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SUMMARY

This study investigated the relationship between leadership style and group processes and dynamics with due consideration of the role of related systems in the context of organisational change. The theoretical assumptions and practical implications of the full range model of leadership were discussed. This model emphasises the transactional-transformational paradigm. In addition, approaches to studying and working with groups were covered, focusing specifically on group processes and group dynamics. In the case of the latter, the systems psychodynamic perspective was emphasised. The present study was conducted in a plant of a South African production organisation that had been experiencing transformation. An intervention was done at management level to identify behavioural and operational issues and to sensitise the members of the management team in terms of individual and group functioning. The conceptualisation of leadership styles in terms of the full range model of leadership was largely supported by means of associations with certain personality traits and behaviours. The latter also provided a profile of desired characteristics, especially in terms of interpersonal styles and work and social ethics. The theory on group processes and dynamics was used to explore group and organisational functioning. The context of change and the related insecurity resulted in efforts to deal with anxiety by means of excessive reliance on structure. Centralised leadership and a dynamic of control and dependency characterised all levels of the organisation. Cooperation in an interdependent manner was therefore problematic and there was also a struggle in terms of interrelatedness in and between systems. The unconscious defence strategy was related to the general reliance on transactional behaviours and the lack of authorisation of leadership in terms of transformational behaviours. Despite the successful application of theory in the present study and the contribution made by the results, it was concluded that the uniqueness and the realities of each situation need to be explored and provided for, and a system should be allowed to determine the progression in the system.

Key terms: full range model, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, group processes, group dynamics, systems psychodynamics, group relations theory, open systems theory

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A "grand enterprise" is the term a *National Geographic* article used to describe the hike of J. Michael Fay across the forests of central Africa - a hike of 2 000 miles that took 453 days (Quammen, 2001). The articles in the *National Geographic* focused on the leader of this expedition, Fay. He fascinates the reader, and one is inspired by his conviction and awed by his determination. His relationship with his followers is described in detail. Although for practical reasons, the composition of the team that travelled with him changed more than once, the elements of his relationship with them seemed to remain fairly constant.

Fay exercised a transactional exchange (paying well in an area where employment was scarce) but augmented this with transformational leadership. He had a strong personal vision of the value of what he was doing in terms of environmental contribution and the nature of his mission possibly motivated his followers to go beyond their own self-interest, to rise above the ordinary (Bass, 1990). However, it is clear from the reports that it was not just a mutual goal that motivated his followers, but the person himself (Conger, 1999). He made it possible for them to identify with him, someone who never expected them to experience discomfort or take risks if he was not prepared to do the same. But identification with a charismatic leader could also lead to unquestionable obedience to and dependence upon the leader (Barbuto, 1997). Fay regarded it as a military situation in which there could be only one leader giving orders, and those orders had to be followed without debate. In situations of chaos he felt that he had to dominate people to restore order. There were incidences in which he lashed out at his followers for incompetence and stupidity. Despite this use of power in certain situations, he also showed sensitivity to the needs of others. Personal consideration of his followers was seen in incidents such as changing plans to accommodate someone who fell ill, taking the physical limitations of individuals into account when providing assistance and being fair. Identification was thus based on respect, admiration and trust. The mission's success went beyond the goals of finishing the expedition and gathering data, and in Fay's words "the thought of the end was sad for everyone" (Quammen, 2001, p. 91).

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The work environment is characterised by globalisation together with accelerating rates of change in markets, technologies, the work force and work force expectations (Gordon-Brown & Bendixen, 2002; Horwitz, Kamoche & Chew, 2002; Rosenzweig, 1998; Van der Colff, 2003). As organisations adapt to competitive pressures, changes are taking place in cultural patterns, role definitions, structures, policies, procedures and technologies (Krantz, 2001). More than mere compliance to change is needed for this process to succeed - transformation in all the related systems of the organisation is necessary to effect change in the organisational culture. At the core of transformation is leadership, and the relationships between and mutual influence of the leader and the team he or she is leading (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The description of J. Michael Fay illustrates a transformational leadership style. But this description also raises questions about the transformation that took place in the group that made "the end sad for everyone". What processes and dynamics were taking place in the team while the specific leadership style was being exercised? Did these processes and dynamics enable the leader to exercise this style? How did systems such as the team members' communities influence reactions in the team to the specific leadership style?

