-actualisation theory, it is argued that growth and development (personal and career orientated) is an important employee need which must be satisfied (Nayeri *et al.*, 2011). Promotion is an indication of development and growth and as such career planning (Bassi *et al.*, 2013; Louis, 1998). The antecedent QWL category of ‘promotion, growth and development opportunities’ was found to be well supported in the literature review (see Figure 3.2.). Furthermore career and personal

development needs are well encapsulated within the actualisation need dimension of Sirgy *et al.* (2001) QWL framework (see Section 3.7.8.1.).

Collegiality and team spirit

Within the personal antecedents theme the code of ‘collegiality and team spirit’ (7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R) (see Table 7.1.) is well validated. Social needs include the need for ‘collegiality at work’ in the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) framework (see Section 3.7.8.1.) and Figure 3.2. highlights ‘camaraderie’ as a key QWL antecedent within literature. Relationships will be discussed in great detail in Chapter eight.

Daily achievement and self-actualisation

The daily achievement and self-actualisation raised by participants 11 S-L and 13 S-R. The need for achievement leads to a sense of meaning and purpose essential to the building of eudaimonic happiness and psychological wellbeing (Ventegodt *et al.*, 2003). Consequently the need for daily achievement and actualisation is closely interlinked with ‘career and personal development’ and ‘asked to apply knowledge and share ideas’ (discussed above in this section) in that all of these QWL factors are driven by the inherent need to live a meaningful life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). This is evidenced by participant 13 S-R, when defining QWL;

“Every job has its difficulties and issues but I think at the end of the day you should feel that you’ve accomplished something and that you have given input, that you have given something to the company” (13 S-R)

13 S-R	40	F	W	Ba, AD	CL	10
--------	----	---	---	--------	----	----

Horizontal spillover

Horizontal spillover can be described as satisfaction in one life domain influencing satisfaction in another life domain (Sirgy *et al.*, 2001: 245) and is a conceptual theory underlying the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) framework (see Figure 3.3.). The spillover described by the three participants (11 S-L; 12 S-L; 16 S-L) was in all cases relative to the family domain. For example participant 16 S-L said that;

“Working, I think it’s 22 days [a month], [...] working ten hours [a day]; [...] is there something to show [...] [for it?]. Am I living the purpose of waking up? Are my kids getting

what, within that [...] ten hours time not being at home, can I do something better? Am I bettering their lives or am I making it worse? [sic]” (16 S-L)

16 S-L	35	F	B	Ba	DL	6
--------	----	---	---	----	----	---

7.2.2. Chinese definition of quality of work life

This section will now represent the findings pertaining to the Chinese definition of QWL.

7.2.2.1. Quality of work life definition themes

TABLE 7.2: CHINESE QUALITY OF WORK LIFE DEFINITION

Participants	Codes	<i>f</i>
NATURE OF QWL THEME		
2 C-R	Wellbeing	1
3 C-R	Not happiness	1
3 C-R	Fulfilment	1
STRUCTURAL ANTECEDENTS THEME		
2 C-R	Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas	1
2 C-R	Participate in management	2
1 C-L	Good team	1
1 C-L	Career and personal development	1
1 C-L	Build knowledge, learning opportunities	3
SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS THEME		
1 C-L	Good relationship with all stakeholders	1

Notes. f = Frequency

From the in-depth data analysis two broad themes were derived - the nature of QWL, and QWL antecedents (structural and social) (see Table 7.2.).

Comparing this to the South African findings (Section 7.2.1.) it can be seen that the nature of QWL and structural QWL antecedents themes are common between the two clusters.

7.2.2.2. Quality of work life dominant codes

No codes were mentioned by more than one participant (see Table 7.2.), despite some codes having a high frequency of occurrence given that they were repeated by the same participant. These findings may be a result of the small sample size of however could also indicate that QWL is a highly personal and subjective phenomenon. Dominant codes have a frequency above the threshold of two. Codes common to the South African and Chinese clusters and codes that can be substantiated with literature will also be discussed.

Wellbeing

Wellbeing is a common code (Section 7.2.1.) however South African participants described a more subjective viewpoint of wellbeing while participant 2 C-R described eudaimonic wellbeing. This is corroborated by Participant 3 C-R who says that;

“I actually don’t mention happy [...] it’s more accurate to say I feel fulfilled rather than happy [sic]” (3 C-R)

3 C-R	32	M	Ch	Ba (PGH)	E	2	2
-------	----	---	----	-------------	---	---	---

The argument can be made that in general happiness and unhappiness are perceived along the lines of *yin* and *yang* whereby happiness is not pursued in excess of unhappiness so as to maintain harmony (Lu, 2008). In as much fulfilment and eudaimonic happiness leads to wellbeing (Cheng, 2014).

Growth, development and knowledge needs

Within the structural antecedents QWL theme ‘build knowledge, learning opportunities’ and ‘career and personal development’ were both stated by participant 1 C-L (see Table 7.2.). The two will be discussed together under the category ‘growth, development and knowledge needs’ in that participant 1 C-L clearly linked the three QWL aspects. Figure 3.2. highlights that ‘promotion, growth and development opportunities’ is a key antecedent to QWL. Furthermore the Sigry *et al.* (2001) model identifies actualisation, esteem and knowledge needs as three of the need dimensions. Participant 1 C-L said when defining QWL;

“[...] the quality of work for me importantly is firstly that I learn something [...]. I don't want to come just work managing people. I want to learn something, I think is more important for me. So for me from the learning I can improve myself and grow upwards, and from that [learn] how to manage a company” (1 C-L).

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

This quote above highlights a desire for continuous learning and the importance for organisations to provide learning opportunities to grow. Esteem, knowledge and actualisation needs will be discussed in greater detail in Section 7.3.

Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas

The code of ‘asked to apply knowledge and share ideas’ raised by 2 C-R is also a common code (see Section 7.2.2.). This code is in line with a more participatory leadership style whereby employees are encouraged to participate and is thus linked to the code in Table 7.2. of ‘participate in management’ also raised by participant 2 C-R. Participative leadership was found to be a dominant aspect of South African leadership definitions. Participatory leadership has been found to influence subjective wellbeing in that it is positively associated with higher work satisfaction (Cheng, 2014; Chan & Wyatt, 2007). Participatory leadership practices can thus be a useful tool within the intercultural context of this study in creating inclusive work environments that build employee satisfaction (Huang *et al.*, 2010).

Good relationship with all stakeholders

The social antecedent code of ‘good relationship with all stakeholders’ was selected given that it is well endorsed within literature (Svendsen, Boutilier & Abbott, 2001; Brouthers & Bamossy, 1997; Lyles & Salk, 1996). Not only is the establishment of relationships important between leaders and subordinates (discussed in Chapter Eight) but so too are relationships with other stakeholders. The relational nature of the Chinese culture and the strong emphasis on relationships has been explored within Section 3.6.2. Consideration of all stakeholders is in line with African values of togetherness and communalism (Jackson, 2011; Jackson, 2002). Participant 1 C-L brings to light the importance of mutually beneficial relationships in determining organisational success;

“[...] there is a need to have a relationship with all the stakeholders not only the shareholders [...] I think that way you can make money. So we need [...] to manage that relationship. You know to come here and taking from everybody, you don't make money” (1 C-L).

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

7.3. LEVEL OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

In line with the fourth objective of this study, the QWL level of the participants will be described. In order to achieve this objective the South African and Chinese participants' need satisfaction across seven need dimensions as well as dominant antecedents to the need satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction will be explored. The Chinese and South African participants will be discussed in tandem across the need dimensions.

7.3.1. Overall quality of work life

The themes were deductively ascertained through an in-depth content analysis and the antecedents to QWL were ascertained inductively through content analysis of the interview transcripts. The QWL themes and codes derived thereby give effect to the fourth research objective seeking to describe the level of QWL within the research sample.

Quality of work life level themes

The themes for QWL are equivalent to the seven need dimensions of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) QWL model (discussed in Section 3.7.8.). Table 7.3. hereunder portrays the level of satisfaction each participant described for the need dimensions. All of the QWL dimensions put forward in the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model were found to be relevant for majority of participants (see Table 7.3.).

TABLE 7.3: OVERALL QUALITY OF WORK LIFE PER NEED DIMENSION

Participant	Need dimensions/themes						
	Health and safety	Economic and family	Social	Esteem	Actualisation	Knowledge	Aesthetics
1 C-L	S	NR	U	S	S	PS	No data
2 C-R	S	NR	S	NR	S	PS	S
3 C-R	S	S	PS	PU	PS	PS	S
4 S-L	S	S	S	S	S	PS	PS
5 S-L	S	S	S	S	PS	S	PS
6 S-R	PS	S	U	S	S	S	PU
7 S-L	PS	PS	PS	PS	No data	S	PS
8 S-R	S	S	S	U	PU	S	S
9 S-R	S	PS	S	S	S	PS	NR
10 S-L	S	PS	No data	U	U	U	PU
11 S-L	S	NR	NR	S	S	S	PS
12 S-L	S	PS	S	S	S	PS	PS
13 S-R	S	PS	No data	U	U	PS	PU
14 S-R	S	PS	PS	S	PS	PS	PS
15 S-R	PS	PU	NR	U	S	S	S
16 S-L	S	PS	U	PS	PU	S	PS
n=	16	16	14	16	15	16	15
SA n=	13	13	11	13	12	13	13
CH n=	3	3	3	3	3	3	2

Notes. S= Satisfied; PS = Partly satisfied; PU = Partly unsatisfied; U= Unsatisfied; NR = Not relevant; Ch = Chinese; SA= South African; n= Number of observations

Arithmetic mean scores were calculated for the sample and the Chinese and South African cluster (process explained in Section 5.7.2.1.). The mean satisfaction scores ($\bar{x}$) illustrate the average level of satisfaction of each of the seven need dimensions and consequently, the

expected level of QWL ($E\bar{x}$) as described by participants (see Table 7.4. and Figure 7.2.). The mean scores illustrate numerically whether participants are in general more satisfied ($\bar{x} > 1$), partly satisfied ($0 < \bar{x} < 1$), partly unsatisfied ($0 < \bar{x} < -1$), or unsatisfied ($\bar{x} < -1$) with a need or if the need is not relevant ($\bar{x} = 0$).

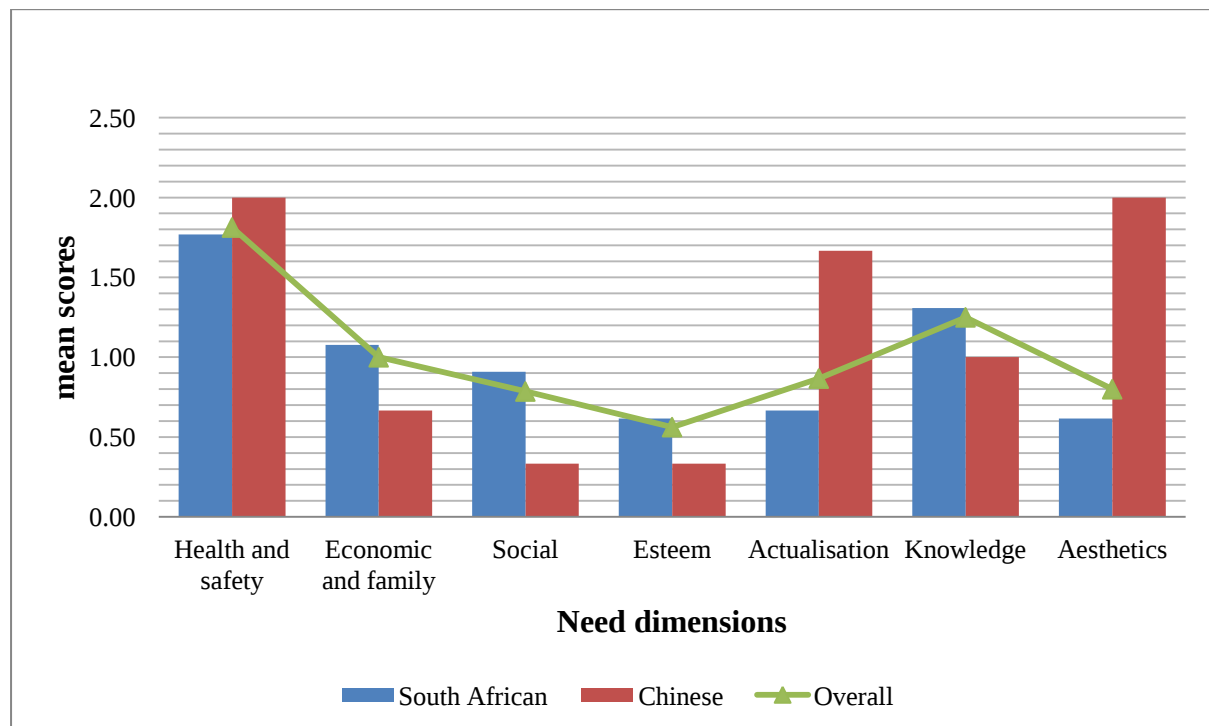
TABLE 7.4: MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES ACROSS THE NEED DIMENSIONS

Cluster	Need dimensions/themes						
	Health and safety	Economic and family	Social	Esteem	Actualisation	Knowledge	Aesthetics
<i>Ch $\bar{x}$</i>	2.00	0.67	0.33	0.33	1.67	1.00	2.00
<i>SA $\bar{x}$</i>	1.77	1.08	0.91	0.62	0.67	1.31	0.62
<i>$\bar{x}$</i>	1.81	1.00	0.79	0.56	0.87	1.25	0.80
<i>n=</i>	16	16	14	16	15	16	15
<i>SA n=</i>	13	13	11	13	12	13	13
<i>CH n=</i>	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
<i>$E\bar{x}$</i>	1.01						

Notes. *CH $\bar{x}$* = Mean scores for Chinese participants; *SA $\bar{x}$* = Mean scores for South African participants; *$\bar{x}$* = Mean; *$E\bar{x}$* = Expected value of QWL; *n* = Number of observations.

Figure 7.2. below visually illustrates the findings in Table 7.4. Across the seven need dimensions, health and safety, knowledge, and economic and family needs are the most satisfied need dimensions (in descending order) and all scored within the satisfied range (see Table 7.4., Figure 7.2.). The need dimensions of actualisation, aesthetics, social, and, esteem all have a mean score within the partly satisfied range and therefore have greater room for improvement (see Table 7.4. and Figure 7.2.). While individual participants where either unsatisfied or partly unsatisfied with certain need dimensions (see Table 7.3.) it can be seen that all of the mean scores (South African, Chinese, and overall) are positive and thus do not fall within the partly unsatisfied or unsatisfied satisfaction level ranges. As stated above in this section, the expected value of QWL ($E\bar{x}$ = 1.01) falls within the ‘satisfied’ need satisfaction range ($\bar{x} > 1$).

FIGURE 7.2: MEAN NEED SATISFACTION SCORES ACROSS THE NEED DIMENSIONS



Looking at the mean scores across cultural groups (see Table 7.4.) it can be seen that the Chinese cluster had a higher satisfaction score ($\bar{x}$ = 1.09) than did the South African ($\bar{x}$ = 0.97). Given the small Chinese sample this finding could be influenced by a number of other variables such as the fact that all of the Chinese participants are senior management males. Chinese participants described greater satisfaction for higher-order needs (see Figure 7.2.). This can be contrasted with the South African participants who have a more consistent level of satisfaction across lower and higher order needs (see Figure 7.2.). This finding ties in with the feministic Chinese culture and subsequent focus on ‘non-materialistic’ rewards (Ng, Sorensen & Yim, 2009). For South African participants the most satisfied needs are health and safety, knowledge and economic and family. It can be said that the case organisation is therefore meeting both South African and Chinese health and safety, and knowledge needs. A difference however can be seen in terms of economic and family needs being an important need dimension for South African participants however was not seen to be relevant by two of the three Chinese participants. Differences in the aesthetics need satisfaction scores for Chinese (satisfied) and South African (partly unsatisfied) clusters can be expected given that the Chinese participants worked at the headquarters while South African participants were at the mining operation. Another stark difference in the Chinese and South African scores is that

of actualisation. This finding is expected given that the Chinese participants are all senior management whereas the same cannot be said for all of the South African participants in that only one South African participant was executive. Regarding the mean satisfaction scores South African and Chinese participants were partly unsatisfied with social and esteem needs. In as much it can be said that the organisation could improve QWL levels by aiming to identify and meet social and esteem needs.

In South Africa it has been found using an adapted version of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model by Naudé (2010: 66) that the main drivers of dissatisfaction included 'Economic and family issues', 'Work arrangements', 'Feeling good at work', 'Personal potential', 'Learning opportunities', 'Creativity and aesthetics', and 'Physical health and safety'. Within the South African context but not through the adoption of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model, it was found by van der Berg and Martins (2013) that employee need satisfaction levels were predicted by QWL factors – 'role ambiguity', 'hazardous exposure', 'social support supervisor', 'social support colleagues' and 'job satisfaction' - and managerial practices – 'trust relationships', 'credibility', 'work support', 'team management', 'change which has occurred', and 'interpersonal trust'. Chan and Wyatt (2007) found in Shanghai using an adapted version of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model (excluded aesthetics needs) that all six included need dimensions – health and safety, economic and family, social, esteem, actualisation, and knowledge – had mean satisfaction scores indicating satisfaction and not dissatisfaction, as was the case with the findings of this study for the Chinese participants. Chan and Wyatt's (2007) findings indicate that knowledge needs had the highest level of satisfaction followed by esteem, health and safety, actualisation, social, and economic and family. Comparing the findings of the above discussed studies to the findings of this study it can be seen that massive variety in QWL dimensions and causes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction exist. This stands in testament to the subjective, multi-ordinal and dynamic nature of QWL whereby QWL is a perceived experience which varies (Chan & Wyatt, 2007; Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Harari & Beaty, 1990).

7.3.2. Antecedents to QWL

Dominant codes (antecedents to satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction) where were above a threshold frequency of participants of nine (see Table 7.5 below). This determination standard varies from that used in the other findings sections in that the major variety of QWL antecedents required a more stringent determination of dominant codes given the time and scope limitations inherent in the study.

TABLE 7.5: DOMINANT QUALITY OF WORK LIFE ANTECEDENTS

QWL antecedents	Participants that experience satisfaction (<i>f</i>)	Participants that experience dissatisfaction (<i>f</i>)
Health and safety need dimension		
Employee benefits	7	2
Support systems	9	2
Preventative measures	6	2
Safety management systems	10	3
Unsafe environments	6	6
Economic and family need dimension		
Pay	6	3
Job security	13	4
Employee benefits	9	7
Work-life benefits	11	6
Social need dimension		
Recreational and social events	4	4
Location	5	6
Leisure time availability	14	3
Esteem		
Recognition and appreciation	5	4
Rewards	11	8
Actualisation need dimension		
Training and education	9	3
Development structures	8	3
Promotion and growth opportunities	7	5
Knowledge need dimension		
Learning opportunities and support	15	9
Aesthetics need dimension		
Creativity at work and personal creativity	12	2
General aesthetics	14	11

Overall 20 dominant antecedents influencing QWL levels across the seven need dimensions or themes emerge (see Table 7.5.).

Health and safety need dimension

Employee benefits

As indicated in Table 7.5. employee benefits emerged as an antecedent to the satisfaction of health and safety needs. The employee benefits raised by participants include medical aid and sick leave. In terms of medical aid, nine participants (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R) are satisfied. Two participants felt that they were personally satisfied but the medical aid plans were discriminatory in that financial constraints forced lower level employees to opt for the cheapest and hence less beneficial medical aid scheme options (11 S-L; 15 S-R). The dissatisfaction felt by participants 11 S-L and 15 S-R bring to light that the South African participants' satisfaction is not entirely individualistic but is influenced by the levels of satisfaction experienced by other employees. Sick leave was only raised by one participant (4 S-L) who highlighted that flexible sick leave enhanced satisfaction with health and safety.

Support systems

Support systems are found to be a dominant antecedent to health and safety need satisfaction (see Table 7.5.). Two main support systems include; medical provisions and employee assistance programmes. The provision of the onsite clinic was a point of satisfaction for four participants (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 11 S-L) however, one participant (15 S-R) felt that the clinic was useful but because it is only for onsite injuries it did not aid in the overall promotion of health. Participant 7 S-L argued that the clinic promotes her need satisfaction, not through use of the clinic facilities but through perceived benefit to lower level employees. Employee assistance programmes are a strong antecedent of satisfaction with health and safety needs (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) and are thus an important support system offered by the organisation. Organisational support (both financial and non-financial) for work and home related issues is offered to all employees as well as immediate family members (5 S-L; 9 S-R; 10 S-L; 12 S-L; 16 S-L). Two participants (11 S-L; 15 S-R) believed that the assistance programmes available to lower organisational levels are insufficient in that they generally have poorer health and wellbeing. Interviewee 8 S-R contended however that

health and safety was ensured over the long term thus contributing to greater life satisfaction in the future given that some health effects only manifest later in time.

Preventative measures

Preventative measures, shown in Table 7.5. to also be a dominant QWL antecedent which pertains to training and information promoting both workplace and home health and safety (8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 16 S-L). Furthermore, the promoting of health and safety both in and out of the workplace was seen by participant 8 S-R to be vital to his expected value of QWL in that his 'survival' or longevity is important for himself personally as well as to his family who are dependent on him. The company provides compulsory free annual medicals for all employees to prevent untreated illnesses or medical issues leading to injuries, poor health and vitality, and increased turnover and absenteeism (11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R). Preventative measures such as compulsory substance testing as a part of access control, demarcated walk ways, warning and danger signs, and restricted access to dangerous areas are some of the other preventative measures noted.

Safety management systems

'Safety management systems' is shown in Table 7.5. to also be a dominant influence on health and safety need dimension satisfaction for participants. Organisation ABC was described by 62.5% (n=10) participants (1 C-L; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 15 S-R) as having a strong drive for 'zero-harm' which is strongly enforced. Rules and regulations manage almost every aspect of the organisation and prescribing expected behaviour, protocols, and standards. Rules and regulations stand to ensure employee safety given the dangerous nature of the mining industry (discussed below in this section) (1 C-L; 11 S-L). While the rules and regulations restrict autonomy and creativity at times (8 S-R), they ensure the wellbeing of all employees through the advocating of health and safety. A point of dissatisfaction for two participants (5 S-L; 11 S-L) was perceived lower safety standards set by Chinese management.

Unsafe environments

'Unsafe environments' is found influence the health and safety need dimensions satisfaction (see Table 7.5.). The working environment of the mining operation has been described as dangerous and thus many jobs within this environment are considered high-risk and as such there have been cases of serious injury in the past (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L).

Nevertheless, the safety measures put in place by the organisation (which has been presented above in the health and safety need dimension discussion) have been positively perceived by participants whereby, six participants could not propose any other health and safety measures the company could in light of the risky industry (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 15 S-R). Within the head office working environment there is also a strong safety focus, including access control and permanent on-site security which improves safety (1 C-L; 3 C-R). Safety of the environment external to the organisation (the crime rate) emerged as a key source of dissatisfaction for two Chinese participants at the head offices in Johannesburg (1 C-R; 2 C-R).