According to Kanungo and Conger (1992), leadership is not only an individual property, but it can also be regarded as a process of influencing others. Transformational leadership is defined in terms of the leader's relationships with followers. The nature of these relationships determines the effect on attitudes, behaviour and performance of followers that is specific to transformational behaviour. Research on transactional and transformational leadership includes studies on the effect of the leader's behaviour in dyadic relationships and on the performance and work attitudes of groups as well as its impact at organisational level. The role of group process variables in leadership research has to some extent also been investigated. For example, Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986) found group cohesion to be a moderator variable of the effect of leader behaviour, while Bass (1990) refers to the fact that group effects appear to augment the leader's impact on the satisfaction of the individual members. However, these studies are generally quantitative and focus on the measurement of outcome variables and the mediator and moderator variables involved when examining the effect of leadership style. Obholzer (2001) emphasises the need for working at understanding one's experience and that of others in relation to leadership which suggests a qualitative

approach. Many models of leadership, including the transactional-transformational model to some extent, do not easily provide for such an experiential perspective on group processes and dynamics in relation to leadership style.

In a context of organisational change one therefore needs to explore not only the leadership style being exercised but also the concurrent processes and dynamics in the team being led. However, the manner in which a team reacts to the need for change as well as to the process of change occurring, is influenced not only by relationships in the group but also by the relationships between the group and other systems in the organisation, with the organisation as a whole, with systems in the environment and even with society. In providing for such a broader perspective, the change process throughout an organisation becomes clearer. In addressing the research problem, certain factors influenced the perspectives adopted on leadership style and on the study of leadership, the group and the broader context. These factors are considered in the following subsections.

1.1.1   Leadership in a changing work environment

A distinction can be made between management and leadership (Bateman & Snell, 1999; Kanungo & Conger, 1992; Yammarino, 1994). However, leadership is an important component of management. For a manager to achieve organisational objectives, he or she needs to influence the behaviour of others through leadership. Leadership, however, is not limited to managerial positions but can also be exercised in various roles. The full range model of leadership (with the transactional-transformational paradigm as its basis) can be regarded as a response to issues resulting from a changing work environment both internationally and in the South African context. (Note that the term "paradigm" is used here in accordance with the literature and refers to the broader theoretical notion of these leadership styles and not only to the descriptions according to the full range model.)

Transformational leadership provides an ideal of leadership, given contemporary developments in the global business world (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It includes charismatic behaviour, builds on the effect of a transactional approach, and implies an integration of individual development and organisational development. As such, Bass and Avolio (1994)

regard transformational leadership as essential for competitiveness in a work climate of rapidly changing technology and changing work force expectations. It has been shown that champions of technological innovation use transformational behaviours to a significantly greater extent than nonchampions (Howell & Higgens, 1990). Transformational leaders promote change amongst others through inspirational motivation to overcome indifference and resistance to major technological change.

Sagie (1997a) refers to emerging organisational phenomena such as development of organisations, emphasis on employee empowerment and on teams and a focus on client centred and total quality business. Organisational changes imply a sharing of information, decentralisation of decision-making authority and increasing use of teams that make the development of leaders across organisational levels important (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Vroom, 2000). Developments such as these and the fact that the current environment is dominated by knowledge work, require envisioning, enabling and empowering leadership - the functions of the transformational leader (Bass, 1997). Although transformational leadership may be autocratic and directive or democratic and participative, an increase in the use of participative processes is to be expected.

Organisational developments furthermore include functioning in international and multicultural environments. There is also diversity in organisations and the domestic workforce is becoming increasingly multicultural, heterogeneous and diverse. In this regard, Rosenzweig (1998) refers to the need for management to utilise the benefits of a diverse workforce while maintaining the necessary consistency internationally. Authors such as Church and Waclawski (1999) and Gibson and Marcoulides (1995) refer to leadership and transformational leadership in particular, as an increasingly important facet of global competition. Globalisation implies not only doing business internationally but also being able to move resources elsewhere in the world to gain a competitive advantage. This requires an organisational culture and value system characterised, inter alia, by cultural flexibility, systems thinking, change management and continuous learning - a value system supported by the behaviours of the transformational leader.