Economic and family need dimension

Pay

Pay emerged as a dominant antecedent to economic and family needs (Table 7.5.). Four participants (1 C-L; 11 S-L; 14 S-R) asserted that you can never have enough pay which is substantiated by two participants (7 S-L; 12 S-L) feeling that there is room for improvement in terms of pay. Participant 1 C-L says;

“Nobody is happy with the salary they’re awarded and [...] also you need to remember many people they don’t have their dream job and their [dream] salary and so this difficult question [sic]” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

Four participants (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 12 S-L) described Organisation ABC as being one of the best companies in South Africa in terms of pay and two participants (8 S-R; 14 S-R) felt that their pay was good given the economy and the chrome market. Participant 4 S-L felt that there is a good bonus scheme however he is at the senior management level where bonuses tend to be higher. Two participants (10 S-L; 13 S-R) both middle management employees experienced dissatisfaction due to inconsistent salary determination across organisational levels or departments. Participant 11 S-L felt however that pay was not an important antecedent to her QWL in that she is still young and has no major financial responsibilities and benefits such as housing compensates for pay.

On the other hand increasing personal growth is seen to lead to higher salary demands (1 C-L; 9 S-R; 13 S-R).

Job security

Job security also emerged as a dominant factor influencing economic and family needs (see Table 7.5.). Four participants felt that Organisation ABC actively tried to minimise turnover not were not pro-retrenchment (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 16 S-L) furthermore two participants (6 S-R; 16 S-L) felt that they would be kept informed if they are going to be retrenched which helped build job security. On the other hand cost-cutting (13 S-R) and recent dismissals (15 S-R) have caused dissatisfaction and a fear of making mistakes or voicing controversial opinions (4 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R). Four interviewees (11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 16 S-L) felt that external factors – the chrome industry, market condition and market position – detrimentally impacted upon job security and while some participants (11 S-L; 16 S-L) were put at ease to some degree in that they are given information and communication from management, while other participants (13 S-R; 14 S-R) feel that communication is lacking. Specifically participant 13 S-R said that:

“I mean it’s not like they have many things out on the table so that I don’t worry that the market’s looking good, they used to but [...] we haven’t had that in ages, since the previous GM left” (13 S-R)

13 S-R	40	F	W	Ba, AD	CL	10
--------	----	---	---	--------	----	----

It could be contended however that job security is never fully obtainable. Participant 11 S-L says that while she does not feel secure in her job she does not know what more the company can do to alleviate her feelings of insecurity. Five participants (5 S-L; 9 S-R; 10 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) perceive job security to have an element of personal responsibility in that employees must use opportunities and ensure their performance and competence to secure their jobs. Job security was also influenced by years of tenure both of oneself and other employees (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 10 S-L; 12 S-L; 14 S-R) Chinese participants seemed to have a far greater sense of job security as well as a more positive disposition towards job change. Participant 2C-R described job change as normal while participant 1 C-L contended that he is fine with job change. At the senior management level participant 4 S-L felt that his top management position placed him at greater risk of job loss whereas participant 1 C-L felt that he was not worried about losing his job. Two South African participants (4 S-L; 10 S-L) felt that the Chinese presence had increased their job security due to China’s market competitiveness and the improved financial stability.

Employee benefits

Employee benefits influence economic and family needs (as seen in Table 7.5.). Three main employee benefits were raised by participants – pension, medical aid, and leave. Pension benefits were found to improve satisfaction in terms of the days and ability to choose options according to lifestyle (1 C-L; 6 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R). Once a pension fund is chosen it cannot be changed and fund growth can be variable which decreased the satisfaction of five participants (6 S-R; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 13 S-R). Six participants (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R) were satisfied with medical aid in terms of received benefits. However three participants (15 S-R; 11 S-L) felt that lower level employees could receive more benefits. Leave, including sick leave, was seen to be flexible and sufficient in the amount of days (4 S-L; 5 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 15 S-R). Three participants felt that the organisation could do better 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 15 S-R however majority of the participants were fully satisfied with employee benefits.

Work-life benefits

Other benefits over and above those legally stipulated were also found, these benefits were termed work-life benefits (see Table 7.5.). Non-work benefits were raised by eight participants (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 14 S-R; 15 S-R) and include provisions for – school fees and expenses, travel expenses and bus service, water and electricity, housing and accommodation, training, employee assistance programmes (discussed above in this section), an in-house nursery (recently upgraded), primary school (busy upgrading) aftercare, and family and employee medical expenses. Participant 6 S-R felt however that there were less perquisites at lower levels and participant 14 S-R felt that the housing benefits were discriminatory in that she did not qualify for these benefits and participant 13 S-R felt that there was nothing for teenagers to do because management have young kids and have only met their needs. Participant 2 C-R felt that assistance in paying for flights to go visit their family in China would increase satisfaction with economic and family needs. It is also far to travel to China which cannot be changed by the employee or the organisation without job change (1 C-L; 2 C-R).

Organisation ABC has a strong ‘family’ orientation and tries to decrease role conflict or negative spillover between the work and family life-domains. Family members are often invited to functions and spouses and children are invited to apply for jobs and internships at the organisation and children are offered training after school (6 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L). Two

participants (13 S-R; 16 S-L) felt that they had flexibility to fulfil family responsibilities, and six participants (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 9 S-R; 13 S-R; 15 S-R; 16 S-L) felt that they had the family support needed from the organisation. Participant 15 S-R felt to the contrary that there was insufficient support and understanding from leaders.

Social need dimension

Recreational and social events

The recreational and social events (see Table 7.5.) made reference to by participants include; eat-outs, retreats, funded sports events and tournaments (in house and external), dinner balls and functions. Four participants feel that the recreational and social events planned by the organisation led to satisfaction of social needs (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L). Whilst three participants (14 S-R; 15 S-R; 16 S-L) gained satisfaction in that they recognise and appreciate the efforts made by the organisation despite choosing not to attend social events. Participant 3 C-R feels that more social and recreational events would increase social need satisfaction. While dissatisfaction is experienced by two participants (15 S-R; 16 S-L) in that there is a perceived lack of diversity in the social events.

From a leadership perspective it can be seen that the provision of recreational and social events also serve as a mechanism to reward performance and build team spirit. For example Participant 5 S-L says that;

“I try to keep the team motivated. So [...] if they had a good month or shift, we’ll give them a braai and go out the working place to the club or where ever and we will all have a braai together and [...] thank the guys, so it helps with the team the team spirit” (5 S-L)

5 S-L	33	M	W	PGH	DU	3.5
-------	----	---	---	-----	----	-----

Location

Location also emerged as a dominant antecedent to social need satisfaction (see Table 7.5.). The importance of the location as a QWL antecedent is illustrated by Participant 4 S-L who says;

“[...] the main reasons for any turnover on your middle and senior management level in the factory is [...] the guys want to go back to the cities” (4 S-L).

4 S-L	39	M	W	PG	E	2
-------	----	---	---	----	---	---

The remote and rural town the mining operation is located in impedes upon the satisfaction of some participants' social needs in terms of resources and facilities (4 S-L; 6 S-R; 14 S-R). Travelling distances are a cause of dissatisfaction (4 S-L; 7 S-L; 8 S-R). However the organisation has made a concerted drive towards meeting the dissatisfaction caused by the location of the town in terms of providing; recreational and social events (as discussed above in this section), facilities and amenities, employees with a half day of work every second Friday to allow for long distance travelling over the weekend. Participants 11 S-L and 5 S-L contend that the lifestyle of the remote location is a source of satisfaction and aids in a leisurely lifestyle in comparison to the city lifestyle. Whilst Participants 9 S-R and 10 L-R assert that they enjoy the location in that they were born in the town.

The location of the Chinese participants is very different to that of the mining operations in that the Chinese participants are based in an urban area. In as much it can be expected that the points of satisfaction and dissatisfaction would be very different. The dominant cause of dissatisfaction that emerged from the Chinese participants (1 C-L 2 C-R) was that of safety given the high crime rate of Gauteng and South Africa as a whole. Moreover Participants 1 C-L, 2 C-R, and 3 C-R discussed travelling to China is difficult. On the other hand Participant 3 C-R and his family is satisfied with the location and enjoy South Africa for various reasons.

Leisure time availability

Leisure time availability impacts upon the satisfaction of social needs (see Table 7.5.) Nine participants (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 15 S-R) contended that having enough time off of work is a driver of social need satisfaction. Participant 1 C-L and 12 S-L feel that there is inadequate time off work while Participant 14 S-R contends that

she opts to work longer hours, thus indicating that time for leisure is perceived to be less pervasive. Eleven participants feel that they are satisfied with the level of work-life balance (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 10 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 16 S-L). One participant (15 S-R) is unsatisfied with her work-life balance however is cognisant of the fact that it is due to her difficulty in separating her work and non-work responsibilities. Overtime is monitored by Organisation ABC to ensure legal compliance, reduce the higher labour cost of overtime and to try prevent employee overload and burnout (11 S-L).

Esteem

Recognition and appreciation

Recognition and appreciation emerged as a dominant code discussed within the esteem need dimension (see Table 7.5.). The importance of recognition was illustrated by Participant 12 S-L who says;

“Recognising downwards [is important as] [...] some individuals need you to help them be motivated. That’s why I’ll say to people [...] ‘listen, well done’” (12 S-L).

12 S-L	40	M	W	D	DL	20
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

In terms of recognition five of the participants (3 C-R; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 14 S-R) are satisfied while four participants (8 S-R; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 16 S-L) are unsatisfied. Three participants (7 S-L; 11 S-L; 14 S-R) felt that extra efforts or achievements were recognised and appreciated by the organisation. Participant 3 C-R, while satisfied, believed that greater recognition and appreciation would create greater satisfaction. Participant 16 S-L expressed that recognition is problematic at every organisational level while participant 12 S-L says that the recognition is dependent on one’s leader. A lack of recognition was described as leading to decreased performance by three participants (8 S-R; 13 S-R; 16 S-L). A unique perspective of recognition can be seen with 1 C-L who equated financial remuneration and recognition. Participants 11 S-L and 12 S-L feel however that recognition and appreciation are not important needs, both focusing on actualisation as a key source of QWL.

Rewards

‘Rewards’ is also a dominant code influencing the satisfaction of esteem needs (see Table 7.5.). Several rewards - prizes, bonuses, extra benefits, employee of the month, and engineering awards – emerged that Organisation ABC offers to employees as a form of

recognition and appreciation. In terms of the tangible rewards, five participants (10 S-L; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R; 16 S-L) are unsatisfied while four participants (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 9 S-R) are satisfied. Disparity in the perception of extrinsic rewards can be seen in that participants 4 S-L and 9 S-R feel that these rewards are inclusive however participants 10 S-L and 13 S-R express dissatisfaction due to disparity in who received intrinsic rewards. Three participants (11 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R) stated that no one in their work group had ever been nominated or awarded employee of the month and two participants (13 S-R; 16 S-L) say that they do not know the criteria or election process for employee of the month. Seven participants (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 14 S-R) stated that they gained satisfaction from intrinsic rewards. On the other hand three participants (7 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R) felt that there was a need for greater intrinsic rewards. Participant 15 S-R was unsatisfied that most non-financial rewards were at lower organisational levels.

Actualisation need dimension

Training and education

Training and education emerged as a dominant actualisation code (see Table 7.5.), and illustrates a belief that learning and improvement lead to technical and personal growth necessary for actualisation. This viewpoint is well illustrated by Participant 1 C-L who says;

“I think people they need to study further or maybe some of them you are satisfied with that then that means you don’t want to grow over again. So for me, I think I can grow again I can do better” (1 C-L)

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

Thus actualisation is not only seen as the advancement of one’s organisational position through promotion but also in terms of personal growth. In terms of formal training and education, seven participants (2 C-R; 5 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 15 S-R) are satisfied whereas three participants (3 C-R; 10 S-L; 13 S-R) are unsatisfied. More training, aimed at up-skilling and promoting within lower organisational levels, was said to be needed by participants 10 S-L and 13 S-R. This finding stands in contrast to the perception of 9 S-R that there is experience flow to lower levels. Any training that is asked for by employees or suggested by leaders will be paid for by the organisation provided the training is perceived to be beneficial within the workplace (5 S-L; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 15 S-R).

Development structures

‘Development structures’ is also identified as a dominant code to actualisation needs (see Table 7.5.). Individual development programmes (IDP’s) - aimed at identifying and report on key performance indicators (KPI’s) for each employee – emerged as a key development structure. Four participants (5 S-L; 6 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) expressed satisfaction with the IDP however three participants expressed dissatisfaction with the implementation and feedback of IDP’s (10 S-L; 14 S-R; 16 S-L). Inconsistent implementation (and consequent varied perceived effectiveness) is illustrated by participant 6 S-R saying the IDP’s are done biannually but participant 15 S-R says the IDP’s are conducted quarterly. The influence of poor performance feedback is illustrated by Participant 14 S-R who says;

“We don’t get any feedback. So you can’t grow, you can’t correct your mistakes, you can’t [...] give your input and say why did you do that, or why you didn’t do that” (14 S-R)

14 S-R	64	F	W	D	CU	36
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

It was brought forward that there is a leadership development programme which seeks to identify, monitor and grow leadership potential within the organisation (6 S-R). The existence of a growth trajectory for employees could also be evidenced by participants 12 S-L 14 S-R who reflected on how much they have grown retrospectively. Development within Organisation ABC can be seen to be approached holistically in that five participants (7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) also described personal growth and development.

Promotion and growth opportunities

Promotion and growth opportunities are also a dominant code influencing actualisation needs (see Table 7.5.). Three participants (3 C-R; 6 S-R; 11 S-L) feel that the organisation provides growth opportunities. Growth is also seen to stem from an ‘experience curve’ (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 7 S-L; 12 S-L; 14 S-R) as well as participation in new or challenging activities or tasks (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 12 S-L). Discriminatory promotion and growth opportunities were a source of dissatisfaction however (8 S-R, 10 S-L, 13 S-R). Dissatisfaction is experienced by participants 3 C-R and 5 S-L in that they desired to be promoted. It was noted by four participants (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) however that there is also a personal responsibility to pursue growth opportunities and promotions. Promotion is perceived to not lead to for participant 11 S-L the flat organisational structure, and for participant 1 C-L the

senior management position whereby horizontal growth as opposed to vertical growth or promotion in the organisational structure.

Knowledge need dimension

Learning opportunities and support

Learning opportunities and learning support systems – both formal and informal - provided to employees is found to influence knowledge need satisfaction (see Table 7.5.). Formal learning opportunities were a source of satisfaction for 11 of the participants (1 C-L; 4 S-L; 9 S-R; 6 S-R; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 15 S-R; 14 S-R; 16 S-L) and a source of dissatisfaction for four participants (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 10 S-L; 13 S-R). Eleven participants (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 15 S-R; 16 S-L) gained satisfaction from informal learning opportunities while it is a source of dissatisfaction for four participants (10 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 16 S-L).

Training and education (discussed above) emerged as a driver of actualisation needs. Learning opportunities extend into general wellbeing for example disease prevention and health, stress management and emotional intelligence (8 S-R; 9 S-R; 12 S-L; 15 S-R). Formal learning programs are run internally – appi programs, graduate internships, and artisan programs - and sought externally – training courses, diplomas, degrees and MBA programs. The satisfaction of knowledge needs was described as self-driven by the senior management level participants (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L) who received little organisational support in meeting knowledge needs. Participant 2 C-R does however feel that he has been encouraged to study within and beyond the scope of field of expertise, even though the opportunity was not provided by the organisation. Training and development differ across organisational levels and departments (1 C-L; 4 S-L; 7 S-L). Dissatisfaction was experienced for various other reasons such as; a lack of system knowledge, training being too basic, and training intervention design (10 S-L; 13 S-R; 16 S-L; 14 S-R). On the other hand complex problem solving, structure and systems that enhance knowledge and learning, and information sharing are driving satisfaction levels for some participants (8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 15 S-R; 16 S-L).

Knowledge needs can also be perceived to be non-satisfiable supporting the arguments of life-long continuous learning (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L). In as much while satisfaction is gained from learning opportunities, the need for knowledge is never fully satisfied. This

argument is in line with Herzberg's (1966, cited in Voster, 2010) motivation theory which suggests that what motivates you – motivation factors - is not necessarily what demotivates you – hygiene factors.

Aesthetics need dimension

Creativity at work and personal creativity

Creativity at work and personal creativity a dominant aesthetics need code (see Table 7.5.). Ten participants (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 9 S-R; 12 S-L; 14 S-R; 15 S-R) feel they are encouraged to share ideas and opinions, and solve problems. One participant (13 S-R) does however feel that there is limited opportunity to try new things and shared ideas are seldom implemented. The main predecessors to creativity include; participation (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 9 S-R; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 15 S-R) and autonomy (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 14 S-R) both largely influenced by job description and job design because certain jobs lend themselves to creativity and innovation (2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 8 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) more so than other jobs that necessitate stringent procedures and close supervision (7 S-L; 8 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R). Some participants felt that opportunities for work or personal creativity were offered daily (8 S-R; 12 S-L; 14 S-R), other participants (8 S-R; 11 S-L; 14 S-R) feel that these opportunities are offered conditionally – when work is complete or when the benefit of ideas is proven unequivocally. Furthermore it can also be said that while these opportunities for creative expression and work conditions are provided that employees are not always willing to change or be creative and as such employees also have a personal responsibility to meet aesthetics needs (6 S-R; 8 S-R).

General aesthetics

Satisfaction of aesthetics needs also stems from one's sense of general aesthetics - resources and facilities and the general working environment (see Table 7.5.). Resources – such as; boardrooms, television screens for presentations, coffee machines - and facilities – such as; the club, sports facilities, gym, a clothing outlet, the dam, parks, wildlife and nature conservancy, restaurant - are a source of satisfaction for 14 participants (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 15 S-R; 16 S-L). Certain participants (11 S-L; 15 S-R; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 16 S-L) feel that resources – latest technology, broken equipment - and facilities – canteen, showers, vending machine, and

parking space - are a source of dissatisfaction. Several participants (5 S-L; 8 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 14 S-R) feel that they have the tools to do their job however these tools are neither *per se* a driver of satisfaction nor dissatisfaction but perceived as a necessary basic provision, without which work could not be completed. Four participants (7 S-L; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 13 S-R; 16 S-L) explicitly expressed that there was room for improvement in terms of general aesthetics.

Within the mining plant and smelter operation the work environment is not a clean or easy working environment (5 S-L; 8 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L), which can be expected given the nature of the industry and to some degree even inherent in job description. Flowing from this the work environment is a source of dissatisfaction for three (5 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) participants while 8 S-R accepts that it is inherent within the nature of the job and thus does not influence satisfaction levels negatively. Disparity between the plant and office environments as well across departments cause dissatisfaction for two participants (6 S-R; 13 S-R). The recent upgrades to the offices was a source of satisfaction for three participants (11 S-L; 12 S-L; 16 S-L) who perceived them as necessary improvements while the upgrades where a source of dissatisfaction in that it is felt that the upgrading; has been on superficial things not affecting majority of employees (6 S-R; 13 S-R). Participant 12 S-L also experienced dissatisfaction in that the upgrades resulted in disruptions.

An insensitivity to the dissatisfaction of lower level employees is illustrated by participant 7 S-L;

“The subordinates especially in the control rooms [...] they [re] all the time complain[ing] the chairs are broken, the chairs is not fixed [sic]. But these sorts of things [is what] you get from employees what is cry babies [sic]” (7 S-L).

7 S-L	39	M	B	PGH	DU	1.5
-------	----	---	---	-----	----	-----

To the contrary participant 16 S-L says;

“I’ve been [working here] for six years. Where we come from and where we are now I think it’s really something to be proud of, to be more satisfied with. I always say ‘make the best of what you have’ in order to see people that you can help who deserve more [...]” (16 S-L)

16 S-L	35	F	B	Ba	DL	6
--------	----	---	---	----	----	---

This quote illustrates that the participant is willing to forgo the satisfaction of her own aesthetics needs in that there are fellow employees who need the allocation of funds to a greater degree, thus portraying a collective-orientation to need satisfaction (Gelfand *et al.*, 2007; Jackson, 1999; Hofstede, 1984).

7.4. SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

Chapter Seven has presented and discussed the findings pertaining to QWL perceptions – defining as well as describing the level of QWL (through need satisfaction) and the antecedents to that level of satisfaction. From the in-depth content analysis of the South African QWL definitions ten dominant codes emerged, namely; ‘happiness or enjoyment’, ‘motivation to attend work’, ‘work environment’, ‘job satisfaction’, ‘asked to apply knowledge and share ideas’, ‘career and personal development’, ‘health and safety’, ‘collegiality and team spirit’, ‘daily achievement and self-actualisation’, and ‘horizontal spillover’. These codes were found across four themes – nature of QWL, structural antecedents, personal antecedents, and connotes (as indicated in Table 7.6.). From the in-depth content analysis of the Chinese participants’ definitions (see Table 7.6.) of QWL, it was found that nine dominant codes emerged (‘wellbeing’, ‘not happiness’, ‘fulfilment’, ‘asked to apply knowledge and share ideas’, ‘career and personal development’, ‘participate in management’, ‘good team’, ‘build knowledge, learning opportunities’, ‘good relationships with all stakeholders’) which fall within the three main themes of; nature of QWL, structural antecedents, and social antecedents.

TABLE 7.6: COMPREHENSIVE QUALITY OF WORK LIFE CODES FOR THE CHINESE AND SOUTH AFRICAN CLUSTERS

South African cluster	Chinese cluster
NATURE OF QWL THEME	
Motivation to attend work	Wellbeing
Happiness or enjoyment	Not happiness
Job satisfaction	Fulfilment
Work environment	
STRUCTURAL ANTECEDENTS THEME	
Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas	Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas
Career and personal development	Career and personal development
Health and safety	Participate in management
	Good team
	Build knowledge, learning opportunities
PERSONAL ANTECEDENTS THEME	
Daily achievement and self-actualisation	
Collegiality and team spirit	
SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS THEME	
	Good relationship with all stakeholders
CONNOTES THEME	
Horizontal spillover	

It can be seen in Table 7.6. above that there were no common ‘nature of QWL’ codes between South African and Chinese participants. When comparing the comprehensive code list there does however seem to be a distinct difference in that the code of ‘happiness or enjoyment’ can be contrasted with the code of ‘wellbeing’ and ‘not happiness’. Two common codes were found within the structural antecedents theme – ‘asked to apply knowledge and share ideas’ and ‘career and personal development’. No common dominant codes can be found within the personal antecedents theme, the social antecedents theme, or connotes theme in that these themes were unique either to the South African or Chinese clusters. Other

similarities can be found between the South African and Chinese QWL definitions but not all of these codes were included within the comprehensive codes for both clusters. Major variation between the themes and codes can be seen for the QWL definition findings for the Chinese and South African clusters in comparison to the findings for the leadership definition thus illustrating the dynamic nature of QWL and the variability caused by the subjectivity of the QWL phenomenon.

Subsequent to the discussion of indigenous definitions of QWL constructs, the research described the level of QWL within the case organisation. An overall expected value of QWL ($\bar{x}$ = 1.01) was calculated using mean scores of the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) seven need dimensions derived from the data. This expected value of QWL indicates that participants within the case organisation generally fall within the 'satisfied' ($\bar{x}$ > 1) QWL need satisfaction level. The mean satisfaction scores for the seven need dimensions were interrogated across Chinese and South African clusters so as to further understand potential need conflict within the intercultural work environment. Overall the Chinese participants were found to have a higher QWL level than South African participants.

To understand the QWL level and describe the phenomenon more accurately the antecedents to need satisfaction, both positive and negative, in each of the seven need dimensions was explored. From the in-depth content analysis of the QWL data 21 dominant codes were found across the seven need dimensions or themes (see Table 7.5.). These dominant codes representing QWL antecedents includes; employee benefits (*health and safety*), support systems, preventative measures, safety management systems, unsafe environments, pay, job security, employee benefits (*economic and family*), work-life benefits, recreational and social events, location, leisure time availability, recognition and appreciation, rewards, training and education, development structures, promotion and growth opportunities, learning opportunities and support, creativity at work and personal creativity, and general aesthetics (as in Table 7.5.). Overall Chapter Seven has described the QWL phenomenon from an indigenous viewpoint – South African and Chinese – so as to better understand the cultural relativity of QWL as well as to bring light to the need to define culturally sensitive phenomena indigenously prior to exploration of cultural influence on the said phenomena (as was the case with leadership in Section 6.3.). From the findings and discussion it can be seen that both similarities and differences can be seen between the Chinese and South African participants' QWL definitions. Having presented the findings pertaining to objective three, seeking to understand indigenous definitions of the QWL construct.

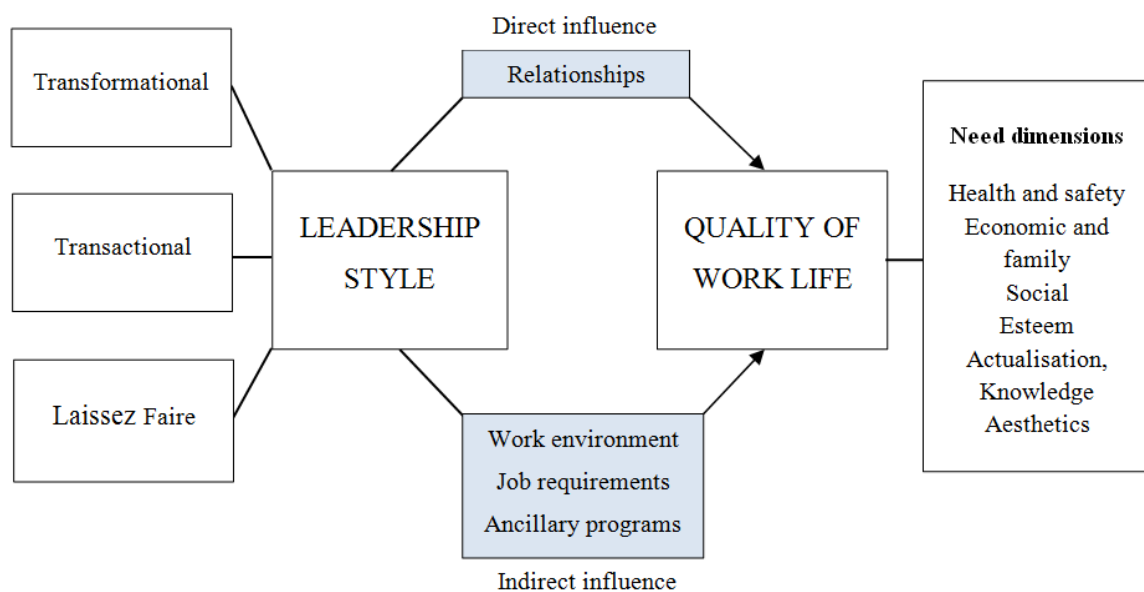
CHAPTER EIGHT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

8.1. OVERVIEW

In Chapter Seven, having outlined some of the findings pertaining to indigenous definitions of the QWL construct as well as to the level of QWL, Chapter Eight will explore the potential relationships between leadership style and QWL, with the view of meeting the last research objective. The findings of Chapter Eight were derived by cross-tabulating the dominant leadership style described by each participant with the corresponding level of QWL described. Figure 8.1. below illustrates the overall study and highlights the research construct that the findings of this chapter pertains to.

FIGURE 8.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



This primary research aim is exploratory and seeks to determine whether the influence of leadership on QWL warrants further in-depth, systematic and rigorous analysis.

8.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

8.2.1. Cross-tabulation of leadership style and quality of work life

Table 8.1. indicates that 44% (n=7) of the participants (3 C-R; 4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 9 S-R; 11 S-L; 12 S-L) who described their own leadership style or the leadership style of their leader as dominantly transformational, have an overall QWL level of satisfied. Also Table 8.1. below indicates that another 19% (n= 3) of the participants (1 C-L; 8 S-R; 16 S-L) that described themselves or their leaders as predominantly exhibiting a transformational leadership style are partly satisfied. This is the second highest QWL satisfaction level as per the satisfaction key adopted for the purpose of this study. Table 8.1. also highlights that no other discernible patterns emerge from the data since the remaining six participants (2 C-R; 6 S-R; 10 S-L; 13 S-R; 14 S-R; 15 S-R) are individually dispersed across the four levels of QWL and dominant leadership styles.

TABLE 8.1: DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLE AND CORRESPONDING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE LEVEL DESCRIBED

Dominant LS	Level of quality of work life				n=
	<i>S</i>	<i>PS</i>	<i>PU</i>	<i>U</i>	
<i>Transformational</i>	44% (n= 7)	19% (n= 3)	6% (n= 1)	0% (n= 0)	11
<i>Transactional</i>	6% (n= 1)	6% (n= 1)	0% (n= 0)	0% (n= 0)	8
<i>Laissez-faire</i>	6% (n= 1)	6% (n= 1)	6% (n= 1)	0% (n= 0)	3
<i>n=</i>	9	5	2	0	16

Notes. *S*= Satisfied; *PS* = Partly satisfied; *PU* = Partly unsatisfied; *U*= Unsatisfied; *n*= number of observations.

8.2.1.1. Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership

It appears, then, that transformational leadership styles influence QWL levels positively. Conversely, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership styles do not positively or negatively influence QWL levels. This is in line with the general consensus that the adoption of more transformational leadership styles should engender greater QWL levels than that of transactional leadership (Kara *et al.*, 2013; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005; Hogg, 2001: 185). The findings of this study are supported by Jackson *et al.* (2012). That is, they suggest that

transactional leadership may not necessarily decrease satisfaction levels. It can, on the contrary, be expected to not improve QWL to the same extent as transformational leadership. This is not to say that leadership is the sole determinant of QWL. We have only to consider that participants describe non-transformational leadership styles with nevertheless high levels of QWL while others describe transformational leadership styles with low levels of QWL. The point to draw from the data is that, strictly speaking, there is no preconceived correlative between the one or another leadership style and the level of QWL. Rather, there is a cumulative effect of leadership which results in the levels of overall satisfaction.

Looking at Table 8.1. above, one participant (10 S-L) described a transformational leadership style but also a partly unsatisfied QWL level. The participant was, in any event, describing his own leadership style as being transformational, which may be subject to a self enhancement bias – either social comparison (a disposition to perceive oneself more positively than they perceive others) (Aarons *et al.*, 2015; Van der Kam *et al.*, 2014; Sedikides & Gregg, 2008). While Participant 10 S-L described his own leadership style as being transformational, there was a tendency for this participant to describe management as being transactional or *laissez-faire*. Of note should be that participant 10 S-L is within the skilled employment code. Research has shown the lower organisational levels tend to have lower QWL levels, and specifically low levels of satisfaction within the higher-order need dimensions (Sirgy *et al.*, 2008; Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Rothner, 2005; Rannona, 2003) which can be seen with Participant 10 S-L see Table 8.1.).

Looking at the findings pertaining to the potential relationships between a *laissez-faire* leadership style, some interesting findings emerge; Table 8.1. demonstrate three participants, all leader-raters, described a *laissez-faire* leadership style (6 S-R; 13 S-R; 14 S-R). Two participants described a dominant leadership style of *laissez-faire* and simultaneously described a satisfied (Participant 14 S-R) or partly satisfied (Participant 6 S-R) level of QWL, while one participant is partly unsatisfied (13 S-R). The *laissez-faire* leadership style was largely attributable to low inspirational motivation, low intellectual stimulation and low individualised consideration scores, linked to no job enrichment (no change in job description or task expectation), and a lack of positive leader-member exchange.

A study conducted by Kara *et al.* (2013), using similar theoretical frameworks as those adopted within this thesis, also found that no relationship exists between transactional leadership and QWL, whilst transformational leadership was found to have a significant

positive impact upon QWL. Several studies, which employ various models, have similarly found that there was a positive relationship between transformational leadership and satisfaction levels (Van der Berg & Martins, 2013; Yaghoubipoor *et al.*, 2013; Castro & Martins, 2010; Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007). While a great many studies on employee related satisfaction and wellbeing conclude that leadership negatively affects QWL levels (Greyvenstein & Cilliers, 2012; Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Rothmann & Cilliers, 2007), this study highlights that leadership, if it viewed perspicaciously, can also contribute positively to the QWL levels.

Transformational leadership behaviours such as participative leadership, have been found to lead to positive organisational behaviours and attitudes in China and South Africa (van der Berg & Martins, 2013; Cheung *et al.*, 2009; Huang, 2008; Luthans *et al.*, 2004). They can also enhance cultural sensitivity when aligned to African and Chinese leadership characteristics such as paternalistic leadership. Additionally, transformational leadership styles can aid in building the satisfaction levels of employees (Nkomo & Cook, 2006; Shonhiwa, 2006; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005).

8.2.1.2. Direct and indirect influence leaders have on quality of work life

Through engagement and co-operation, leaders are able to build better employee-employer relationships where leaders and followers work together to solve problems (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2012). This is supported by leadership definition codes such as ‘work together with and be involved with the team’, ‘co-operation’ and ‘trust and respect’, and ‘participative leadership’ (Section 6.3.1.). Moreover, a QWL antecedent code that emerged in Section 7.3.1. was; ‘asked to apply knowledge and share ideas’.

This study finds that there is no strong orientation towards the building of social relationships between leaders and their subordinates. Most of the participants stated that there is an open-door policy within the organisation, which made leaders more approachable and accessible. There is also support in terms of actual work, they mentioned, in addition to the view that – generally – participants felt that they had a good professional working relationships with their leaders. Seven participants noted an overemphasis on professional relationships that outweighed attitudes of building social relationships within the workplace (3 C-R; 6 S-R; 7 S-L; 8 S-R; 11 S-L; 14 S-L; 15 S-R). This finding is demonstrated by Participant 6 S-R who mentions that;

“[...] there’s no hostility between colleagues that are working but some people have stronger relationships and bonds than other ones have, it depends on the person but there’s no real drive here to try and build [relationships]” (6 S-R).

6 S-R	28	F	W	PGH	DL	5
-------	----	---	---	-----	----	---

Having said that, strong social relationships were seen to be key between *some* leaders and *some* subordinates by 3 participants (3 C-R; 5 S-L; 8 S-R). From a leader perspective, building strong trust relationships is key to the establishment of good working relationships which was supported by all of the leaders (1 C-L, 4, S-L, 5 S-L, 7 S-L, 10 S-L, 11 S-L, 16 S-L). Decisions pertaining to almost every facet of work life can influence satisfaction levels (Dousti *et al.*, 2012). Over and above positive relationships between leaders and raters, QWL is also positively affected by leaders who ensure employee wellbeing and need satisfaction (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2008). The values and strategic intent of senior management leaders, and the implementation thereof, influence QWL levels through the resultant organisational and work environment (Unger, Keith, Hilling, Gielnik & Frese, 2009). It follows then, that leaders play a key role in ensuring an organisational and work environment that meets the needs of employees is fostered. Work environment factors such as job design, job security, promotion and growth opportunities as well as support, are often perceived as non-strategic. However, as the data and theory have consistently shown, they can in fact be tools with which leaders can create greater levels of QWL.

Among lower level employees, who typically have high interaction patterns with immediate supervisors yet experience limited engagement with senior management at higher organisational levels, two notable levels of leadership influence stand out. Firstly, the influence of strategic decisions made by senior management is seen to indirectly affect lower level employees' QWL. This may be explained by the important contribution that ‘decision-making participation’ makes towards QWL (Hian & Einstein, 1990). With lower level employees having little to no ‘voice’ in decisions about changes in conditions, rules, and other aspects of the work environment (Rose, Beh, Uli & Idris, 2006), it is not surprising that the participants who work within lower organisational levels reported relatively lower transformational leadership behaviours. It stands to reason that employees who work in lower organisational levels, regardless of whether they are a leader or a leader-rater, have generally had less exposure to the educational and experiential opportunities which

provide an environment where individuals interact with transformational leaders and can choose to develop themselves accordingly (Bass, 1999).

8.2.2. The distribution of findings across leaders and leader-raters

The distribution of leaders and leader-raters illustrated in Table 8.2. below shows a disposition for leaders to describe themselves as transformational. This is in opposition to the accounts of leader-raters, who describe their leaders as reflecting a transactional leadership style. There is also a trend of leaders to express a higher level of QWL than leader-raters. Table 8.2. also shows that all of the leaders (n=8) described themselves as; having a transformational leadership style, 62.5% (n=5), or being satisfied (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 7 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L). Of those, 25% (n=2) are partly satisfied (1 C-L; 16 S-L), and 12.5% (n=1) is partly unsatisfied (this is Participant 10 S-L discussed in Section 8.2.1.). Table 8.2. indicates that and 37.5% (n=3) of the leader-raters included in the study described a dominant leadership style of transformational leadership – 25% (n=2) are satisfied (3 C-R; 9 S-R) and 12.5% (8 S-R) is partly satisfied, and one is partly unsatisfied. None of the leaders described a dominant leadership style of transactional. Twenty five percent (n=2) of the leader-raters described a transactional leadership style, 12.5% (n=1) is satisfied (2 C-R) and 12.5% (n=1) is partly unsatisfied (15 S-R). No leader described a dominant leadership style of *laissez-faire* while 37.5% (n=3) of leader-raters described a *laissez-faire* leadership style; 12.5% (n=1) is satisfied (14 S-R), 12.5% (n=1) is partly satisfied, and 12.5% (n=1) is partly unsatisfied (these three participants - 6 S-R; 13 S-R; 14 S-R - were discussed in Section 8.2.1.).

TABLE 8.2: DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLE AND CORRESPONDING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE LEVEL ACROSS LEADERS AND LEADER-RATERS

Dominant LS	Level of quality of work life			
	S f_p =	PS f_p =	PU f_p =	Σf_p =
Transformational Leaders	62.5% (n= 5)	25% (n= 2)	12.5% (n= 1)	100% (n=8)
Leader-raters	25% (n= 2)	12.5% (n= 1)	-	37.5% (n=3)
Transactional Leader-raters	12.5% (n= 1)	-	12.5% (n= 1)	25% (n=2)
Laissez-faire Leader-raters	12.5% (n= 1)	12.5% (n= 1)	12.5% (n= 1)	37.5% (n=3)
Σf_p = Leaders	62.5% (n= 5)	25% (n= 2)	12.5% (n= 1)	-
Leader-raters	50% (n= 4)	25% (n= 2)	25% (n= 2)	-

Notes. LS= Leadership style; n = Number of observations; f_p = Percentage frequency; Σf_p = Sum of percentage frequency

A notable frequency distribution is that 62.5% (n=5) of leaders described both a transformational leadership style and a satisfied QWL level. No clearly discernible pattern between the QWL and leadership style (see Table 8.2.) described by the leader-raters can be seen since only two of the leader-raters fell within the same leadership style-QWL level. The finding of this study is, therefore, that leaders had a notable trend. They describe positive leadership and need satisfaction levels. This may be connected to the well-documented phenomenon of the inherent differences between leaders' self-ratings versus those of leader-raters (Chang 2014; Fisher & Yuan, 1998).

With this considered, it is worth noting that Van der Kam, Janssen, van der Vegt and Stoker (2014: 268) argue that inflated perceptions of one's own leadership ability can negatively affect leader behaviour. Social psychology research findings provide evidence "indicating that self-enhancement generally produces negative effects on interpersonal processes and relationships such as reduced camaraderie, increased animosity, and even social exclusion". Leaders within ABC (irrespective of organisational level) ought to be mindful of potential biases. Moreover, the leaders ought to be aware that they are more likely to be experiencing a higher level of QWL than leader-raters.

While the influence of the senior management leadership is seen to indirectly affect lower level employees, the mechanisms through which immediate leaders or supervisors influence subordinates is more personal and direct in nature. This highlights the integral nature of workplace relationships and QWL, particularly in light of the leader-member exchange relationship (Kara *et al.*, 2013; Rothman & Cooper, 2008; Hian & Einstein, 1990). Overall, it is important to note that the relationship between leaders and employees is weaker when the said leader is not a direct supervisor. An illustration of this is given by participant 14 S-R who says;

“The people of the higher [organisational] levels are more in meetings, [...] in this ‘indaba’, [...] getting feedback from what’s going on, they read the newspapers, they listen to the radio and the people at the bottom [organisational levels] don’t have that communication and then I think they can feel insecure if they don’t know what’s going on” (14 S-R).

14 S-R	64	F	W	D	CU	36
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

The relationship between the South African and Chinese senior management differs from that of lower level employees. While lower level employees have little engagement with the senior management, middle management and senior management engages routinely with senior management leaders. The nature of the relationship is described by Participant 1 C-L as;

“[...] the main management team [...] we try to channel, we try to learn from each other team. Maybe I learn [...] or try maybe to challenge our partner. So we try to keep talking with [the] team and try to keep understanding each other, I think it’s very important” (1 C-L).

1 C-L	37	M	Ch	Phd	E	8	8
-------	----	---	----	-----	---	---	---

The extract above indicates that the senior management members of the organisation have a good working relationship, based on values of reciprocity, understanding and partnership (Gouldner, 1960).

8.2.3. Distribution of the findings across ethnicity

All participants (6 S-R; 13 S-R; 14 S-R) who described a *laissez-faire* leadership style where white South African and have varying levels of satisfaction. Whilst the other three white participants (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 12 S-L) were male leaders who described a

transformational leadership style. They also registered and a high level of QWL. While no discernible patterns emerge in terms of QWL levels for white participants, the distribution of white males and white females is interesting and worth further investigation. Of the six black South Africans that described a transformational leadership style, two are satisfied (7 S-L; 9 S-R), two are partly satisfied (8 S-R; 16 S-L), and one was partly unsatisfied (10 S-L) (discussed above in section 8.2.1.1.). The one black South African participant (15 S-R) that described a transactional leadership style is partly unsatisfied. Therefore, Table 8.3. shows that despite the tendency for black South Africans to describe more transformational leadership styles (irrespective of whether they are leaders or leader-raters) than white South Africans, the black South African participants reported lower QWL levels relative to the white South Africans.

TABLE 8.3: DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLE AND CORRESPONDING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE LEVEL ACROSS ETHNICITY

Dominant LS	Level of quality of work life					
	S	f	PS	f	PU	f
<i>Transformational</i>	CH	1	CH	1	SA (B)	1
	SA (B)	2	SA (B)	2		
	SA (W)	3				
	SA (C)	1				
<i>Transactional</i>	CH	1			SA (B)	1
<i>Laissez-faire</i>	SA (W)	1	SA (W)	1	SA (W)	1

Notes. S= Satisfied; PS = Partly satisfied; PU = Partly unsatisfied; U= Unsatisfied; CH = Chinese; SA= South African; B= Black; W= White; C= Coloured; f= Frequency

In particular, Booysen (2007) indicates that the Employment Equity Act has not been upheld within South African organisations. He asserts that this is indicative of the unwillingness of organisations to transform and to be representative of the population. In South Africa, it has been said that labour legislation and the unionisation of labour, has largely resulted in strenuous labour relations. Generally unionised work forces are less satisfied than non-unionised labour in that unions promote adversarial employee-employer relations and emphasise dissatisfaction. But of course, the core function of unions is to promote the wellbeing of employees, and to protect them against undue workplace victimization and injustice (Clark, 2001: 239; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991: 195). Arguably, the nature of

collective bargaining and the strong power of worker unions in South Africa have resulted in a divide rather than unity between employers and employees, which has led to dissatisfaction in the work place, strike action, low productivity and absenteeism (Nyengane, 2007).

Organisational health and safety forms part of organisational design and relates to employees being taken care of (Vagharseyyedin *et al.*, 2011). On the one hand, some argue that there is increasing dissatisfaction caused by job insecurity among many white workers, particularly young and/or male, white employees (Nyengane, 2007; Kotzé, 2005). On the other hand, De Witte (2005) asserts that job insecurity affects all South African employees and found that this negatively impacted upon satisfaction and wellbeing.

Baah and Jauch's (2009) findings that Chinese organisations in South Africa do not always adhere to affirmative action or employment equity legislation may be relevant given the lack of representation of previously disadvantaged groups within higher levels of management. This may be indicative of an issue prevalent within many private companies in South Africa and not ascribable solely to Chinese organisations in South Africa (Thomas, 2003). The issue was raised by Participant 10 S-L who contends that;

“One of the challenges as the organisation is that, even though they are trying, the management needs to be representative. Now it's not representative, we don't have Indians in some positions. [...] if we are talking about employment equity, we should go that extra mile”
(10 S-L)

10 S-L	48	M	B	D	CU	26
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

This quote also indicates that management is not equally representative of all employment groups and expresses a need for management to direct greater efforts towards meeting a desire for representativeness. Participant 10 S-L confirms that the wealth inequality of South Africa permeates into the organisational context and is a source both of dissatisfaction as well as a potential source of conflict between leaders and employees. The mining industry as a whole has experienced significant unrest since the shooting of 34 striking miners at Lonmin platinum mine in Marikana, North West providence (Davies, 2015). In addition, the social events held by the organisation arose as another possible source of dissatisfaction which according to participant 16 S-L, were seen to lead to the exclusion of people of colour. The quote below is telling. It is by participant 16 S-L, in response to the question about what the participant felt the organisation could do to try and better meet her social needs:

“Multiracial [social events], will help because most of the time, being honest, it’s for white people. Black people, we don’t go because the kind of music that is being played 90% of the black people don’t listen to [...] So certain things are being catered more for certain ethnic groups and not for all the people as a whole” (16 S-L).

16 S-L	35	F	B	Ba	DL	6
--------	----	---	---	----	----	---

A different perspective is provided by Participant 11 S-L who felt that understanding culture and diversity is important and that it speaks to the need for emotional intelligence in order to foster positive relationships. Participant 11 S-L also felt that understanding culture and diversity has formed part of the company values and as such, representation within the organisation was good across all ages, genders and races. Participant 5 S-L also contended that for themselves as a leader, it is important to ensure the fair and equal treatment of all employees as well as to ensure that everyone in the organisation has a sense of belonging and a work environment that is geared towards meeting their needs.