Gibson and Marcoulides (1995) found support for the generalisability of leadership styles

(including various styles on the directive-participative continuum) across different cultures. Bass (1997) discusses empirical support for the full range model of leadership based on studies from different types of organisations and different cultures. Empirical evidence exists for the universality of three corollaries for the theory underlying the full range model, namely the hierarchy of correlations between leadership styles and outcomes in effectiveness, effort and satisfaction; the one-way augmentation effect of transformational leadership; and the concept of prototypes and ideals being transformational (e.g. Singer,1985). Although the conceptualisation is universally applicable, organisational and cultural contingencies could affect the manifestation of behaviours and relationships as well as the meaning given to particular leadership behaviours in a setting. According to Kuchinke (1999), although the full range model has been extensively researched in the North American context, there is a need for more cross-national and cross-cultural research. Attributes of charismatic or transformational leadership were studied as part of the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Research Program (Den Hartog, House, Hanges & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999). These attributes were universally seen as contributing to outstanding leadership, although cultural differences in the enactment of these attributes were found. The study focused on 60 different societies/cultures including a white and a black sample in South Africa.

The South African context requires a focus on the relationships between all people working together (Saunders, 1998; Van der Colff, 2003). Although relations with work performance are indicated, transformational leadership is associated more with roles that focus on people than on task accomplishment (Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Kanungo & Conger, 1992). Transformational leadership is based on effective relationships. According to Saunders (1998) the conflict between management and labour in South Africa is characterised by an adversarial approach which attributes blame and focuses on past injustices. According to Saunders (1998) and Van der Colff (2003) the basic requirement for effectiveness is to establish trust and respect, thus building cooperative relationships which will lead to productivity and international competitiveness. This implies that the leader needs to be seen as understanding and caring, someone who is ethical and who can be trusted and respected. There needs to be acceptance of diversity as something valuable and employee needs with regard to self-esteem and personal growth have to be considered.

The transformational leader supports the efforts of followers, encouraging their autonomy and empowering them to take on more responsibility as they develop in expertise (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Empowerment, a critical concept in the South African context, comprises two dimensions, one being relational and specifically in the form of reciprocal trust, and the other motivational with motivation occurring through enhancing self-efficacy (Sciame, 1996). Followers gain confidence in their abilities through participation, and cooperation is encouraged by sharing information and allowing participation in decision making (Munene, 1997; Wilkinson, 1995). This implies that values that reflect individualised consideration and participative management practices need to be considered in addition to more traditional performance values such as mastery of skills and pursuit of excellence (Van der Colff, 2003; Watkins & Mauer, 1994).

To ensure sustainability of change and of projects, followers need to be willing to transform their own self-interest into the interest of the group. This requires leadership defined as giving meaning to events - that is, the ability to interpret events so that followers will see their own needs represented in the interpretations, thus creating shared meaning and goals that represent the values and motivations of both the leader and the followers. According to Munene (1997) the leader-manager creates a mission and defines steps on how to achieve the mission. Van Rensburg and Crous (2000) also emphasise the need for learning organisations if South African companies are to adapt to the dynamic business environment. Learning organisations strive to establish new ways of thinking, generate new visions and provide continuous learning opportunities - all functions of the transformational leader.

Horwitz et al. (2002) refer to a lack of empirical research on managerial culture in Southern African firms, and Blunt and Jones (1997) mention the lack of theoretical and empirical studies in developing countries. The value of Western concepts of leadership, including transformational leadership, in the local context is not wholly supported. According to Thomas and Bendixen (2000), effective management practices can be learned, thus implying convergence of management culture in the global economy not being inappropriate. They found considerable similarity in values across various ethnic groups of middle managers in South Africa. Management culture and perceived effectiveness were furthermore independent of the dimensions of culture and race. Ali et al. (2001), Horwitz et al. (2002) and Blunt and

Jones (1997), on the other hand advocate localisation with greater emphasis on the benefits of indigenous management practices. Whereas Horwitz et al. (2002) propose that South African firms should adopt management principles and practices related more to those in East Asia than in Western countries, Blunt and Jones (1997) refer to the uniqueness of leadership in East Asian and in African countries (both differing from the Western concept of leadership). Both these articles refer to communalism and traditionalism characterising East Asian and African cultures.

Van der Colff (2003) emphasises the African value system of *Ubuntu*, a collective mindset that embodies value sharing and communal enterprise, as imperative in enhancing South Africa's global competitiveness. Thomas and Bendixen (2000) also refer to the importance of an inclusive organisational culture when considering management in the culturally diverse South African market. They use the term "communalism" rather than "collectivism" - a concept that caters for the coexistence of individualism. Ali et al. (2001) comment on the notion, in an African context, of being competitive (individualistic) and mindful of traditional social motivation (collectivistic) at the same time. Blunt and Jones (1997) regard this search for harmony as the driving force in the African context rather than the visionary outlook supported by Western concepts of transformational leadership. However, with its emphasis on people and providing for the needs of the individual and the group in formulating a vision, transformational leadership seems to have value in the approach suggested by Blunt and Jones (1997). These authors furthermore agree that Western notions of leadership and management may become more applicable as the influence of markets grows.