Based on the above, the labour tensions that are connected to race and ethnicity within organisation are indicative of the South African work environment as a whole, often having to do with a unfair treatment, unequal opportunities and un-representativeness for previously disadvantaged groups (Schwab, 2014).

Overall, looking at the South African-Chinese intercultural context within the organisation, a notable finding is that; 5 of the 13 South Africans (see Table 8.3.) described a transformational leadership style. They also described their overall satisfaction. The remaining participants appear to be randomly distributed across the various QWL levels and leadership style groupings (see Table 8.3.). Despite the small sample size, which made it difficult to discern patterns within the data pertaining to the Chinese, all three Chinese participants (1 C-L; 2 C-R; 3 C-R) appear to cluster towards the top left of Table 8.3. Although, none of the three Chinese participants fall within the same QWL level and leadership style group.

Of the participants included in this study, nine of the South African participants reported having little or no interaction with Chinese leadership members (4 S-L; 5 S-L; 6 S-R; 8 S-R; 10 S-L; 11 S-L; 12 S-L; 14 S-R; 15 S-R). For example, Participant 14 S-R stated that;

“We’ve actually we’ve got no idea what is [the Chinese] [...] leadership style, nothing. We don’t know anything about it. Maybe the people at top levels know, but not on my floor” (14 S-R)

14 S-R	64	F	W	D	CU	36
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

There were inconsistent findings pertaining to whether greater Chinese involvement and engagement would be beneficial to QWL enhancement in the case organisation; particularly in view of the fact that this amalgamation is not ABC’s first joint venture with a foreign investor. While Participant 12 S-L feels that it is difficult to start with a new joint venture in general, this participant is also optimistic that the joint venture would be successful given that Chinese organisations are globally competitive. Participant 12 S-L highlighted that he was happy that the Chinese joint venture was more in the form of financial support coupled with a preference for the use of local business practices, Participant 12 S-L says;

“What is nice about the Chinese, they came here and they didn’t change our leadership style, where we still make use of that same leadership style that we use[d before the joint venture]” (12 S-L)

12 S-L	40	M	W	D	DL	20
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

But, the lack of interaction from the Chinese leadership is perceived negatively by Participant 8 S-R who contends that;

“[The Chinese] are not really strategically with the company. They do their own thing unless maybe in the [...] plant because of their implementation of a specific project, and they’re bringing more of them. But [...] they’ve been there for quite a long time and we don’t really have an interaction with them” (8 S-R)

8 S-R	43	M	B	Ba, D	DL	4
-------	----	---	---	-------	----	---

The lack of Chinese interaction is likely to be the result of the *glocal* internalisation strategy adopted within the joint venture whereby management teams are recruited locally so as to minimise cultural conflict and misunderstandings (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). While efforts to localise leadership within ABC exists, the Chinese employees must still behave traditionally with the Chinese holding company (1 C-L). Fisher and Yaun (1998: 516) state that expatriate leaders poorly predicted subordinate’s preferences and needs while Chinese

leaders “accurately reported their subordinates’ preferences”. The Chinese expatriate leaders within South Africa may similarly misunderstand the needs of South African subordinates. Based on the above, it could be argued that greater engagement between the Chinese leaders and South African employees may assist in ‘bridging the gap’ and facilitating greater understanding of employee needs. According to Participant 4 S-L, the Chinese leadership style is seen as more formal and hierarchical whereas South African leadership is described as being more participatory, relational, and less hierarchical.

‘Working with the team’ and ‘collegiality and team spirit’ emerged as the two dominant codes of the South African leadership definition (Section 6.3.1.). South African subordinates could therefore be expected to perceive the lower involvement in a negative light. Participant 12 S-L says that there is a lack of effective leadership in Africa, both in the past and currently, and that the Chinese had played a major role in improving employee needs. This was done, according participant 12 S-L, by combining Chinese and South African leadership. Conversely, there are some employees who felt that the Chinese leadership of the organisation had not in any way influenced their QWL (10 S-R; 14 S-R; 16 S-L). For example, participant 14 S-R described the influence of the Chinese presence as follows;

“If there were any changes and any improvements it would have been nice if [...] we were aware of it, but no. If there were any changes it was done subtly and nobody noticed it” (14 S-R).

14 S-R	64	F	W	D	CU	36
--------	----	---	---	---	----	----

Nevertheless, several participants reported positive views of the Chinese leadership and the new joint venture, which they described as notable QWL enhancements. For example, the financial injection, knowledge, infrastructure and technological advancements from the Chinese buy-in are all perceived positively. Other benefits mentioned included the new power plant, increased production (10 S-R; 12 S-L), increased job security (10 S-R; 12 S-L), increased studying opportunities (12 S-L), and a large consumer market and guaranteed demand (12 S-L).

8.3. SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

The findings of this chapter were twofold. Firstly a cross tabulation of the dominant leadership style was described and level of QWL findings aided in understanding potential relationships between the research constructs (see Table 8.4.). Secondly by looking at how the findings varied according to leaders and leader-raters, employment code, and ethnicity, the researcher gained a better understanding of the relationship between leadership and QWL, and how this is influenced by work, and social factors (as was expected in Figure 3.2.)

TABLE 8.4: DOMINANT LEADERSHIP STYLE AND CORRESPONDING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE LEVEL

Dominant LS	Level of quality of work life				
	<i>S</i>	<i>PS</i>	<i>PU</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>n=</i>
<i>Transformational</i>	44% (n= 7)	19% (n= 3)	6% (n= 1)	0% (n= 0)	11
<i>Transactional</i>	6% (n= 1)	6% (n= 1)	0% (n= 0)	0% (n= 0)	8
<i>Laissez-faire</i>	6% (n= 1)	6% (n= 1)	6% (n= 1)	0% (n= 0)	3
<i>n=</i>	9	5	2	0	16

Notes. *S*= Satisfied; *PS* = Partly satisfied; *PU* = Partly unsatisfied; *U*= Unsatisfied; *LS*= Leadership style; *n*= Number of observations.

From the findings of this study, descriptions of transformational leadership influences are associated with descriptions of a high QWL levels. All the same, no clear pattern was found between any other of the leadership styles (transactional and *laissez-faire*) and QWL levels. But what evidence is there to support this view? Table 8.4. above indicates this, since 44% (n=7) of the participants described both a transformational leadership style and a satisfied QWL level. Nineteen percent (n=3) described a transformational leadership style and a partly satisfied QWL level. Of course, factors other than leadership style are also likely influences on QWL levels, which explains how on the one hand, participants describe non-transformational leadership styles but, at the same time, high levels of QWL. On the other hand, some participants also described transformational leadership styles, while they register low levels of QWL. The study finds that leaders directly influence QWL levels through positive employee-employer relationships. They also affect QWL indirectly through the influence they have on the work environment.

A notable frequency distribution is that 62.5% (n=5) of leaders described both a transformational leadership style and a satisfied QWL level. No clearly discernible pattern

between the QWL and leadership style (see Table 8.4.) described by the leader-raters was found. Lastly, the analysis of how findings were influenced by the racial and intercultural context illustrated that, despite leaders attempting to address issues of past inequalities in South Africa, these are persisting sources of dissatisfaction and labour unrest, within the organisation and the industry, and within of South Africa at large. Despite perceptions regarding unfair or unequal treatment of employees from historically disadvantaged groups, there were many South African participants that believed their needs were more satisfied within the intercultural joint venture because of, for instance, the financial and strategic resources provided by the coming of the Chinese. However, it should also be noted that other participants felt that they had no experience with the Chinese leadership and so, the Chinese presence within the organisation did not in any way influence need satisfaction levels.

CHAPTER NINE

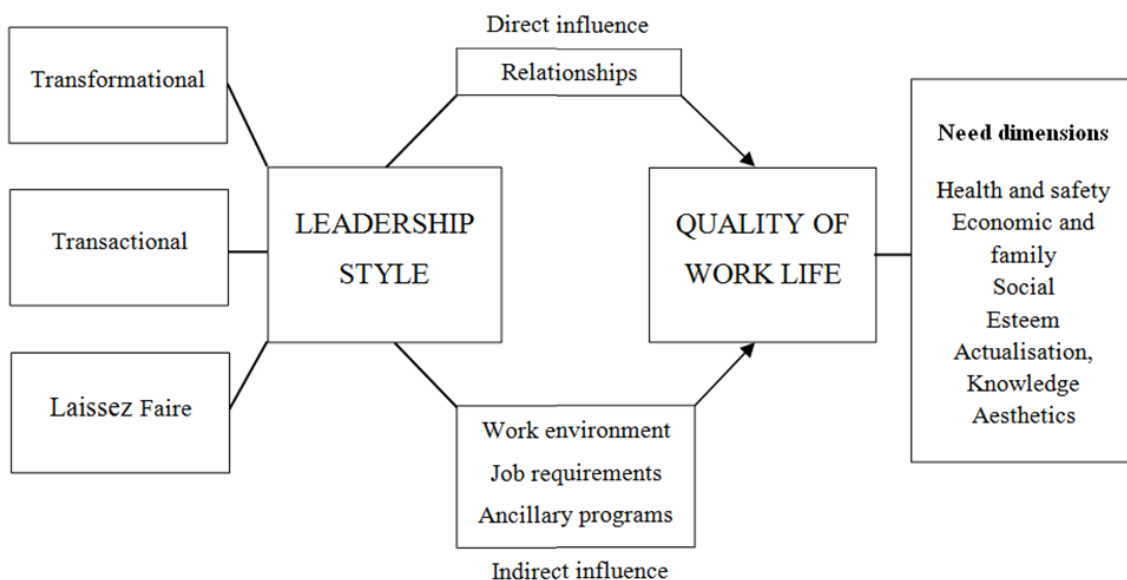
RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1. OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of the literature explored to add meaning to the summary of the findings from Chapters Six, Seven, and Eight and ensure pertinent conclusions and recommendations are presented. The value contribution of the research will also be highlighted in light of the research limitations.

The primary research aim was to explore the potential influences of leadership styles on QWL. This is illustrated in Figure 9.1. hereunder.

FIGURE 9.1: OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH



(Source: Researcher's own compilation)

In order to achieve the research aim the following research objectives were explored;

- To describe Chinese and South African definitions of leadership
- To discuss the dominant leadership style described by participants
- To describe Chinese and South African definitions of QWL
- To discuss the perceived QWL level described by participants
- To explore how leadership style influences QWL levels

9.2. SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter One

The first chapter served as an introduction to the study where the research phenomena were introduced and the pertinence of the study established. The macro, sector and organisational level of engagement between China and Africa delineated the context of the study. The potential cultural influences on the research phenomena were presented, seeking to highlight the intercultural dynamism likely to emerge.. Lastly, the chapter presented the purpose and objectives of the present study and provided a break-down of the thesis structure.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two presented the leadership theory and illustrated that while leadership exists globally perceptions of effective leadership varies across cultures. In addition, the chapter presented a discussion on South African and Chinese leadership and reflected on the generally accepted western literature so as to provide a culturally cognisant presentation of the leadership phenomenon.

Chapter Three

Chapter Three presented QWL related theory which revealed the complex, multi-faceted and subjective nature of QWL. The QWL construct has not been as well established nor rigorously researched as the leadership construct. The QWL construct was however shown to have many positive connotes for organisations and individuals, offering intrinsic value given trends towards the humanisation of the workplace. Antecedents to QWL were interrogated so to understand how the QWL can be enhanced.

Chapter Four

Flowing from the literature review pertaining to leadership style (Chapter Two) and QWL (Chapter Three), Chapter Four sought to interrogate how leaders influence QWL levels. The research and theory pertaining to the leadership-QWL relationship is both limited and inconsistent. Overall it was shown that leaders' effect on QWL is twofold; directly through supervisor-subordinate relationships as well as indirectly through leaders' influence on the work environment and organisational context. The cultural relativity of the relationships between leaders and leader-raters was also considered.

Chapter Five

Chapter Five presented the research design and methodology used to guide the research. The philosophical assumptions and research methods adopted to fulfil the purpose of the research and meet the research objectives were reviewed. The research design largely falls within the phenomenological paradigm and qualitative methods. In particular, a single case study design was selected and a purposive sampling approach was employed. In-depth semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data. Deductive, inductive and summative content analysis techniques were then used to analyse the data and draw meaningful findings and pertinent conclusions. The quality of the research was explored and ethical considerations considered.

9.3. SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS AS PER CHAPTER SIX, SEVEN AND EIGHT

9.3.1. Leadership style findings

The first findings chapter was Chapter Six which described the research sample in terms of selected biographical indicators and thereafter fulfilled the findings of the first two research objectives pertaining to the leadership construct.

9.3.1.1. Leadership definition findings

Dominant South African leadership codes above the threshold frequency were reorganised into eight categories given that certain behaviours, traits, and leadership outcomes are conceptually linked. The eight code categories that emerged are;

- Work together with and be involved with the team
- Participative leadership
- Leading by example and trust and respect
- Emotional intelligence
- Motivate and influence people to attain common organisational goals
- Effective communication
- Responsibility and accountability
- Being Knowledgeable

For the Chinese cluster, codes were identified using three methods; frequency, commonality across South African and Chinese participants, and verifiability in the literature.

Common codes are those found within both South African and Chinese data. The five common codes include;

- Being knowledgeable
- Capable
- Cooperate
- Planning
- Trust and respect

Dominant codes included codes above the threshold frequency.

- Being knowledgeable (also identified as a common code)
- Create shareholder value

Verifiable code

- Localised leadership

These common codes highlight that while there are differences between Chinese and South African perceptions of leadership, there too exists similarities that may be useful in establishing a foundation for improved intercultural engagement. Not all of the common codes were dominant within the South African comprehensive set of leadership definition codes in that they were not dominant for South African participants. Nevertheless, the common codes still provide insight as to how one may further enhance localised leadership and increase engagement whilst still being perceived as an effective leader. A major difference was found between the South African and Chinese-cluster leadership definitions; the South African cluster highlighted 'motivating people to attain common goals' as an important leadership outcome whilst the latter emphasized the importance of 'creating shareholder value'. While proponents of motivational theories have acknowledged 'creating shareholder value' as a necessary condition for organisational survival, it is said to be a poor motivational goal for employees.

9.3.1.2. Dominant leadership style findings

The dominant leadership style, for both the South African and Chinese clusters, was that of transformational leadership. This is not to suggest that *laissez-faire* and transactional leadership styles were not exhibited however, they were not described as the dominant style. Within the dominant leadership style of transformational leadership the two most commonly described leadership style dimensions were that of idealised influence (attributes) and individualised consideration.

Leaders had a stronger disposition to describe themselves as transformational leaders than do leader-raters. All of the leaders described a transformational leadership style whilst leader-raters were more evenly distributed across the three leadership styles - three leader-raters described transformational, three described *laissez-faire* and two described transactional. Based on this finding it was concluded that discrepancies between leader and leader-rater perceptions among the sample population do exist (Yun *et al.*, 2006; Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). As such, the importance of considering the perceptions of both leaders and leader-raters to gain a more holistic and accurate view of leadership style is highlighted within this study's findings. Nevertheless both leaders and leader-raters described a dominant leadership style of transformational.

Idealised influence (attributes) and 'individualised consideration' speaks to common dominant leadership styles described by Chinese and South African participants. These commonalities may be used to engineer QWL improvements and build positive relationships within the work place. In light of the dominant leadership style and dimensions mentioned above, it was found that the South African and Chinese clusters generally differed in their perceptions regarding the constitution of the specific transformational leadership behaviours, attitudes and values of transformational leadership. This is in line with the thesis that while leadership is a universal phenomenon this is not to say that conceptualisations of leadership are universal. Moreover within the South African cluster one participant described 'intellectual stimulation' and 'inspirational motivation' to be dominant leadership dimensions; yet, neither of these two leadership dimensions were described as dominant by any participant within Chinese cluster. Moreover, the 'idealised influence (behaviour)' leadership dimension was neither described as a dominant leadership style by the Chinese nor South African participants. Leaders within the participating organisation ought to be aware of

the low idealised influence (behaviour) described and seek to enhance this leadership style dimension given the South African cluster definition code of leading by example.

Lastly, it was found that perceptions of leader efficacy differed across organisational levels. Organisational level also impacts workplace-based relationships in that relationships become increasingly strained as the disparity between organisational levels grow given reduced interaction between the said leaders and subordinates.

9.3.2. Quality of work life findings

Flowing from the leadership findings Chapter eight highlights the key QWL findings to meet objectives three and four to describe ‘indigenous’ QWL definitions and discuss the QWL level.

9.3.2.1. Quality of work life definition findings

Seven dominant codes emerged from the South African participants’ definition of leadership style across the identified themes;

- Happiness or enjoyment
- Motivation to attend work
- Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas
- Career and personal development
- Collegiality and team spirit
- Daily achievement and self-actualisation
- Horizontal spillover

For the Chinese cluster five codes were found to be dominant, two of the five codes were placed under a new category code ‘growth, development, and knowledge needs’. As such, a total of four key components surface;

- Wellbeing
- Growth, development and knowledge needs
- Asked to apply knowledge and share ideas
- Good relationship with all shareholders

Both similarities and discrepancies can be seen between the QWL definitions for South African and Chinese clusters. For example, the notion of wellbeing as described by South

African participants is more aligned to subjective wellbeing whereas the Chinese participants to psychological wellbeing. A point of synergy between South African and Chinese clusters is the focus on esteem, actualisation and knowledge needs which are also present within the Sirgy *et al.* (2001) model. Furthermore, differences can be seen between QWL definitions provided by the Chinese participants who did not describe QWL in terms of personal antecedents or QWL connotes and the South African participants who did not describe QWL in terms of social antecedents.

Chinese and South African leaders both rely on social relationships as a foundation for effective organisational functioning. The South African code of collegiality and team spirit and the Chinese code of good relationships with all stakeholders highlight the importance of relationships in building QWL. The South African cluster spoke of genuine personal and professional relationships with all organisational members whereas the Chinese cluster portrayed a strategic viewpoint of building relationships with necessary stakeholders for profit motives.

9.3.2.2. Level of quality of work life findings

Overall it was found that the expected level of QWL ($E\bar{x}$) is within the satisfied range. The culture cluster analysis revealed that the Chinese described a higher level of QWL (satisfied) than the South African (partly satisfied). No need dimensions for the South African or Chinese clusters were seen to be partly unsatisfied or unsatisfied suggesting that the organisation is largely satisfying the needs relatively well across the sample.

Three needs are found to be satisfied within the sample;

- Health and safety
- Knowledge
- Economic and family

While four needs are partly satisfied;

- Actualisation
- Aesthetics
- Social
- Esteem

The partly satisfied need dimensions indicate the needs which the organisation should better satisfy through the work and organisational environment to enhance QWL levels. To better understand the prevailing level of QWL the study also examined the dominant antecedents to satisfaction and dissatisfaction across the seven need dimensions. It is noteworthy that all of the identified antecedents to QWL were found to cause satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Overall 20 dominant antecedents emerged.

- Employee benefits (*health and safety*)
- Support systems
- Preventative measures
- Safety management systems
- Unsafe environments
- Pay
- Job security
- Employee benefits (*economic and family*)
- Work-life benefits
- Recreational and social events
- Location
- Leisure time availability
- Recognition and appreciation
- Rewards
- Training and education
- Development structures
- Promotion and growth opportunities
- Learning opportunities and support
- Creativity at work and personal creativity
- General aesthetics

Health and safety needs were the most satisfied need dimension. Systems (support systems and safety management systems) and policies (employee benefits) set in place by leaders that are preventative and/or corrective in nature aid in minimising threats to health and safety caused by unsafe working environments indicative of the mining sector. The organisation has a strong orientation towards meeting family needs through work-life benefits within the plant but this level of support is lacking at the head quarters. Employee benefits are generally

satisfied however job security was however higher at the head quarters than the mining operation.

Knowledge, esteem, and actualisation needs also emerged in the QWL definition. The research finds a strong overlap in the meeting of knowledge and actualisation needs for both South African and Chinese clusters whereby knowledge advancements and opportunities to utilise and share knowledge lead to career and personal development. Furthermore career growth paths and opportunities to participate in the organisation are key to the establishment of positive leader-subordinate relationships and overall QWL levels. While knowledge needs are largely being satisfied, a stronger orientation towards career and personal development would be beneficial to QWL levels. Furthermore recognition, rewards, and appreciation need to be enhanced to ensure that employees remain satisfied and motivated.

Social needs on the one hand vary greatly across the sample whereby satisfaction and dissatisfaction were expressed almost equally for the codes of; recreational and social events, and location. On the other hand leisure time availability is a notably greater source of satisfaction than dissatisfaction. In as much social needs pertain to the provision of opportunities to be social, the outcomes of enhanced relationships (discussed hereunder in Section 9.3.3.) as well as enough time off work to meet social and leisure needs outside of the workplace. It was found that the South African cluster was more satisfied with social needs than where the Chinese cluster.

Aesthetics needs are satisfied for Chinese participants at the head quarters but only partly satisfied for South African participant at the mining operation, this can be largely attributable to the general aesthetics code, particularly within the plant environment. The leadership definition revealed that participative leadership styles are desirable given the need to share ideas and opinions and apply knowledge. Allowing employees autonomy and responsibility not only contributes to the satisfaction of esteem and actualisation needs but also affects the extent creativity is encouraged and valued within the workplace. The degree to which personal creativity is encouraged is strongly influenced by job description and job design because certain jobs lend themselves to creativity and innovation more so than others which necessitate stringent procedures and close supervision.

9.3.3. Relationships between leadership style and quality of work life

Leaders are seen to have two influences on QWL levels; directly through relationships and secondly indirectly through the impact leaders have on the work and organisational antecedents to QWL. The importance of relationships emerged in the South African and Chinese definitions of leadership. The nature of relationships between leaders and leader-raters tended to be described as professional and rarely social. Nevertheless a healthy working relationship is seen to be important whereby trust and respect relationships that enable participative leadership practices (such as the ability to apply knowledge and share ideas). Good working relationships also encourage desirable paternalistic and server leadership behaviours and traits (such as provide guidance and be knowledgeable). The server leadership as opposed to authoritarian leadership is in line with the more inclusive, participative and democratic leadership style of contemporary South African leaders whereby the strategic intent is shared with employees and leaders do not fear that empowered employees will jeopardise leader power or legitimacy employees are empowered (Boon, 1996: 70).

As the organisational level 'gap' between a leader and leader-rater increases the level of interaction, engagement and relationship building opportunities decreases. Supervisor-subordinate relationships are associated to daily engagement and resultantly these leaders are more likely to influence QWL levels directly through relationships. As organisational level gaps between leaders and leader-raters increases, leaders are more likely to influence the work and organisational environment, particularly leaders at higher organisational levels who influence work aspects such as job design, job security, promotion and growth opportunities, and organisational culture.

When cross-tabulating the dominant leadership style described with the level of QWL described only two notable patterns emerged;

- Transformational leadership and a satisfied level of QWL was described by 44% of participants
- Transformational leadership and a partly satisfied level of QWL was described by 19% of participants

Both of the above relationships pertain to transformational leadership and a satisfied or partly satisfied level of QWL while no patterns can be seen between the transactional and *laissez-*

faire leadership style and any level of QWL, positive (satisfied or partly satisfied) or negative (partly unsatisfied or unsatisfied). In conclusion leaders are more likely to influence QWL by exhibiting transformational leadership styles. All of the leaders described a transformational leadership style, 62.5% of which also described a satisfied level of QWL. Looking at leader-raters however it can be said that the tendency to describe both a transformational leadership style and a high QWL decreases whereby leader-rater participants can be seen to describe an array of leadership styles and corresponding QWL level. Following from this, leaders ought to keep in mind self-enhancement biases and ensure that they take into account the perceptions of their followers.

There are instances, whereby satisfaction was gained through the satisfaction of other employees or community needs. This finding speaks to the value of QWL enhancements from a social welfare perspective. Stemming from the importance of community and belonging is the importance of positive interpersonal relationships whereby the achievement of group goals is advocated over individual achievement (discussed in Section 1.3.3.). Cultural values in South Africa such as collectivism, communalism, and *ubuntu* emphasise the importance of the group or collective whereby the genuine concern for others and a need for interpersonal relationships is an important cultural orientation relative to many other countries (Wittenberg, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2007; Jackson, 1999; Blunt & Jones, 1997). The cultural orientation of South Africans and Chinese employees lends itself to the establishment of better QWL through the focus on the value of individuals and the inherent need to belong to social groups and meet personal and group needs through participation within social networks in the workplace.

Black South Africans were more likely to describe a transformational leadership style however lower levels of QWL than the white participants. The conflicting perception of severe employment equity issues with that of cultural understanding and cultural diversity perception corroborates the subjective nature of QWL. The only notable pattern found for the South African cluster was five participants describing both a transformational leadership style and satisfied QWL level. The three Chinese participants are similarly clustered around high levels of QWL and transformational leadership.

In line with the localised leadership strategy adopted by the Chinese, majority of the South African participants reported little to no engagement with the Chinese leadership. Differing perceptions emerged as to whether greater engagement with the Chinese leadership would

influence QWL levels. Some participants preferred the lack of interaction as a form of non-interference. While other participants are distrusting of the low relationalism, perceiving the Chinese leadership to be 'strategically' estranged from the organisation. This is not to imply that Chinese leaders alone need to ensure mutual benefit and positive engagement. South African employees also need to represent their agenda and engender cultural understanding to ensure mutual benefit and positive engagement. This was evidenced by Participant 9 S-R who requested to go to China and this opportunity was provided to him.

9.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

While it is believed that this study will add a valuable contribution to the knowledge base of both HR management and intercultural managerial issues, it is of utmost importance to be aware of the shortcomings of the study. The limitations of this study are associated to various stages of the research process. Limited pre-existing theory and research made the exploration of the selected phenomena within the intercultural context challenging whereby inferences needed to be adopted at times or research and theories used to support findings that are not specific to the Chinese-South African organisational context. Access into an appropriate organisation was challenging and inhibited the research progress. As is generally the case with qualitative research studies, this study had a small data set (n=16) thereby limiting the generalisability of research findings. Age distribution can be seen to be representative of the workforce in general however younger participants (aged 28-35) was low, but expected given the remote location and higher organisational levels included in the study. There were more men than women included in the study however this is representative of the organisation as a whole. Limited Chinese made findings pertaining to the Chinese sample weaker than that of the South African sample. Moreover there are no Chinese participants in the mining operation and no South African participants at the head quarters make the separation of cultural and job design differences difficult to identify.

In terms of data collection, all of the interviews were conducted in English which is not the first language of all of the participants, this at times resulted in language barriers can impair the dependability and credibility of the data collected where meaning can be obscured or misinterpreted by both participants and the researcher. In addition to this one interview was not recorded, as per the request of the participant, and in as much the credibility of the interview is diminished. This interview transcript could not be checked for accuracy and completeness against an audio recording as was the case with the remaining interviews. Even

though interviews were checked there are still sections where the audio recordings are inaudible, rendering those sections of speech unusable. Furthermore some meaning and context can be lost given the incomplete transcripts. Interview questions were derived from research instruments that are predominantly adopted in quantitative research and developed in the west however reliable and valid frameworks developed in the specific intercultural context of this study could not be found.

It can also be said that a limitation of the study is that it is not longitudinal in that perceptions change over time and are formed by one's whole experience with the organisation and work and as such current and future 'realities' are shaped and influenced by past 'realities' thus highlighting the dynamic nature of subjective perceptions. Attempting to understand perceptions at only one point in time may mask a true representation of the enduring perceptions over time with conditional or temporary perceptions that were pertinent only to the time at which the study was conducted.

The researcher can be said to have limited skill in conducting qualitative research, nevertheless the researcher attended several qualitative research seminars and workshops to build on skill and expertise. Furthermore the researcher co-ordinated a qualitative research workshop prior to data collection and analysis and conducted another qualitative data analysis workshop after data collection and data analysis which speaks to the researcher's growth and improved understanding of qualitative research. The interview guide constructed was also reviewed by an expert qualitative researcher. The exploratory nature of this study which employs a case study approach will likely result in high dependability in that data collection is in-depth and discussed in detail but low but low credibility and transferability given the subjective data analysis process.

9.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

In line with Martins and Coetzee (2007) leaders in South Africa ought to merge organisational and employee needs to ensure high QWL levels thereby motivating employees toward mutual need satisfaction. Leaders also need to have foresight into how organisational and leadership decisions affect employees' QWL levels rather than driving transformation from an estranged position. The leaders' disposition to describe higher levels of QWL and transformational leadership behaviours speaks to a need to be cognisant of potential self-enhancement biases and attempt to minimise them. Leaders in South Africa and other African countries ought to adopt both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, where

appropriate. More specifically South African and Chinese leaders ought to ensure that they adopt leadership styles and behaviours perceived to be transformational by all employees, engendering cultural understanding and cohesiveness across ethnic groups (Booyesen, 2001). South African and Chinese individuals have different perspectives on 'transformational leadership' and as such the international leader operating within an intercultural context ought to consider localisation of leadership and organisational practices (Jackson, 2004). Leader behaviour needs to take into account the cultural complexities of local employees if employee resistance and other negative employee outcomes are to be avoided. It is recommended that leaders are aware of how the intercultural context can influence perceptions of subjective phenomena such as leadership effectiveness and QWL. The leaders' disposition to describe higher levels of QWL and transformational leadership behaviours speaks to a need to be cognisant of potential self-enhancement biases and attempt to minimise them (van der Kam *et al.*, 2014: 268).

The study highlights that leaders play a key role in determining need satisfaction and QWL levels, directly and indirectly and in as much ought to strategically adopt leadership practices that enhance need satisfaction and wellbeing in the workplace. Not only is wellbeing and employee satisfaction gaining importance within theory and practice but has also been shown to influence workplace attitudes and behaviours. This study confirms previous findings that leaders influence need satisfaction levels directly through the relationships with their subordinates and through the influence leaders' values and behaviour on the job and organisational context (Kara *et al.*, 2013; Dousti *et al.*, 2012; Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Harrison, 2005; Kotzé, 2005; McMurray, 2003). South African need satisfaction, for both leaders and followers, is generally described as low. The participating organisation appears however to be better meeting employee needs than is the norm in South Africa (Martins & Coetzee, 2007; Kotzé, 2005) despite operating in an industry characterised by labour unrest and conflict (Hermanus, 2007). This is evidenced by the dominant level of employee need satisfaction of 'satisfied'. However there is still potential for the improvement or enhancement of QWL through leader's values and behaviour.

With regard to future research it is recommended that;

- Further research interrogating organisational level phenomena within the intercultural context is needed so as to create a systematic and holistic understanding of China-Africa relations.
- Further quantitative and qualitative research is needed to better the intricacies of the leadership and QWL phenomena.
- Future research should also be conducted within the case organisation to understand the influence of other organisational, work, individual, and social influences influence need satisfaction.

9.6. THE VALUE OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

With the rapidly changing world and global business environment it can be said that workforce expectations are changing and competition is becoming increasingly difficult to manage and as such effective international leadership is imperative for organisational success, if not survival (Cox, Hannif & Rowley, 2013; Weinberger, 2009). ‘Leadership’ can be said to exist all across the world and it plays an instrumental role in ensuring that organisations function well within these societies (Jackson, 2014). It is important to understand that a leader cannot exist without followers and it is through follower’s recognition and acceptance of a leader that legitimate power confers to a leader (Kriel, 2008: 17). As such leaders need to exhibit behaviour and attitudes and treat employees in a manner that elicits trust, respect and a decision to follow. Van Rensburg (2009) asserts that leadership is important in that leaders set strategic direction and need to facilitate goal attainment. Through these endeavours leader’s behaviour and attitude influence the wellbeing of both employees and society at large (Van Rensburg, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2007).

In cross-cultural management it is said that the pursuit of effective leadership is more complex in that different cultural groups perceive effective leadership differently (van Zyl, 2009: 143). International leaders need to be able to inspire, motivate and create a vision across diverse cultures (Leong & Fischer, 2011). Over and above the increasing multiculturalism of South African work environments, particularly in the case of international organisations in South Africa, it is advantageous to improve the understanding of how culture manifests itself. Despite the large and persisting interest in leadership and QWL studies in a western context it has been said that research into transitioning countries is unsubstantial

(Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012: 87). This can be seen to be problematic in that Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) assert that findings regarding employee perceptions will be invalid if cultural influences are not considered particularly so given South Africa's cultural diversity. There is thus a need for cultural research in that expatriate workers ought to ensure that they understand and respect the culture of the country they are working in and share their own cultural values however localisation is often needed to build harmonious work relationships and reduce cultural conflicts and misunderstandings (Wang *et al.*, 2013; Horwitz *et al.*, 2005). In as much this case study provides a platform for future cultural research as well as insight for practise specifically with regards to understanding how leaders can meet diverse set of needs so as to enhance the synergies and dynamics between leadership style and QWL levels.

The socioeconomic division between race groups is illustrated by the national poverty rate (the percentage of the population who are living below the poverty line) which was 45.5% in 2011 and the GINI coefficient which was 0.65 in 2011 which places South Africa as one of the most unequal societies globally despite its status as an upper middle income country (The World Bank, 2014). It is for this reason that Charlton (1992) emphasised that developing and effectively managing HR was vital in stimulating the South African economy and creating a competitive advantage in South Africa's people rather than unsustainable resources. Career and personal development is not only important in terms of need satisfaction but its pursuance is also an important societal endeavour given the lack of skills and education prevalent within South Africa (Chipunza & Kabungaidze, 2012). In addition the arguments put forth by Booysen (2007) that while training and development of previously disadvantaged groups is important so too are developmental HR strategies geared towards satisfying employees to ensure the retention of employees and to act as an incentive to increase productivity (Nayeri *et al.*, 2011). As such developmental HR strategies extend beyond basic training and development, whereby employees are given opportunities to build knowledge, skills, and resources to improve satisfaction at work and in other life domains (Baruch, 2006; Doug & Dexter, 1991: 264). Developmental organisational practices correspond to the more 'humanistic' leadership styles whereby employees feel valued and feel they are able to be of increasing value (Jackson, 1999).

In South Africa it can be said that to avoid labour unrest and strike action organisations need to ensure, amongst other things, that leaders can connect with employees, communicate with them and gain their support and commitment (Nyengane, 2007: 3; Charlton, 1992: 36). The

nature of collective bargaining and the strong power of worker unions in South Africa have resulted in divide rather than unity between employers and employees, leading to dissatisfaction in the work place, strike action, low productivity and absenteeism (Nyengane, 2007). Labour productivity is of major concern to organisations operating in South Africa, particularly within labour intensive industries in that organisational effectiveness is impaired and there is difficulty in dismissing unproductive workers (Huang & Ren, 2013). The happy-productive worker thesis may therefore assist organisations operating in South Africa to alleviate productivity problems and improve organisational performance (Naudé, 2010; Kotzé, 2005).

This exploratory study provides insight into the dynamics of leadership and QWL and has presented a case study of the selected constructs within the Chinese-South African intercultural organisational framework. While further research and theory development is needed this study confirms the thesis that leaders influence QWL levels within ABC. The study urged for greater awareness towards the leader's role and in part responsibility, to create a work and job environment that meets the needs of employees by providing positive work experiences, consequences of work and engendering a mutual effort towards meeting both organisational and individual goals. Leaders ought to be receptive and engaging so as to build strong trust relationships.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Aarons, G.A., Ehrhart, M.G., Farahnak, L.R., Sklar, M. & Horwitz, J., 2015. Discrepancies in leader and follower ratings of transformational leadership: Relationship with organizational culture in mental health. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research*. 42: 1-12.
- Abbott, P., 2011. *Human resource management in the South African socio-economic context*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg.
- Afsar, S.T. & Burcu, E., 2013. The adaptation and validation of quality of work life scale to Turkish culture. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. [Online]. Available: <http://0-link.springer.com.wam.seals.ac.za/article/10.1007/s11482-013-9276-0> [Accessed 16 June 2013]. 1-14.
- Albuquerque, I., de Lima, M.P., Matos, M. & Figueiredo, C., 2013. Work matters: Work personal projects and the idiosyncratic linkages between traits, eudaimonic and hedonic well-being. *Social Indicators Research*. 115, 3: 885-906.
- Alden, C., 2006. China in Africa, survival. *Global Politics and Strategy*. 47, 3: 147-164.
- Alimo-Metcalfe, B. & Alban-Metcalfe, J., 2008. Engaging leadership. Creating organisations that maximise the potential of their people. *Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development*. Unpublished research insight. [Online]. Available: http://www.cipd.co.uk/shapingthefuture/_leadershipreport.htm [Accessed: 12 May 2013].
- Allen, R.E., 1990. The concise Oxford dictionary of current English. In: Collis, J. & Hussey, R., 2003. *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. (2e). Houndmills: Mac Millan.
- Amabile, T.M., 1998. How to kill creativity. In: Vaccaro, I.G., Jansen, J.J.P., Van Den Bosch, F.A.J. & Volberda, H.W., 2012. Management innovation and leadership: the moderating role of organizational size. *Journal of Management Studies*. 49, 1: 28-51.

- Amos, T., 2012. The dynamics of leadership. In: Hellriegel, D., Slocum, J., Jackson, S.E., Louw, L., Staude, G., Amos, T., Kloppe, H.B., Louw, M., Oosthuizen, T., Perks, S. & Zindiye, S., *Management*. (South African 4e). Cape Town: Oxford. 370-392.
- Amos, T.L., Ristow, A., Ristow, L. & Pearse, N.J., 2008. *Human resource management*. (3e). Cape Town: Juta.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J. & Sivasubramaniam, N., 2003. Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 14, 3: 261-295.
- Appelbaum, S., Bartolomucci, N., Beaumier, K., Boulanger, J., Corrigan, K., Dore, I., Girard, C. & Serroni, C., 2004. Organisational citizenship behaviour: A case study of culture, leadership and trust. *Management Decision*. 24, 1: 13-40.
- Argentero, P., Miglioretti, M. & Angilletta, C., 2007. Quality of work life in a cohort of Italian health workers. *Giornale Italiano di Medicina del Lavoro ed Ergonomia*. 29, 1: 50-54.
- Arvonen, J. & Ekvall, G., 1999. Effective leadership style: Both universal and contingent? *Creativity and Innovation management*. 8, 4: 242-250.
- Ashkanasy, N.M. & Tse, B., 2000. Transformational leadership as management of emotion: A conceptual review. In: Ashkanasy, N.M., Härtel, C.E. & Zerbe, W.J., (Eds). *Emotions in the workplace: Research, theory, and practice*. Westport: Quorum/Greenwood. 221-235.
- Ashkanasy, N.M., 2002. Leadership in the Asian century: Lessons from GLOBE. *International Journal of Organisational Behaviour*. 5, 3: 150-163.
- Avolio, B.J., Bass, B., Walumbwa, F. & Zhu, W., 2004. MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Technical report, leader form, rater form, and scoring key for MLQ Form 5x-Short. (3e). In: Walumbwa, F.O., Orwa, B., Wang, P. & Lawler, J.J., 2005. Transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction: A comparative study of Kenyan and U.S. financial firms. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. 16, 2: 235-256.

- Avolio, B.J., Kahai, S., Dumdum, R. & Sivasubramaniam, N., 2001. Virtual teams: Implications e-leadership and team development. In Walumbwa, F.O., Wang, P., Lawler, J.J. & Shi, K., 2004. The role of collective efficacy in the relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. 77, 4: 515-530.
- Avolio, B.J., Zhu, W., Koh, W. & Bhatia, P., 2004. Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*. 25, 8: 951-968.
- Ayman, R. & Chemers, M.M., 1983. Relationship of supervisory behaviour ratings to work group effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction among Iranian managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 68, 2: 338-341.
- Baah, A.Y. & Jauch, H., 2009. Chinese investments in Africa. In: Baah, A.Y. & Jauch, H., (Eds). Chinese investments in Africa: A labour perspective. *African Labour Research Network*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.cebri.org/midia/documentos/315.pdf> [Accessed 10 November 2013]. 35-84.
- Bardmili, S.H., Siadat, S.A. & Mohammadisadr, M., 2013. The study of relation between spiritual leadership of principals and quality of work life of teachers in high schools of city of Izeh. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*. 3, 7: 1-4.
- Barling, J., Slater, F. & Kelloway, E.K., 2000. Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 21, 3: 157-161.
- Barnett, K., McCormick, J. & Conners, R., 2001. Transformational leadership in schools – panacea, placebo or problem? *Journal of Educational Administration*. 30, 1: 24-46.
- Barney, J.B., 1986. Organizational culture: Can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage. *The Academy of Management Review*. 11, 3: 656-665.

- Barrick, M.R., Thurgood, G.R., Smith, T.A. & Courtright, S.H., 2015. Collective organizational engagement: Linking motivational antecedents, strategic implementation, and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal*. 58, 1: 111-135.
- Baruch, Y., 2006. Career development in organizations and beyond: Balancing traditional and contemporary viewpoints. *Human Resource Management Review*. 16, 2: 125-138.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 1990. *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 1990. The implication of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team and organizational development. In: Yaghoubpour, A., Tee, O.P. & Ahmed, E.M., 2013. Impact of the relationship between transformational and traditional leadership styles on Iran's automobile industry job satisfaction. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship Management and Sustainable Development*. 9, 1: 14-27.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 1993. Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public Administration Quarterly*. 17, 1: 112-117.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 1994. *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 1995. *Multifactor leadership questionnaire (Form 5x-short): Manual and sampler set*. (2e). Redwood City: Mindgarden.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 1997. *Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Redwood City: Mindgarden.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J., 2005. Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire. In: Kara, D., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M.J. & Lee, G., 2013. The effects of leadership style on employee well-being in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 34: 9-18.
- Bass, B.M., 1985. *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

- Bass, B.M., 1990. From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*. 18, 3: 19-31.
- Bass, B.M., 1997. Does the transactional-transformational paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*. 55, 2: 130-139.
- Bass, B.M., 1998. *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military and educational impact*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bass, B.M., 1999. Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*. 8, 1: 9-32.
- Bass, B.M., 2007. Concepts of leadership. In: Vecchio, R.P., (Ed). *Leadership: Understanding the dynamics of power and influence in organizations*. (2e). Notre Dame: Notre Dame. 3-22.
- Bassi, M., Bacher, G., Negri, L. & Delle Fave, A.D., 2013. The contribution of job happiness and job meaning to the wellbeing of workers from thriving and failing companies. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. 8, 4: 427-448.
- BBC News, 2015. *Zuma says China-Africa co-operation 'win-win'*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-35018241> [Accessed 09 December 2015].
- Bediako, S., 2002. Impact of downsizing on employees of community health-care service organizations. *Leadership in Health Services*. 15, 1: 1-6.
- Berg, B.L. & Lune, H., 2004. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. (5e). Boston: Pearson.
- Beugré, C.D. & Offodile, O.F., 2001. Managing for organizational effectiveness in sub-Saharan Africa: A culture – fit model. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 12, 4: 535-550.
- Biggeri, M. & Sanfilippo, M., 2009. Understanding China's move into Africa: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Chinese Economic and Business Studies*. 7, 1: 31-54.
- Bird, A. & Fang, T., 2009. Editorial: Cross cultural management in the age of globalization. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*. 9, 2: 139-143.

- Björkman, I. & Lu, Y., 1999. A corporate perspective on the management of human resources in China. *Journal of World Business*. 34, 1: 16-25.
- Bless, C. & Higson-Smith, C., 2000. *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African perspective*. (3e). Lansdowne: Juta.
- Blunt, P. & Jones, M.L., 1992. *Managing organisations in Africa*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Blunt, P. & Jones, M.L., 1997. Exploring the limits of Western leadership theory in East Asia and Africa. *Personnel Review*. 26, 1: 6-23.
- Bolden, R. & Kirk, P., 2009. African leadership: Surfacing new understandings through leadership development. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*. 9, 1: 69-86.
- Boon, M., 1996. *The African way. The power of interactive leadership*. Johannesburg: Zebra.
- Booyesen, L., 2001. The duality in South Africa: Afrocentric or Eurocentric. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*. 25, 3: 36-64.
- Booyesen, L., 2007. Barriers to employment equity implementation and retention of blacks in management in South Africa. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*. 31, 1: 47-71.
- Botha, J., 2001. *The relationship between the leadership, internal quality, and customer satisfaction levels of dealerships in a South African motor vehicle organisation*. Unpublished masters theses. Grahamstown: Rhodes University.
- Boyce, C. & Neale, P., 2006. *Conducting in-depth interviews: A guide for designing and conducting in-depth interviews for evaluation input*. Watertown: Pathfinder.
- Braudel, F., 1987. Graaire des civilizations. In: Browaeys, M. & Price, R., 2011. *Understanding cross-cultural management*. (2e). Essex: Pearson.
- Bräutigam, D. & Xiaoyang, T., 2009. China's engagement in African agriculture: "Down to the countryside". *The China Quarterly*. 199, 3: 686-706.
- Bräutigam, D., 2009. *The dragon's gift: The real story of China in Africa*. New York: Oxford.

- Brewster, C., Carey, L., Grobler, P., Holland, P. & Wörnich, S., 2008. *Contemporary issues in human resource management: Gaining a competitive advantage*. (3e). Cape Town: Oxford.
- Broodryk, J., 2005. *Ubuntu management philosophy: Exporting ancient African wisdom to the global world*. Randburg: Knowledge Resources.
- Brouthers, K.D. & Bamossy, G.J., 1997. The role of key stakeholders in international joint venture negotiations: Case studies from Eastern Europe. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 28, 2: 285-308.
- Browaeys, M. & Price, R., 2011. *Understanding cross-cultural management*. (2e). Essex: Pearson.
- Brown, M.E. & Treviño, L.K., 2009. Leader–follower values congruence: Are socialized charismatic leaders better able to achieve it? *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 94, 2: 478–490.
- Browne, S., 2012. *Aid and influence: Do donors help or hinder?* Sterling: Taylor & Francis.
- Brunsson, N. & Sahlin-Andersson, K., 2000. Constructing organizations: The example of public sector reform. *Organization Studies*. 21, 4: 721-746.
- Bryman, A., 2012. *Social research methods*. (4e). New York: Oxford.
- Buitendach, J.H. & Rothmann, S., 2009. The validation of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire in selected organisations in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resources Management*. 7, 1.
- Bulford, B.A., 2001. *Management effectiveness, personality, leadership, and emotional intelligence: A study of the validity evidence of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I)*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Iowa: University of Iowa.
- Burke, C. & Corbin, L., 2006. China's interest and activity in Africa's construction and infrastructure sectors. CCS. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University. [Online]. Available: <http://www.ccs.org.za/downloads/DFID5203rd%20Edition.pdf> [Accessed: 16 May 2013].

- Burns, J.M., 1978. Leadership. In: Weinberger, L.A., 2009. Emotional intelligence, leadership style, and perceived leadership effectiveness. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*. 11, 6: 747-722.
- Business Report, 2015. *List of deals signed by SA and China*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.iol.co.za/business/news/list-of-deals-signed-by-sa-and-china-1.1954370#.Vma3Rrh97IU> [Accessed 9 December 2015].
- Carson, D., Gilmore, A., Perry, C. & Gronhaug, K., 2001. *Qualitative marketing research*. London: Sage.
- Castro, M.L. & Martins, N., 2010. The relationship between organisational climate and employee satisfaction in a South African information and technology organisation. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 36, 1.
- CCS, 2010. Evaluating China's FOCAC commitments to Africa and mapping the way ahead. *Report prepared for the Rockefeller Foundation*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.ccs.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2010/03/ENGLISH-Evaluating-Chinas-FOCAC-commitments-to-Africa-2010.pdf> [Accessed: 26 October 2014].
- CCS, 2011. Managing Chinese foreign direct investment in Africa. *The China Monitor*. 60, 3-16.
- Chan, K.W. & Wyatt, T.A., 2007. Quality of work life: A study of employees in Shanghai, China. *Asia Pacific Business Review*. 13, 4: 501-517.
- Chang, L., 2014. *Self-Other agreement in 360-Degree Leadership ratings: A cross-cultural measurement equivalence study*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Mansfield: University of Connecticut.
- Charlton, G.D., 1992. *Leadership, the human race. A guide to developing leadership in Southern Africa*. Cape Town: Rustica.
- Chen, S. & Wilson, M., 2003. Standardization and localization of human resource management in Sino-foreign joint ventures. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*. 20, 3: 397-408.

- Chen, X., Eberly, M.B., Chiang, T., Farh, J. & Cheng, B., 2014. Affective trust in Chinese leaders: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management*. 40, 3: 796-819.
- Chen, Z.X., Eberly, M.B., Chiang, T., Farh, J. & Cheng, B., 2014. Affective trust in Chinese leaders: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management*. 40, 3: 796-819.
- Cheng, B.S., Chou, L.F., Wu, T.Y., Huang, M.P. & Farh, J.L., 2004. Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model in Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*. 7, 1: 89-117.
- Cheng, Z., 2014. The effects of employee involvement and participation on subjective wellbeing: Evidence from urban China. *Social Indicators Research*. 118, 2: 457-483.
- Cheung, C. & Chan, A.C., 2005. Philosophical foundations of eminent Hong Kong Chinese CEO's leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*. 60, 1: 47-62.
- Cheung, C. & Leung, K., 2004. Forming life satisfaction among different social groups during the modernization of China. *Journal of Happiness Studies*. 5, 1: 23-56.
- Cheung, M.F.Y., Wu, W., Chan, A.K.K. & Wong, M.M.L., 2009. Supervisor-subordinate guanxi and employee work outcomes: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Ethics*. 88, 1: 77-89.
- Chipunza, C. & Kabungaidze, T., 2012. Attributes utilised by knowledge workers in identifying employers of choice: Focus on accountants and information technology (IT) specialists in South Africa. *Journal of Social Science*. 32, 2: 137-150.
- Christiansen, H. & Dahl, V., 2005. Meaning in context. In: Dey, A., Kokinov, B., Leake, D. & Turner, R., (Eds). *The International and Interdisciplinary Conference on Modelling and Using Context*. Paris: 4th conference (July). 97-111.
- Clark, A.E., 2001. What really matters in a job? Hedonic measurement using quit data. *Labour Economics*. 8, 2: 223-242.
- Coe, C., 2002. Educating an African leadership: Achimota and the teaching of African culture in the Gold Coast. *Africa Today*. 49, 3: 23-44.

- Coetzee, M. & de Villiers, M., 2010. Sources of job stress, work engagement and career orientations of employees in a South African financial institution. *Southern African Business Review*. 14, 1: 27-58.
- Collis, J. & Hussey, R., 2003. *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. (2e). Houndmills: Mac Millan.
- Confidential, 2008. *Our business*. Company website. [Online]. [Accessed 16 November 2014].
- Conger, J. A., 2004. Developing leadership capability: What's inside the black box? *The Academy of Management Executive*. 18, 3: 136-139.
- Connerley, M.L. & Pedersen, P.B., 2005. *Leadership in a diverse and multicultural environment: Developing awareness, knowledge, and skills*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Costea, B., Crump, N. & Holm, J., 2006. Dionysus at work? The ethos of play and the ethos of management. *Culture and Organisation*. 11, 2: 139-151.
- Cox, A., Hannif, Z. & Rowley, C., 2013. Leadership styles and generational effects: Examples of US companies in Vietnam. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 25, 1: 1-22.
- Creswell, J.W., 1994. *Research design: Qualitative & quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Crook, R.T., Todd, S.Y., Combs, J.G., Woehr, D.J. & Ketchen, D.J. Jr., 2011. Does human capital matter? A meta-analysis of the relationship between human capital and firm performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 96, 3: 443-456.
- Cummings, T.G. & Worley, C.G., 1997. *Organisation development and change*. (6e). Ohio: South-Western.
- Darr, W. & Johns, G., 2008. Work strain, health and absenteeism: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. 13, 4: 293-318.

- Davies, N., 2015. Marikana massacre: The untold story of the stike leader who died for workers' rights. *The Guardian*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.theguardian.com/world/2015/may/19/marikana-massacre-untold-story-strike-leader-died-workers-rights>. [Accessed 20 June 2015].
- De Mooij, M., 2000. The future is predictable for international marketers: Converging incomes lead to diverging consumer behaviour. *International Marketing Review*. 17, 2: 103:113.
- De Witte, H., 2005. Job insecurity: Review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 31, 4.
- Deci, E.L. & Ryan, R.M., 2008. Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies*. 9, 1: 1-11.
- Delle Fave, A., Brdar, I., Friere, T., Vella-Brodrick, D. & Wissing, M.P., 2011. The eudaimonic and hedonic components of happiness: Qualitative and quantitative findings. *Social Indicators Research*. 11, 2: 185-207.
- Delobelle, P., Rawlinson, J.L., Ntuli, S., Malatsi, I., Decock, R. & Depoorter, A.M., 2010. Job satisfaction and turnover intent of primary healthcare nurses in rural South Africa: A questionnaire survey. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 67, 2: 371-383.
- Den Hartog, D.N., House, R.J., Hanges, P.J. & Ruiz-Quintanilla, S.A., 1999. Culture specific and cross-culturally generalisable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *Leadership Quarterly*. 10, 2: 219-256.
- Denton, M. & Vloeberghs, D., 2002. Leadership challenges for organisations in the new South Africa. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 24, 2: 84-95.
- Dia, M., 1996. *Africa's management in the 1990s and beyond*. Washington: The World Bank.
- Dickson, M.W., Den Hartog, D.N. & Mitchelson, J.K., 2003. Research in leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress, and raising new questions. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 14, 6: 729-768.

- Diener, E., 2009. The science of well-being. In: Bassi, M., Bacher, G., Negri, L. & Delle Fave, A.D., 2013. The contribution of job happiness and job meaning to the wellbeing of workers from thriving and failing companies. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. 8, 4: 427-448.
- Diener, E., Suh, E.M., Lucas, R.E. & Smith, H.L., 1999. Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*. 125, 2: 276-302.
- Dodds, K. J., 2014. *Global geopolitics: A critical introduction*. New York: Routledge.
- Dolan, S.L., García, S., Cabezas, C. & Tzafrir, S.S., 2008. Predictors of “quality of work” and “poor health” among primary health-care personnel in Catalonia: Evidence based on cross-sectional, retrospective and longitudinal design. *International Journal of Health Care Quality Assurance*. 21, 2: 203-218.
- Doug, A.S. & Dexter, C.D., 1991. Beyond traditional paternalistic and developmental approaches to organizational change and human resource strategies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 2, 3: 263-283.
- Dousti, M., Abbasi, M. & Khalili, A., 2012. Relationship between quality of work life and organizational commitment of employees of youth and sport department of Mazandaran province. *International Journal of Sport Studies*. 2, 4: 193-197.
- Duignan, P., 2003. *Foundation of capable, influential and authentic leaders for times of uncertainty*. Australian Primary Principals’ Association National Conference. Adelaide. (September). [Online]. Available: http://www.educationalleaders.govt.nz/content/download/553/4572/p_duignan_paper.pdf [Accessed 12 May 2014].
- Dul, J. & Hak, T., 2008. *Case study methodology in business research*. London: Elsevier.
- Duma, T., 2010. *The relationship between leadership style and employee engagement in Sasol Gas, South Africa*. Unpublished masters thesis. Grahamstown: Rhodes University.
- Easton, S. & Van Laar, D., 2012. *User manual for the work-related quality of life (WEQoL) Scale. A measure of quality of working life*. Portsmouth: Portsmouth University.

- Easton, S., Van Laar, D. & Marlow-Vardy, R., 2013. Quality of working life and the police. *Management*. 3, 3: 135-141.
- Efraty, D. & Sirgy, J.M., 1990. The effects of quality of working life (QWL) on employee behavioural responses. *Social Indicators Research*. 22, 1: 31-47.
- Efraty, D., Sirgy, J.M. & Siegel, P., 2000. The job/life satisfaction relationship among professional accountants: Psychological determinants and demographic differences. In: Diener, E. & Rahtz, D.R., (Eds). *Advances in quality of life theory and research*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academics. 129-157.
- Elo, S. & Kyngäs, H., 2008. The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 62, 1: 107-115.
- Emery, C.R. & Barker, K.J., 2007. The effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of customer contact personnel. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communication and Conflict*. 11, 1: 77-90.
- Emery, C.R., College, E. & Barker, K.J., 2007. The effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles in the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of customer contact personnel. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*. 11, 1: 77-90.
- Erkutlu, H., 2008. The impact of transformational leadership on organizational and leadership effectiveness: The Turkish case. *Journal of Management Development*. 27, 7: 708-726.
- Fan, Y., 2000. A classification of Chinese culture. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*. 7, 2: 3-10.
- Fang, T & Faure, G.O., 2011. Chinese communication characteristics: A Yin Yang perspective. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*. 35, 3: 320-333.
- Fang, T., 2001. Culture as a driving force for interfirm adaptation: A Chinese case. *Industrial Marketing Management*. 30, 1: 51-63.

- Fang, T., 2006. Negotiation: The Chinese style. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*. 21, 1: 50-60.
- Fang, T., 2011. Yin Yang: A new perspective on culture. *Management and Organization Review*. 8, 1: 25-30.
- Farh, J.L. & Cheng, B.S., 2000. A cultural analysis of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations. In: Li, J.T., Tsui, A.S. & Weldon, E., (Eds). *Management and organizations in the Chinese context*. London: Macmillan. 84-127.
- Faure, G.O. & Fang, T., 2008. Changing Chinese values: Keeping up with paradoxes. *International Business Review*. 17, 2: 194-207.
- Felfe, J. & Heinitz, K., 2010. The impact of consensus and agreement of leadership perceptions on commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and customer satisfaction. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*. 19, 3: 279-303.
- Fisher, C.D. & Yuan, X.Y., 1998. What motivates employees? A comparison of US and Chinese responses. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 9, 3: 516-528.
- Fletcher, M., 1999. The effects of internal communication, leadership and team performance on successful service quality implementation: A South African perspective. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*. 5, 5: 150-163.
- Fourie, A.S., 2004. *Predicting satisfaction with quality of work life*. Unpublished masters thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Fu, Y. & Kamenou, N., 2011. The impact of Chinese cultural values on human resource policies and practices within transnational corporations in China. *The International Journal of Human Resources Management*. 22, 16: 3270-3289.
- Fukushige, A. & Spicer, D.P., 2007. Leadership preferences in Japan: An exploratory study. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 28, 6: 508-530.
- Gandolfi, F. & Bekker, C.J., 2008. Guanxi: The art of finesse and relationship building when conducting business in China. *Regent Global Business Review*. 2, 1: 5-11.

- Gbadamosi, G., 2003. HRM and the commitment rhetoric: Challenges for Africa. *Management Decision*. 41, 3: 274-280.
- Gelb, S., 2005. South-South investment: The case of Africa. In: Teunissen, J.J. & Akkerman, A., (Eds). *The world economy - The national, regional and international challenges*. The Hague: Fondad. [Online]. Available: <http://www.fondad.org/uploaded/Africa%20in%20the%20World%20Economy/Fondad-AfricaWorld-Chapter16.pdf> [Accessed 10 November 2013]. 200: 205.
- Gelfand, M.J., Erez, M. & Aycan, Z., 2007. Cross-cultural organisational behavior. *The Annual Review of Psychology*. 58: 479-514.
- Gerber, P.D., Nel, P.S. & Van Dyk, P.S., 1996. *Human resource management*. Johannesburg: International Thompson.
- Gerstner, C.R. & Day, D.V., 1994. Cross-cultural comparison of leadership prototypes. *Leadership Quarterly*. 5, 2: 121-134.
- Gomez-Mejia, L.R., 1984. Effect of task related, contextual and job involvement orientation: A cross-cultural perspective. *The Academy of Management Journal*. 27, 4: 706-720.
- Gospel, H., 2003. Quality of working life: A review on changes in work organisation, conditions of employment and work-life arrangements. *Conditions of Work and Employment Series*. Geneva: International Labour Organisation. 1-56.
- Grant, A.M., 2007. Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review*. 32, 2: 393-417.
- Greenberg, P.D. & Glaser, E.M., 1981. Some issues in joint union-management quality of work life improvement efforts. *Public Productivity Review*. 5, 3: 273-275.
- Greenleaf, R.K., 1977. Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness. In: Washington, R.R., 2007. Empirical relationships between theories of servant, transformational, and transactional leadership. *Academy of Management Proceedings*. 1: 1-6.

- Greyvenstein, H. & Cilliers, F., 2012. Followership's experiences of organisational leadership: A systems psychodynamic perspective. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 38, 2.
- Guliwe, T. & Mkhonta, S., 2009. Chinese investments in South Africa. In: Baah, A.Y. & Jauch, H., (Eds). Chinese investments in Africa: A labour perspective. *African Labour Research Network*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.cebri.org/midia/documentos/315.pdf> [Accessed 10 November 2013]. 300-332.
- Guliwe, T., 2009. An introduction to Chinese-African relations. In: Baah, A.Y. & Jauch, H., (Eds). Chinese investments in Africa: A labour perspective. *African Labour Research Network*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.cebri.org/midia/documentos/315.pdf> [Accessed 10 November 2013]. 16-34.
- Hafsi, T. & Yan, L., 2007. Understanding Chinese business behavior: A study and interpretation of the Three Kingdoms novel. *La Chaire de Management Stratégique International Walter J. Somers*. [Online]. Available: http://neumann.hec.ca/chairemsi/pdfcahiersrech/07_32_03.pdf [Accessed 04 February 2014].
- Hair, J. Jnr., Money, A.H., Samouel, P. & Page, M., 2007. *Research methodologies for business*. West Sussex: Wiley.
- Hall, J. & Maritz, F., 1997. Leadership: Turning potential into productivity. *Management Today*. 13, 6: 27-31.
- Handley, R.C., Raw, N.J., Louw, M. & Louw, L., 2013. The influence of culture and biographical variables on the brand image of Google and Baidu: An exploratory study in Guangzhou, China. *International Journal of China Marketing*. 4, 1: 32-50.
- Harari, O. & Beaty, D., 1990. On the folly of relying solely on a questionnaire methodology in cross-cultural research. *Journal of Managerial Issues*. 2, 3: 267-281.
- Harrison, M.I., 2005. *Diagnosing organisations: Methods, models and processes*. (6e). London: Sage.

- Hayward, B.A., Amos, T.L. & Baxter, J., 2008. Employee performance, leadership style and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study in a South African parastatal. *Acta Commercii*. 8: 15-26.
- Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S.E., Slocum, J., Staude, G., Amos, T., Klopper, H.B., Louw, L. & Oosthuizen, T.F.J., 2008. *Management*. (South African 3e). Cape Town: Oxford Southern Africa.
- Hermanus, M.A., 2007. Occupational health and safety in mining – status, new developments, and concerns. *The Journal of Southern African Institute of Mining and Metallurgy*. 107, 8: 531-538
- Hian, C.C. & Einstein, W.O., 1990. Quality of work life (QWL): What can unions do? *Advanced Management Journal*. 55, 2: 17-29.
- Hinkin, T.R. & Schriesheim, C.A., 2008. A theoretical and empirical examination of the transactional and non-leadership dimensions of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). *The Leadership Quarterly*. 19, 5: 501-513.
- Hoare, R.J. & Butcher, K., 2008. Do Chinese cultural values affect customer satisfaction /loyalty? *International Journal of Contemporary hospitality Management*. 20, 2: 156-171.
- Hofstede, G. & Minkov, M., 2010. Long-versus short-term orientation: New perspectives. *Asia Pacific Business Review*. 16, 4: 493-504.
- Hofstede, G., 1984. The cultural relativity of the quality of life concept. *The Academy of Management Review*. 9, 3: 389-398.
- Hofstede, G., 1993. Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Executive*. 7, 1: 81-94.
- Hogg, M.A., 2001. A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*. 5, 3:184-200.
- Hooker, J., 2012. 19 cultural differences in business communication. In: Paulston, C.B., Kiesling, S.F. & Rangel, E.S., (Eds). *The handbook of intercultural discourse and communication*. West Sussex: Wiley. 29, 389-407.

- Horwitz, F., Ferguson, M., Rivett, I. & Lee, A., 2005. An Afro-Asian nexus: South African multinational firm experiences in Chinese labour markets – key focus areas. *South African Journal of Business Management*. 36, 3: 29-40.
- Horwitz, F., Hemmant, R. & Rademeyer, C., 2008. Chinese business negotiations: South African firm experiences and perspectives. *South African Journal of Business Management*. 39, 1: 1-13.
- Horwitz, F.M., Kamoche, K. & Chew, I.K.H., 2002. Looking East: Diffusing high performance work practices in the Southern Afro-Asian context. *International Journal of Human Resources Management*. 13, 7: 1019-1041.
- Hsieh, H. & Shannon, S.E., 2005. Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*. 15, 9: 1277-1288.
- Hsu, M. & Kernohan, G., 2006. Dimensions of hospital nurses' quality of working life. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 54, 1: 120-131.
- Huang, M. & Ren, P., 2013. *A study on the employment effect of Chinese investment in South Africa*. Discussion paper. Stellenbosch: Centre for Chinese Studies.
- Huang, T., Lawler, J. & Lei, C., 2007. The effects of quality of work life on commitment and turnover intention. *Social Behavior and Personality*. 35, 6: 735-750.
- Huang, X., 2008. Motivation and job satisfaction across nations. In: Smith, P.B., Peterson, M.F. & Thomas, D.C., (Eds). *The handbook of cross-cultural management research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Hui, C., Lee, C. & Rousseau, D.M., 2004. Employment relationships in China: Do workers relate to the organization or to people? *Organization Science*. 15, 2: 232-240.
- IBM, 2007. *Africa - A global outlook report*. New York: IBM.
- Igbaria, M., Parasuraman, S. & Badawy, M.K., 1994. Work experiences, job involvement, and quality of work life among information personnel. *Management Information Systems (MIS) Quarterly*. 18, 2: 175-201.

- Ip, P.K., 2009. Is Confucianism good for business ethics in China? *Journal of Business Ethics*. 88, 3: 463-476.
- Jackson, L.T.B., Rothmann, S. & van de Vijver, F.J.R., 2006. A model of work-related well-being for educators in South Africa. *Stress and Health*. 22, 4: 263-274.
- Jackson, T., 1999. Managing change in South Africa: Developing people and organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 10, 2: 306-326.
- Jackson, T., 2002a. Reframing human resource management in Africa: A cross-cultural perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 13, 7: 998-1018.
- Jackson, T., 2002b. The management of people across cultures: Valuing people differently. *Human Resource Management*. 41, 4: 455-475.
- Jackson, T., 2004. *Management and change in Africa: A cross-cultural perspective*. London: Routledge.
- Jackson, T., 2005. *Managers' perceptions of organizations in Africa: Evidence from South Africa and Zimbabwe*. Unpublished manuscript. Hatfield: University of Pretoria.
- Jackson, T., 2011. From cultural values to cross-cultural interfaces: Hofstede goes to Africa. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*. 24, 4: 532-558.
- Jackson, T., 2012. Postcolonialism and organisational knowledge in the wake of China's presence in Africa: Interrogating South-South relations. *Organization*. 19, 2: 181-204.
- Jackson, T., 2014. Employment in Chinese MNEs: Appraising the dragon's gift to sub-Saharan Africa. *Human Resource Management*. 53, 6: 897-919.
- Jackson, T., Louw, L. & Zhao, S., 2013. China in Sub-Saharan Africa: Implications for HRM policy and practice at organizational level. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 24, 13: 2512-2533.
- Jackson, T., Meyer, J.P. & Wang, X., 2012. Leadership, commitment, and culture: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. 20, 1: 84-106.

- Jacob, N., 2005. Cross-cultural investigations: Emerging concepts. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*. 18, 5: 514-528.
- Jauch, H., 2011. Chinese investments in Africa: New opportunities or just another form of domination? *New Labour Forum*. 20, 2: 48-55.
- Javidan, M., Dorfman, P.W., Sully de Luque, M.S & House, R.J., 2006. In the eye of the beholder: Cross cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*. 20, 1: 67-90.
- Johnson, J.P., Lenartowicz, T. & Apud, S., 2006. Cross-cultural competence in international business: Toward a definition and a model. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 37, 4: 525-543.
- Johnsrud, L.K., 2002. Measuring the quality of faculty and administrative worklife: Implications for college and university campuses. *Research in Higher Education*. 43, 3: 379-395.
- Jones, G.R. & George, J.M., 2008. *Contemporary management*. (5e). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Joseph, E.E. & Winston, B.E., 2005. A correlation of servant leadership, leader trust, and organizational trust. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 26, 1: 6 - 22.
- Judge, T.A., Piccolo, R.F. & Ilies, R., 2004. The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 1: 36-51
- Jung, D.I. & Avolio, B.J., 1999. Effects of leadership style and followers' cultural orientation on performance in group and individual task conditions. *Academy of Management Journal*. 42, 2: 208-218.
- Jung, D.I., Bass, B.M. & Sosik, J.J., 1995. Bridging leadership and culture: A theoretical consideration of transformational leadership and collectivistic cultures. *Journal of Leadership Studies*. 2, 4: 3-18.

- Kamoche, K., Chizema, A., Mellahi, K. & Newenham-Kahindi, A., 2012. New directions in the management of human resources in Africa. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 23, 14: 2825-2834.
- Kara, D., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M.J. & Lee, G., 2013. The effects of leadership style on employee well-being in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 34: 9-18.
- Kerce, E.W. & Booth-Kewley, S., 1993. *Quality of work life surveys in organisations: Methods and benefits*. London: Sage.
- Khandwalla, P., 1995. *Management Styles*. New Delhi: McGraw-Hill.
- Khosa, R., 2006. *Let Africa lead: African transformational leadership for 21st century business*. Cape Town: Vezubuntu.
- Kirkbride, P., 2006. Developing transformational leaders: The Full Range Leadership Model in action. *Industrial and Commercial Training*. 38, 1: 23-32.
- Kirkman, B.L. & Shapiro, D.L., 2001. The impact of cultural values on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in self-managing work teams: The mediating role of employee resistance. *The Academy of Management Journal*. 44, 3: 557-569.
- Koekemoer, E., 2010. *Work-nonwork interference in the South African context*. Unpublished masters thesis. Potchefstroom: North-West University.
- Koh, W.L., Steers, R.M. & Terborg, J.R., 1995. The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 16, 4: 319-333.
- Kotzé, M., 2005. The nature and development of the construct "quality of work life". *Acta Academica*. 37, 2: 96.
- Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z., 2011. *Credibility: How leaders gain and lose it, why people demand it*. San Francisco: Wiley.
- Kriel, I.G., 2008. *Developmental leadership behavior and affective commitment: An exploratory study*. Unpublished masters thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

- Kumar, R., 2005. *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. (2e). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Kuoppala, J., Lamminpää, A., Liira, J. & Vainio, H., 2008. Leadership, job well-being, and health effects: A systematic review and a meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*. 50, 8: 904-915.
- Lambert, S.J., 1990. Process linking work and family: A critical review and research agenda. *Human Relations*. 43, 3: 239-257.
- Large, D., 2008. Beyond 'dragon in the bush': The study of China-Africa relations. *African Affairs*. 107, 426: 45-61.
- Lau, R.S.M. & May, B.E., 1998. A win-win paradigm for quality of work life and business performance. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. 9, 3: 211-226.
- Lau, R.S.M., 2000. Quality of work life and performance. An ad hoc investigation of two key elements in the service profit chain model. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*. 11, 5: 422-437.
- Laura, K., 1991. Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*. 45, 3: 214-222.
- Lawler, E.E., 1975. Measuring the psychological quality of working life: The why and how of it. In: Davis, L.E. & Cherns, A.B., (Eds). *The quality of working life*. New York: Free Press. 123-133.
- Lawler, E.E., 1982. Strategies for improving the quality of work life. *American Psychologist*. 37, 5: 486-493.
- Lawler, J.L., Walumbwa, F.O. & Bai, B., 2007. National culture and culture effects. In: Harris, M.M., (Eds). *Handbook of Research in International Human Resources*. London: Psychology. 7-27.
- Lee, D., Singhapakdi, A. & Sirgy, M.J., 2007. Further validation of a need-based quality-of-work-life (QWL) measure: Evidence from marketing practitioners. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. 2, 4: 273-287.

- Lee, M., Knight, D. & Kim, T., 2008. Brand analysis of a US global brand in comparison with domestic brands in Mexico, Korea, and Japan. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. 17, 3: 163-174.
- Leong, L.Y.C. & Fischer, R., 2011. Is transformational leadership universal? A meta-analytical investigation of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire means across cultures. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. 18, 2: 164-174.
- Li, P., Leung, K., Chen, C.C. & Luo, J., 2012. Indigenous research on Chinese management: What and how. *Management and Organization Review*. 8, 1: 7-24.
- Lichtman, M., 2014. *Qualitative research for the social sciences*. London: Sage.
- Limsila, K. & Ogunlana, S., 2008. Performance and leadership outcome correlates of leadership styles and subordinate commitment. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*. 15, 2: 164-184.
- Lindeberg, T., 1998. Feature detection with automatic scale selection. *International Journal of Computer Vision*. 30, 2: 79-116.
- Linley, P.A., Maltby, J., Wood, A.M., Osborne, G. & Hurling, R., 2009. Measuring happiness: The higher order factor structure of subjective and psychological well-being measures. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 47, 8: 878-884.
- Linn, R.L., 2003. Accountability: Responsibility and reasonable expectations. *Educational Researcher*. 32, 7: 3-13.
- Littrell, R.F. & Nkomo, S.M., 2005. Gender and race differences in leader behavior preferences in South Africa. *Women in Management Review*. 20, 8: 562-580.
- Liu, L.A., Friedman, R.A. & Chi, S., 2005. “Ren qing” versus the “big five”: The role of culturally sensitive measures of individual difference in distributive negotiations. *Management and Organization Review*. 1, 2: 225-247.
- Liu, W., Lepak, D.P., Takeuchi, R. & Sims, H.P. Jnr., 2003. Matching leadership styles with employment modes: Strategic human resource management perspective. *Human Resource Management Review*. 13, 1: 127-152.

- Loscocco, K.A. & Roschelle, A.R., 1991. Influences on the quality of work and nonwork life: Two decades in review. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 39, 2: 182-225.
- Louis, K.S., 1998. Effects of teacher quality of work life in secondary schools on commitment and sense of efficacy, school effectiveness and school improvement. *An International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice*. 9, 1: 1-27.
- Louis, M., 2009. Leaders who inspire. In: Dicey, L., (Ed). *South Africa's leading managers 2009/10*. (6e). Cape Town: CRF.
- Louw, L. & Venter, P., 2011. *Strategic management, developing sustainability in Southern Africa*. Cape Town: Oxford.
- Lu, L., 2008. Culture, self, and subjective wellbeing: Cultural psychology and social change perspectives. *Psychologia*. 51, 4: 290-303.
- Lundberg, G.A., 1942. Social research - A study in methods of gathering data. (2e). In: Kumar, R., 2005. *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. (2e). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Luthans, F., Van Wyk, R. & Walumbwa, F.O., 2004. Recognition and development of hope for South African organizational leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 25, 6: 512-527.
- Lyles, M.A. & Salk, J.E., 1996. Knowledge acquisition from foreign parents in international joint ventures: An empirical examination in the Hungarian context. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 27, 5: 877-903.
- Maditinos, D., Chatzoudes, D., Tsairidis, C. & Theriou, G., 2011. The impact of intellectual capital on firms' market value and financial performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*. 12, 1: 132-151.
- Mafini, C. & Pooe, D.R.I., 2013. The relationship between employee satisfaction and organisational performance: Evidence from a South African government department. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 39, 1.
- Mahembe, B. & Engelbrecht, A.S., 2013. A confirmatory factor analytical study of a servant leadership measure in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 39, 2: 1-8.

- Mangaliso, M.P., 2001. Building competitive advantage from “Ubuntu”: Management lessons from South Africa. *Academy of Management Executive*. 15, 3: 23-32.
- Marks, M.L., Mirvis, P.H., Hackett, E.J. & Grady, J.F. Jnr., 1986. Employee participation in a quality circle program: Impact on quality of work life, productivity, and absenteeism. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 71, 1: 61-69.
- Marnewick, C., 2011. Herzberg! Can we trust you in Africa? *African Journal of Business Management*. 5, 4: 1293-1303.
- Martel, J. & Dupuis, G., 2006. Quality of work life: Theoretical and methodological problems, and presentation of a new model and measuring instrument. *Social Indicators Research*. 77, 2: 333-368.
- Martins, N. & Coetzee, M., 2007. Organisational culture, employee satisfaction, perceived leader emotional competency and personality type: An exploratory study in a South African engineering company. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*. 5, 2.
- Masango, M., 2002. Leadership in the African context. *Verbum et Ecclesia Academic Journal of the Centre for Ministerial Development*. 23, 3: 707-718.
- Masha, T., 2014. Authentic leaders: You’ll know one when you see one. *HR Future*. 5, 1: 8-10.
- Maslow, A.H., 1943. A theory of human motivation. In: Easton, S. & Van Laar, D., 2012. *User manual for the work-related quality of life (WEQoL) Scale. A measure of quality of working life*. Portsmouth: Portsmouth University.
- Maslow, A.H., 1954. Motivation and personality. In: Sirgy, M.J., Efraty, D., Siegel, P. & Lee, D., 2001. A new measure of quality of work life (QWL) based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. *Social Indicators Research*. 55, 3: 241-302.
- Maslow, A.H., 2000. A theory of human motivation. In: Yaghoubipoor, A., Tee, O.P. & Ahmed, E.M., 2013. Impact of the relationship between transformational and traditional leadership styles on Iran’s automobile industry job satisfaction. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship Management and Sustainable Development*. 9, 1: 14-27.

- Mayer, C., 2008. *Managing conflict across cultures, values and identities. A case study in the South African automotive industry*. Marburg: Tectum Verlag.
- Mayfield, M. & Mayfield, J., 2008. Leadership techniques for nurturing worker garden variety creativity. *Journal of Management Development*. 27, 9: 976-986.
- Mbaru, J., 2003. *Transforming Africa: New pathways to development*. Nairobi: EAEP.
- Mbigi, L., 1997. *Ubuntu: The spirit of African transformation management*. Randburg: Knowledge Resources.
- Mclaggan, E., Bezuidenhout, A. & Botha, C.T., 2013. Leadership style and organisational commitment in the mining industry in Mpumalanga: Original research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*. 11, 1: 1-9.
- McMurray, A.J., 2003. The relationship between organizational climate and organizational culture. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*. 3, 1: 1-8.
- McNamee, T., Mills, G., Manoeli, S., Mulaudzi, M., Doran, S. & Chen, E., 2012. Africa in their words. A study of Chinese traders in South Africa, Lesotho, Botswana, Zambia and Angola. *The Brenthurst Foundation*. Discussion paper. [Online]. Available: http://www.thebrenthurstfoundation.org/a_sndmsg/news_view.asp?I=124294&PG=288. [Accessed 12 May 2013]. 3, 1-43.
- Mehta, R., 2000. Impact of leadership style on channel partner motivation: An empirical test. *Journal of Marketing Channels*. 7, 3: 121-153.
- Michael Murray & Associates, 2014. *Full Range Leadership Model*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.mmurray.com.au/leadership/full-range-leadership-model/> [Accessed 15 October 2014].
- Michel, J.S., Kotrba, L.M., Mitchelson, J.K., Clark, M.A. & Baltes, B.B., 2011. Antecedents of work-family conflict: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 32, 5: 689-725.
- Mirvis, P.H. & Lawler, E.E., 1984. Accounting for the quality of work life. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*. 5, 3: 197-212.

- Mohan, G. & Lampert, B., 2012. Negotiating China: Reinserting African agency into China-Africa relations. *African Affairs*. 112, 446: 92-110.
- Mokgolo, M.M., Mokgolo, P. & Modiba, M., 2012. Transformational leadership in the South African public service after the April 2009 national elections. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*. 10, 1.
- Moore, L.L. & Rudd, R.D., 2004. Leadership skills and competencies for extension directors and administrators. *Journal of Agricultural Education*. 45, 3: 22-33.
- Mosadegh Rad, A.M. & Yarmohammadian, M.H., 2006. A study of relationship between managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfaction. *Leadership in Health Services*. 19, 2: 11-28.
- Mostert, K. & Rothmann, S., 2006. Work-related well-being in the South African Police Service. *Journal of Criminal Justice*. 34, 5: 479-491.
- Mutabazi, E., 2001. Multiculturalisme et gouvernement des societies Africaines. In: Browaeys, M. & Price, R., 2011. *Understanding cross-cultural management*. (2e). Essex: Pearson.
- Nadler, D.A. & Lawler, E.E., 1983. Quality of work life: Perspectives and directions. *Organizational Dynamics*. 11, 3: 20-30.
- Nanjundeswaraswamy, T.S. & Swamy, D.R., 2012. A literature review on quality of work life and leadership styles. *International Journal of Engineering Research and Applications*. 2, 3: 1053-1059.
- Naudé, R., 2010. *Quality of work life of front office employees in selected accommodation establishments*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Potchefstroom: North West University.
- Nayeri, N.D., Salehi, T. & Noghabi, A.A.A., 2011. Quality of work life and productivity among Iranian nurses. *Contemporary Nurse*. 39, 1: 106-118.

- Ng, T.W.H., Sorensen, K.L. & Yim, F.H.K., 2009. Does the job satisfaction-job performance relationship vary across cultures? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. [Online]. Available: <http://jcc.sagepub.com.ezproxy.uct.ac.za/content/early/2009/06/22/0022022109339208.full.pdf+html> [Accessed 27 November 2014].
- Ngambi, H.C., 2011. *Rare total leadership. Leading with the head, heart and hands*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Nguni, S., Slegers, P. & Denessen, E., 2006. Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: The Tanzanian case, school effectiveness and school improvement. *An International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice*. 17, 2: 145-177.
- Nguyen, T.D. & Nguyen, T.T.M., 2012. Psychological capital, quality of work life, and quality of life of marketers: Evidence from Vietnam. *Journal of Macromarketing*. 32, 1: 87-95.
- Nielsen, K., Yarker, J., Brenner, S.O., Randall, R. & Borg, V., 2008. The importance of transformational leadership style for the well-being of employees working with older people. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 63, 5: 465-475.
- Nkomo, S. & Cook, J., 2006. Leadership in Africa. In: Luiz, J., (Ed). *Managing business in Africa. Practical management theory for an emerging market*. Cape Town: Oxford.
- Nkomo, S.M., 2011. A postcolonial and anti-colonial reading of 'African' leadership and management in organization studies: Tensions, contradictions and possibilities. *Organization*. 18, 3: 356-386.
- Nyengane, M.H., 2007. *The relationship between leadership style and employee commitment: An exploratory study in an electricity utility of South Africa*. Unpublished masters thesis. Grahamstown: Rhodes.
- Ogbonna, E. & Harris, L.C., 2000. Leadership style, organisational culture and performance: Empirical evidence from UK companies. *International Journal of Human Resources Management*. 11, 4: 766-788.

- Omodei, M.M. & Wearing, A.J., 1990. Need satisfaction and involvement in personal projects: Towards an integrative model of subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 59, 4: 762-769.
- Omolayo, B., 2007. Effect of leadership style on job-related tension and psychological sense of community in work organisations: A case study of four organizations in Lagos State, Nigeria. *Bangladesh e-Journal of Sociology*. 4, 2: 30-37.
- Oppelt, P., 2009. Foreword. In: Dicey, L. *South Africa's leading managers 2009/10*. (6e). Cape Town: CRF.
- Paauwe, J. & Farndale, E., 2012. International human resource management and firm performance. In: Stahl, G.K., Björkman, I. & Morris, S., (Eds). *Handbook of research in international human resource management*. (2e). Cheltenham: Edward Elger, 97-116.
- Page, C.S., 2011. *The relationship between leadership, employee engagement and customer satisfaction in a motor-vehicle dealership network in South Africa*. Unpublished masters thesis. Grahamstown: Rhodes University.
- Park, Y.J. & Alden, C., 2013. 'Upstairs' and 'downstairs' dimensions of China and the Chinese in South Africa. In: The South African Human Rights Commission's publication. *State of the Nation*. [Online]. Available: http://www.ru.ac.za/media/rhodesuniversity/content/sociology/documents/HSRC-SON_China,and,Chinese,in,SA_YJParkCAlden.doc [Accessed: 10 October 2013]. 28.
- Pawar, B.S., 2013. A proposed model of organisational behavior aspects for employee performance and well-being. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. 8, 3: 339-359.
- Peng, M.W., Lu, Y., Shenkar, O. & Wang, D.Y.L., 2001. Treasures in the China house. A review of management and organizational research on Greater China. *Journal of Business Research*. 52, 2: 95-110.

- Pienaar, C. & Van Zyl, E.S., 2008. Werkstres verskille tussen wit en swart middelvlak bestuurspersoneel. In: Coetzee, M. & de Villiers, M., 2010. Sources of job stress, work engagement and career orientations of employees in a South African financial institution. *Southern African Business Review*. 14, 1: 27-58.
- Pinder, C.C., 2008. *Work motivation in organizational behaviour*. (2e). New York: Psychology.
- Pittinsky, T.L. & Zhu, C., 2005. Contemporary public leadership in China: A research review and consideration. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 16, 6: 921-939.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H. & Fetter, R., 1990. Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 1, 2: 107-142.
- Prince, L., 2005. Eating the menu rather than the dinner: Tao and leadership. *Leadership*. 1, 1: 105-126.
- Pruijn, G.H.J. & Boucher, R.L., 1994. The relationship of transactional and transformational leadership to organisational effectiveness of Dutch national sports organisations. *European Journal of Sports Management*. 2, 1: 72-87.
- Rafferty, A.E. & Griffen, M., 2006. Refining individualized consideration: Distinguishing developmental leadership and supportive leadership. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*. 79, 1: 37 – 61.
- Raiger, J., 2005. Applying a cultural lens to the concept of burnout. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*. 16, 1: 71-76.
- Ralston, D.A., Gustafson, D.J., Cheung, F.M. & Terpstra, R.H., 1993. Differences in managerial values: A study of U.S., Hong Kong and PRC managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 24, 2: 249-275.
- Rannona, M.V., 2003. *The relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a mining organisation*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Potchefstroom: North-West University.

- Rarick, C.A., 2007. Confucius on management: Understanding cultural values and managerial practices. *Journal of International Management Studies*. 2, 2: 22-28.
- Redding, S.G. & Hsiao, M., 1990. An empirical study of overseas Chinese managerial ideology. *International Journal of Psychology*. 25, 3: 629-641.
- Remenyi, D., 1996. So you want to be an academic researcher in business and management studies! Where do you start and what are the key philosophical issues to think about? *South African Journal of Business Management*. 27, 1: 22-33.
- Remenyi, D., 2012. Case study research. *The Quick Guide Series*. Sonning Common: ACPI.
- Remenyi, D., 2013. *Field methods for academic research - Interviews, focus groups and questionnaires in business and management studies*. (3e). Sonning Common: ACPI.
- Ristow, A., 1998. *Transformational leadership and organisational effectiveness in the administration of cricket in South Africa*. Unpublished masters thesis. Grahamstown: Rhodes University.
- Robinson, V.M.J., 2010. From instructional leadership to leadership capabilities: Empirical findings and methodological challenges. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*. 9, 1: 1-26.
- Rothman, I.I. & Cooper, C., 2008. *Organizational Psychology*. London: Sage.
- Rothmann, S. & Cilliers, F.V.N., 2007. Present challenges and some critical issues for research in industrial/organisational psychology in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 33, 1: 8-17.
- Rothmann, S., 2003. Burnout and engagement: A South African perspective. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 29, 4: 16-25.
- Rothmann, S., Diedericks, E. & Swart, J.P., 2013. Manager relations, psychological need satisfaction and intention to leave in the agricultural sector. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*. 39, 2.
- Rothner, E., 2005. *Psychological well-being and job satisfaction of employees in a financial institution*. Unpublished honours thesis. Potchefstroom: North-West University.

- Rowley, C., Benson, J. & Warner, M., 2007. Towards an Asian model of human resource management? A comparative analysis of China, Japan and South Korea. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 15: 4: 917-933.
- Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L., 2001. On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*. 52, 1: 141-166.
- Salancik, G.R. & Pfeffer, J., 1977. An examination of need-satisfaction models of job attitudes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. 22, 3: 427-456.
- Samovar, L., Porter, R., McDaniel, E. & Roy, C., 2014. *Intercultural communication: A reader*. Boston: Cengage.
- Samuel, M.O. & Chipunza, C., 2009. Employee retention and turnover: Using motivational variables as a panacea. *African Journal of Business Management*. 3, 8: 410-415.
- Sashkin, M. & Burke, W.W., 1987. Organizational development in the 1980's. *Journal of Management*. 13, 2: 393-417.
- Saunders, M.N.K., Skinner, D., Dietz, G., Gillespie, N. & Lewicki, R.J., 2010. *Organizational trust, a cultural perspective*. New York: Cambridge.
- Sautman, B. & Hairong, Y., 2007. Friends and interests: China's distinctive links with Africa. *African Studies Review*. 50, 3: 75-114.
- Scherr, A.L. & Jensen, M., 2007. A new model of leadership. *Harvard NOM Research Paper*. Working paper. [Online]. Available: <http://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=920623> [Accessed 12 September 2014]. 6-10.
- Schwab, K., (Ed), 2014. The Global Competitiveness Report. *World Economic Forum*. [Online]. Available: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GlobalCompetitivenessReport_2014-15.pdf [Accessed 7 April 2015].
- Sedikides, C. & Gregg, A.P., 2008. Self-enhancement: Food for thought. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*. 3, 2: 102-116.

- Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R., 2010. *Research methods for business. A skill-building approach*. (5e). West Sussex: Wiley.
- Seligman, S.D., 1999. *Chinese business etiquette. A guide to protocol, manners, and culture in the Chinese People's Republic of China*. New York: Hachette.
- Selvarajah, C. & Meyer, D., 2007. Profiling the Chinese manager: Exploring dimensions that relate to leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. 29, 4: 359-375.
- Shamir, B. & Saloman, I., 1985. Work-at-home and the quality of working life. *The Academy of Management Review*. 10, 3: 455-464.
- Shao, L. & Webber, S., 2006. A cross-cultural test of the 'five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership'. *Journal of Business Research*. 59, 8: 936-944.
- Shelton, G. & Kabemba, C., 2012. *Win-win partnership? China, Southern Africa and the extractive industries*. Discussion paper. Johannesburg: SARW.
- Shonhiwa, S., 2006. *The effective cross-cultural manager. A guide for business leaders in Africa*. Cape Town: Struik.
- Silverman, D., (Ed), 2010. *Qualitative research*. Chicago: Sage.
- Simonet, D.V. & Tett, R.P., 2012. Five perspectives on the leadership-management relationship: A competency-based evaluation and integration. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. 20, 2: 199-313.
- Singh, J., 2000. Performance productivity and quality of frontline employees in service organizations. *Journal of Marketing*. 64, 2: 15-34.
- Sirgy, M.J., 2006. Developing a conceptual framework of employee well-being (EWB) by applying goal concepts and findings from personality-social psychology. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. 1, 1: 7-38.
- Sirgy, M.J., Efraty, D., Siegel, P. & Lee, D., 2001. A new measure of quality of work life (QWL) based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. *Social Indicators Research*. 55, 3: 241-302.

- Sirgy, M.J., Efraty, D., Siegel, P. & Lee, D., 2001. A new measure of quality of work life (QWL) based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. In: Kara, D., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M.J. & Lee, G., 2013. The effects of leadership style on employee well-being in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 34: 9-18.
- Sirgy, M.J., Reilly, N.P., Wu, J. & Efraty, D., 2008. A work-life identity model of well-being: Towards a research agenda linking quality-of-work-life (QWL) programs with quality of life (QOL). *Applied Research in Quality of Life*. 3, 3: 181-202.
- Slaski, M. & Cartwright, S., 2003. Emotional intelligence training and its implications for stress, health and performance. *Stress & Health*. 19, 233-239.
- Sloane, P.J. & Williams, H., 2000. Job satisfaction, comparison earnings and gender. *Labour*. 14, 3: 473-502
- Smit, E., 2010. Perceptions on leadership in Africa. *The GRLI Partner Magazine*. [Online]. Available: http://ahead.or.ug/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/perceptions_on_leadership_in_africa.pdf [Accessed 28 October 2014]. 3: 13-17.
- Smith, P.B. & Wang, Z.M., 1997. Leadership, decision-making and cultural context: Event management within Chinese joint ventures. *Leadership Quarterly*. 8, 4: 413-432.
- Smith, P.B., 2011. Chinese management theories: Indigenous insights or lessons for the wider world? In: Huang, X. & Bond, M., (Eds). *The handbook of Chinese organizational behavior: Integrating theory, research and practice*. [Online]. Available: http://www.indigenouspsych.org/Interest%20Group/Smith_peter/chorghbk_smithchapter2.pdf [Accessed: 12 January 2013].
- Sosik, J.J. & Megerian, L.E., 1999. Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreements on transformational leadership perceptions. *Group and Organisational Management*. 24, 2: 367-390.
- Spector, P.E., 1985. Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American journal of community psychology*. 13, 6: 693-713.

- Spector, P.E., Cooper, C.L., Poelmans, S., Allen, T.D., O'Driscoll, M., Sanchez, J.I., Siu, O.L., Dewe, P., Hart, P. & Lu, L., 2004. A cross-national comparative study of work-family stressors, working hours, and well-being: China and Latin America versus the Anglo world. *Personnel Psychology*. 57, 1: 119-142.
- Stander, M. & Rothmann, S., 2009. The relationship between leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Human Resources Management*. 7, 3.
- Statistics South Africa. 2014. *Economic growth*. [Online]. Available: http://beta2.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=735&id=1 [Accessed 25 October 2014]. go back and see other pages
- Stiles, P., 2012. The international HR department. In: Stahl, G.K., Björkman, I. & Morris, S., (Eds). *Handbook of research in international human resource management*. (2e). Cheltenham: Edward Elger. 36-51.
- Stogdill, R.M., 1974. *Handbook of leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Straume, L. & VittersØ, J., 2012. Happiness, inspiration and the fully functioning person: Separating hedonic and eudaimonic well-being in the workplace. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. 7, 5: 387-398.
- Suttle, J.L., 1977. Improving life at work - Problems and prospects. In: Hackman, J.R. & Suttle, J.L., (Eds). *Improving life at work: Behavioral science approaches to organizational change*. Santa Barbara: Goodyear.
- Svendsen, A.C., Boutilier, R.G. & Abbott, R.M., 2001. Measuring the Business Value of Stakeholder Relationships: Part one. *The Centre for Innovation in Management*. Available: <http://www.cim.sfu.ca/folders/currentprojects/2-stakerholder-brochure.pdf> [Online], Accessed: 26 Nov 2015.
- Sy, T., Tram, S. & O'hara, L.A., 2006. Relation of employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 68, 3: 461-473.
- Taylor, J.C., 1978. An empirical examination of the dimensions of quality of working life. *Omega*. 6, 2: 153-160.

- Taylor, S., 2013. *A development of a personal philosophy and practice of servant leadership: A grounded theory study*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Grahamstown: Rhodes.
- Teagarden, M.B. & Von Glinow, A., 1997. Human resource management in cross-cultural contexts: Emic practices versus etic philosophies. *Management International Review*. 37, 1: 7-20.
- The World Bank, 2014. *South Africa*. [Online]. Available: <http://data.worldbank.org/country/south-africa> [Accessed 16 October 2014].
- Thomas, A. & Bendixen, M., 2000. The management implications of ethnicity in South Africa. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 31, 3: 507-519.
- Thomas, A., 2003. Employment equity practices at selected companies in South Africa. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 27, 4: 6-40.
- Tims, M., Bakker, A.B. & Xanthopoulou, D., 2011. Do transformational leaders enhance their followers' daily work engagement? *The Leadership Quarterly*. 22, 1: 121-131.
- Tsai, M., Tsai, C. & Wang, Y., 2011. A study on the relationship between leadership style, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and organizational commitment: A case study of the banking industry in Taiwan. *African Journal of Business Management*. 5, 13: 5319-5329.
- Tsai, Y., 2011. Relationship between organizational culture, leadership behavior and job satisfaction. *BMC Health Services Research*. 11, 1: 98-107.
- Tull, D.M., 2006. China's engagement in Africa: Scope, significance and consequences. *The Journal of Modern African Studies*. 44, 3: 459-479.
- Turner III, D.W., 2010. Qualitative interview design: A practical guide for novice investigators. *The qualitative report*. 15, 3: 754-760.
- Unger, J.M., Keith, N., Hilling, C., Gielnik, M.M. & Frese, M., 2009. Deliberate practice among South African small business owners: Relationships with education, cognitive ability, knowledge, and success. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. 82, 1: 21-44.

- Vaccaro, I.G., Jansen, J.J.P., Van Den Bosch, F.A.J. & Volberda, H.W., 2012. Management innovation and leadership: The moderating role of organizational size. *Journal of Management Studies*. 49, 1: 28-51.
- Vagharseyyedin, S.A., Vanaki, Z. & Mohammadi, E., 2011. Quality of work life: Experiences of Iranian nurses. *Nursing and Health Sciences*. 13, 1: 65-75.
- Van der Berg, Y. & Martins, N., 2013. The relationship between organisational trust and quality of work life. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*. 11, 1.
- Van der Berg, Y., 2011. *The relationship between organisational trust and quality of work life*. Unpublished masters thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Van der Colff, L., 2003. Leadership lessons from the African tree. *Management Decision*. 41, 3: 257-261.
- Van der Kam, N.A., Janssen, O., van der Vegt, G.S. & Stoker, J.I., 2014. The role of vertical conflict in the relationship between leader self-enhancement and leader performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 25, 2: 267-281.
- Van der Merwe, D., 2015. The impact of transformational leadership on employee work engagement at a mid-sized mining company in South Africa. Unpublished masters thesis. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.
- Van der Wath, K., 2004. Enter the dragon: China's strategic importance and potential for African business. *Convergence*. 5, 4: 72-75.
- Van Dierendonck, D., 2011. Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*. 37, 4: 1228-1261.
- Van Dierendonck, G., Haynes, C., Borrill, C. & Stride, C., 2004. Leadership behavior and subordinate well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. 9, 2: 165-175.
- Van Laar, D., Edwards, J.A. & Easton, S., 2007. The work-related quality of life scale for healthcare workers. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 60, 3: 325-333.
- Van Rensburg, G., 2009. *Leadership thoughts. Inspire yourself, inspire others*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

- Van Schalkwyk, S., du Toit, D.H., Bothma, A.S. & Rothmann, S., 2010. Job insecurity, leadership empowerment behavior, employee engagement and intention to leave in a petrochemical laboratory. *SA Journal of Human Resources Management*. 8, 1.
- Van Staden, M., 2007. *The relationship between servant leadership, emotional intelligence, trust in the immediate supervisor and meaning in life: An exploratory study*. Unpublished masters thesis. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.
- Van Zyl, E., (Ed)., Dalglish, C., du Plessis, M., Lues, L. & Pieterse, E., 2009. *Leadership in the African context*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Venkatachalam, J. & Velayudhan, A., 1997. Quality of work life: A review of literature. *South Asia Journal of Management*. 4: 45-58.
- Ventegodt, S., Merrick, J. & Andersen, J., 2003. Quality of life theory III. Maslow revisited. *The Scientific World Journal*. 3: 1050-1057.
- Vo, A. & Hannif, Z.N., 2011. The reception of Anglo leadership styles in a transforming society: The case of American companies in Vietnam. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 24, 18: 3534-3551.
- Walton, R., 1975. Criteria for quality of working life. In: Davis, L.E. & Cherns, A.B., (Eds). *The quality of working life*. New York: Free Press. 91-104.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Lawler, J.J. & Avolio, B.J., 2007. Leadership, individual differences, and work-related attitudes: A cross-culture investigation. *Applied psychology*. 56, 2: 212-230
- Walumbwa, F.O., Orwa, B., Wang, P. & Lawler, J.J., 2005. Transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction: A comparative study of Kenyan and U.S. financial firms. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. 16, 2: 235-256.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Wang, P., Lawler, J.J. & Shi, K., 2004. The role of collective efficacy in the relations between transformational leadership and work outcomes. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. 77, 4: 515-530.

- Wang, D., Freeman, S. & Zhu, C.J., 2013. Personality traits and cross-cultural competence of Chinese expatriate managers: A socio-analytic and institutional perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 24, 20: 1-9.
- Wang, G.G., 2012. Indigenous Chinese HRM research: Phenomena, methods, and challenges. *Journal of Chinese Human Resource Management*. 3, 2: 88-99.
- Wang, H., Law, K.S., Hackett, R.D., Wang, D. & Chen, Z.X., 2005. Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organisational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*. 48, 3: 420-432.
- Wang, P. & Walumbwa, F.O., 2007. Family-friendly programs, organizational commitment, and work withdrawal: The moderating role of transformational leadership. *Personnel Psychology*. 60, 2: 397-427.
- Wang, X., 2007. *Cross-cultural leadership by Chinese managers with their South African Xhosa-speaking employees*. Unpublished masters thesis. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.
- Wang, Y., 2008. Emotional bonds with supervisor and co-workers: Relationship to organizational commitment in China's foreign-invested companies. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 19, 5: 916-931.
- Warner, M., 1996. Chinese enterprise reform, human resources and the 1994 Labour Law. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 7, 4: 779-796.
- Warner, M., 2010. In search of Confucian HRM: Theory and practice in Greater China and beyond. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 21, 12: 2053-2078.
- Warner, M., 2011. Society and HRM in China. *The International Journal of Human Resources Management*. 22, 16: 3223-3244.
- Warner, M., 2012. Whither Chinese HRM? Paradigms, models and theories. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 23, 19: 3943-3963.

- Washington, R.R., 2007. Empirical relationships between theories of servant, transformational, and transactional leadership. *Academy of Management Proceedings*. 1: 1-6.
- Wasti, S.A., 1998. Cultural barriers in the transferability of Japanese and American human resources practices to developing countries: The Turkish case. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 9, 4: 608-631.
- Waterman, A.S., 1993. Two conceptions of happiness: Contrasts of personal expressiveness (eudaimonia) and hedonic enjoyment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 64, 4: 678-691.
- Weinberger, L.A., 2009. Emotional intelligence, leadership style, and perceived leadership effectiveness. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*. 11, 6: 747-772.
- Welman, J. & Kruger, S.J., 2001. *Research methodologies*. (2e). Cape Town: Oxford Southern Africa.
- Williams, C., 2013. *Principles of management*. (7e). Ohio: South-Western/Cengage.
- Wittenberg, M., 2009. The intra-household allocation of work and leisure in South Africa. *Social Indicators Research*. 93, 1: 159-164.
- Wojnar, D.M. & Swanson, K.M., 2007. Phenomenology: An exploration. *Journal of Holistic Nursing*. 25, 3: 172-180.
- Wong, Y., Wong, S. & Wong, Y., 2010. A study of subordinate-supervisor *guanxi* in Chinese joint ventures. *The International Journal of Human Resources Management*. 21, 12: 2142-2155.
- Wu, M. & Wang, J., 2012. Developing a charismatic leadership model for Chinese organizations: The mediating role of loyalty to supervisors. *The International Journal of Human Resources Management*. 23, 19: 4069-4084.
- Wu, M., 2006. Hofstede's cultural dimensions 30 years later: A study of Taiwan and the United States. *Intercultural Communication Studies*. 15, 1: 33-42.

- Wyatt, T.A., 1988. Quality of working life: Cross-cultural considerations. *Asia pacific Journal of Management*. 6, 1: 129-140.
- Yaghoubipoor, A., Tee, O.P. & Ahmed, E.M., 2013. Impact of the relationship between transformational and traditional leadership styles on Iran's automobile industry job satisfaction. *World Journal of Entrepreneurship Management and Sustainable Development*. 9, 1: 14-27.
- Yan, W. & Turban, D.B., 2009. Work, happiness, and unhappiness. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. 4, 2: 193-195.
- Yang, L., Huang, C. & Wu, K., 2011. The association among project manager's leadership style, teamwork and project success. *International Journal of Project Management*. 29, 3: 258-267.
- Yeung, A.K. & Ready, D.A., 1995. Developing leadership capabilities of global corporations: A comparative study in eight nations. *Human Resource Management*. 34, 4: 529-547.
- Yin, R.K., 2009. *Case study research: Design and methods* (4e). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Yousuf, A.S.M., 1996. Evaluating the quality of work life. *Management and Labour Studies*. 21, 1: 5-15.
- Yukl, G.A., 2006. *Leadership in organizations*. (6e). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Yun, S., Cox, J. & Sims, J.P., 2006. The forgotten follower: A contingency model of leadership and follower self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. 21, 4: 374-388
- Zafer Acar, A., 2012. Organizational culture, leadership styles and organizational commitment in Turkish logistics industry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 58: 217-226.
- Zaheer, S. & Zaheer, A., 2006. Trust across borders. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 37, 1: 21-29.

- Zheng, C. & Lamond, D., 2009. A critical review of human resource management studies (1978-2007) in the People's Republic of China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 20, 11: 2194-2227.
- Zhou, J. & Martocchio, J.J., 2001. Chinese and American managers' compensation award decisions: A comparative policy-capturing study. *Personnel Psychology*. 54, 1: 115-145.
- Zhu, C.J., Zhang, M. & Shen, J., 2012. Paternalistic and transactional HRM: The nature and transformation of HRM in contemporary China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 23, 19: 3964-3982.
- Zikmund, W.G., 2003. *Business research methods*. (7e). Mason: South-Western.

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Research aim: To explore the dynamics of the relationship between leadership style and quality of work life within a Chinese-South African joint venture in South Africa.

Target informants: Executive to skilled employees

Interview duration: ±45 minutes

A. Descriptive biographical questions

1. What is your age? (*if apprehensive ask for approximate age*)
2. What is your nationality?
3. What is your ethnicity?
4. What is your level of education?
5. What is your current position in the organisation?
6. How long have you worked in this organisation?
7. How long have you been working in South Africa/outside of China? (CHINESE ONLY)

Observation: *What is the participant's gender?*

B. Leadership questions

Note to self - Answer either leader or leader-rater

Leader

1. How do you define leadership?
2. Please describe your leadership style.
3. What makes a leader an effective leader?
4. What makes a leader an ineffective leader?
5. How do you try and convey the vision, mission and goals to subordinates?
6. How do you manage change as a leader?
7. How do you as a leader set work expectations and tasks?
8. How do you then ensure that employees complete the work tasks satisfactorily?
9. Please describe how you ensure performance from your subordinates.
10. Please describe your perspective on subordinates making mistakes or their ideas failing.
11. Please describe your work relationship with your followers.
12. From your perspective what are the key differences and similarities between African and Chinese leaders?

Leader – rater

1. How do you define leadership?
2. Please describe the leadership style of your immediate leader.
3. What makes a leader an effective leader?
4. What makes a leader an ineffective leader?
5. How important do you think it is for your leader to convey the organisation's vision, mission and goals to you and do you clearly understand the vision, mission and goals of the organisation?
6. How does your leader manage change and are you given the freedom to make changes and suggestions?
7. How does your leader set your work expectations and tasks?
8. How then does your leader ensure that you complete the work tasks satisfactorily?
9. Please describe how your leader ensures high performance from you.
10. Please describe how your leader reacts to you making mistakes or your ideas failing.
11. Please describe your work relationship with your leaders.
12. In your opinion what are the key differences and similarities between African and Chinese leaders?

C. Quality of work life questions

1. How would you define quality of work life?

Make a comment - *“I would now like to talk about how satisfied your work related needs are, if at any point you feel that you do not have a particular need, please mention so”*

2. How is the organisation satisfying your health and safety needs in and out of the workplace?
3. How is the organisation satisfying your need for job security?
4. How is the organisation satisfying your pay and remuneration needs?
5. How is the organisation satisfying your needs for benefits?
6. How does the organisation meet your family needs?
7. How are your social needs and needs for leisure being satisfied by the organisation?
8. How does the organisation satisfy your need for your potential to be recognised and grown?
9. How does the organisation satisfy your knowledge needs by providing opportunities for learning?
10. Please describe your satisfaction with the general aesthetics or physical surroundings of your work environment.
11. How is the organisation satisfying your need for opportunities to be creative within your work for example when problem solving?
12. How are your needs being met differently in this organisation than wholly *South African/Chinese* organisations you have worked for in the past?

13. Are any of the other needs you have besides the ones discussed and are these needs being satisfied?

How are these needs being met/not met? (*if necessary*)

This now brings us to the end of our interview, so we have spoken about your leadership style/perception of your leader's leadership style and how you feel your general needs are being met within the workplace. This information is going to be used to explore how leaders directly and indirectly influence their own and their subordinates' quality of work life levels. Is there anything else you would like to add in this regard?

Thank you very much for your time and for agreeing to participate in this research.

APPENDIX B: COVER LETTER AND INFORMED CONSENT



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Grahamstown • 6140 • South Africa

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

Tel: [+27] 046 603 8687

E-mail: m.louw@ru.ac.za/

g09h2468@ru.ac.za

November 2014

Dear Sir / Madam

You are hereby invited to participate in an interview pertaining to leadership style and the quality of work life. The interview forms part of a research assignment being conducted by Rayne Handley, a Management Masters student at Rhodes University, Grahamstown. This research is being conducted under the auspices of and supported by the Sandisa Imbewu Research project on “Chinese organisations in Sub-Saharan Africa: New dynamics, new synergies” led by Prof. L. Louw, of Rhodes University, Grahamstown. All the data collected will be used for research purposes only and the privacy and confidentiality of your answers will be respected. Your participation in this interview will assist me with my analysis and contribute to the findings of my research. The title of the specific research study being conducted within this research project is entitled “Exploring the relationship between leadership styles and quality of work life: A case study of a Chinese-South African joint venture”.

Research on cross cultural organisational phenomena is limited. Over and above given China’s importance in Africa and the increasing relevance of improving employee behaviour through quality of work life and leadership in a cross-cultural context, the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between quality of work life and leadership styles in Chinese-South African intercultural contexts within South Africa. Through achieving this purpose it is hoped that greater synergy can be created between leaders and their followers within Chinese organisations or joint ventures in South Africa.

Please be aware that your participation in this research is voluntary, completely anonymous and no confidential information is required. Once the research has been conducted all the data collected will be handed to the research supervisor, Mr. M. Louw, for private storage and safe keeping. Please can you read and sign the consent form which can be found below. Please note that interviews and the data contained within them cannot be used by the researcher without your signed consent. The interview should not take longer than 45 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers however we do request that you answer the questions honestly. The interview is structured as follows:

Section A: Biographical information

Section B: Leadership styles

and Section C: The quality of work life

Thank you for your time in reading this and thank you for your consideration in participating in an interview to assist me with my research. Please feel free to ask me any questions or raise any concerns that you may have at any point in time.

Miss Rayne Handley



RHODES UNIVERSITY

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Department of Management

Research Project Title:	Exploring the relationship between leadership styles and quality of work life: A case study of a Chinese-South African joint venture
Principal Investigator(s):	Rayne Handley

Participation Information
• I understand the purpose of the research study and my involvement in it • I understand the risks of participating in this research study • I understand the benefits of participating in this research study • I understand that I may withdraw from the research study at any stage without any penalty • I understand that participation in this study 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 results will remain confidential • I understand that I will receive no payment for participating in this study • I am over the age of 18 and do not need consent from a legal guardian • I have not been coerced or forced into participation in any way

Information Explanation

The above information was explained to me by: Rayne Handley

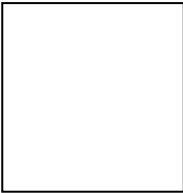
The above information was explained to me in: ☐English ☐Afrikaans ☐isiXhosa ☐isiZulu
☐Other:

and I am in command of this language

OR, it was comprehensibly translated to me by: n/a

Voluntary Consent

I, _____, hereby voluntarily consent to participate in the above-mentioned research.

Signature:	OR , right hand thumb print	Date: / /
		

Investigator Declaration

I, Rayne Handley, declare that I have explained all the participant information to the participant and have truthfully answered all questions asked to me by the participant.

Signature:	Date: / /
------------	-------------------

APPENDIX C: INDIVIDUAL PARTICIPANT CODING SHEET

Biographical information

Code number	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Education	Position and employment code	Years of tenure	Stay in South Africa (years)

Individual participant quotes and keys

Themes	Quotes (page numbers)	Keys
Leadership section		
3. Definition		
4. Leadership style		
5. Leadership effectiveness		
6. Leadership ineffectiveness		
7. Vision, mission, goals		
8. Change		
9. Work expectations and tasks		
10. Performance management systems		
11. Mistakes		
12. Autonomy/freedom		
13. Relationship		
14. SA/CH similarities or differences		
Quality of work life section		
15. Definition		
16. Health and safety		
17. Job security		
18. Pay and remuneration		
19. Benefits		
20. Family		
21. Social and leisure		
22. Recognition		

and growth		
23. Knowledge		
24. General aesthetics and physical surroundings		
25. Creativity		
26. Needs met differently		

Deductive themes derived from interview schedule

Leadership:

1. Definition
2. Leadership style
3. Leadership effectiveness
4. Leadership ineffectiveness
5. Vision, mission, goals
6. Change
7. Work expectations and tasks
8. Performance management systems
9. Mistakes
10. Autonomy/freedom
11. Relationship
12. SA/CH similarities or differences

Quality of work life:

13. Definition
14. Health and safety
15. Job security
16. Pay and remuneration
17. Benefits
18. Family
19. Social and leisure
20. Recognition and growth
21. Knowledge
22. General aesthetics and physical surroundings
23. Creativity
24. Needs being met differently

Acronyms

- SA: South African
- CH: Chinese

QWL: Quality of work life

GLOSSARY

F	FRLDT	Full Range Leadership Development Theory
	FRLM	Full Range Leadership Model
H	HR	Human resources
	HRM	Human resource management
I	IDP	Individual development programme
K	KPI	Key performance indicators
M	MBE (active)	Management-by-exception (active)
	MBE (passive)	Management-by-exception (passive)
	MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Q	QWL	Quality of work life