1.1.2 A systems psychodynamic perspective on leadership and the group

Group processes include maintenance behaviours and task behaviours (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; Elron, 1997; Harrison & Pietri, 1997; Kathuria & Partovi, 1999; Kim, Min & Cha, 1999; Knight et al., 1999; McCauley, 1998; Niederman & DeSanctis, 1995; Schminke & Wells, 1999; Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998; West & Anderson, 1996). Patterns of behaviours aimed at maintaining interpersonal relationships in such a manner that the group can perform its tasks refer to open communication, participation, cooperation and coordination, supportiveness and dealing constructively with disagreements and conflict.

These behaviours are, in turn, related to certain structural variables such as cohesion and groupthink. Task behaviours of the group include problem formulation, the development of solutions, the preparation and implementation of an action plan to address the problem and differentiation with regard to individual inputs. Decision making in this process requires a full information search and exploration of and consensus on different options and opinions. Participation, commitment to task goals and the resultant cohesion also need to be considered.

Group dynamics, on the other hand, refer to the psychodynamics of the group - the hidden aspects of the group that influence conscious processes and the group's manifest behaviours. The psychoanalytic perspective on groups is based on Bion's theory on the functioning of groups (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Rioch, 1970, 1975). The manifest aspects of the group include the group processes in the sense that the group uses maintenance and task behaviours to consciously work towards objectives. During a process of organisational change one considers whether an intervention at this level is needed, and this could take the form of team building targeted at improving the group processes (Bottom & Baloff, 1994). Such an intervention would, however, not be successful if the latent aspects of the group's functioning are not also considered. This refers to combined emotional needs, anxieties and defences of group members.

Leader behaviour can be studied in terms of the functions of a leadership style and the influence of the style on the attitude and performance of a group and its members. A suggested intervention might include development on a personal level or as part of managerial training programmes. Issues of authority, power and leadership are, however, central to the dynamics in a group and it is essential to also consider the manner in which latent aspects of group life, as it relates to leadership, influence behaviour (Obholzer, 1994a). For this purpose leadership is distinguished from management in terms of its regard for the future, pursuing a vision and the consequent implication of followership. The leader is to a greater or lesser extent mobilised by the group. This relationship could be characterised by behaviours that are not in support of the task of the group but rather in reaction to emotional needs and anxieties. A case in point is immature dependence on the leader (De Board, 1978). A state of interdependence, which is conducive to the task of the group, requires resolving issues of authority associated with various roles and tasks, including the position of leader. Only in

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taking up and using authority in a mature manner when needed, is a system of accountability possible which, in turn, underlies the process of organisational change.

Provision also needs to be made for the role of structural aspects of the organisational system which include division of labour, levels of authority and reporting, its mission and primary task. Systems psychodynamic functioning refers to the interaction between the structural features of the organisation and its members which stimulates patterns of individual and group dynamic processes (Miller, 1993; Miller & Rice 1967, 1975, 1990). Individuals and groups in an organisation externalise aspects of themselves that cause anxiety and the structure of an organisation is thus to some extent formed and modified by the defence mechanisms of individuals and groups. Hence the organisation contains anxieties and serves as a defence mechanism or social defence system (De Board, 1978; Stokes, 1994). Although collective defences could have a negative impact, they also contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation in the sense that the organisation serves as a container for people to work out and work through the ambivalent feelings surrounding work and organisational conflicts. However, the changes in structural features that occur during organisational transition implies that the familiar social defence system is no longer functional and appropriate containment is needed until a new system has been established (Krantz, 2001).

1.1.3   Context of this study

A request for an intervention at management level in an organisation experiencing change provided an opportunity for studying leadership style, group processes and dynamics in relationship to leadership style, and the role of related systems in a context of organisational change. The organisation involved is a South African production organisation with plants throughout the country. The organisation has a board of directors at national level and a general manager with a management team at each plant. This study involved one of the plants.

The corporate management of the organisation have been using a consultancy firm (of which the present researcher is an associate) specifically for selection and placement. The firm has also been involved in training-related needs in the organisation, and was contracted to address problems at one of the plants. The corporate management of the organisation were dissatisfied

with production at the plant, which was measured in terms of outputs (the number of units manufactured) as well as losses during the production process. The outputs at the plant had shown an improvement compared with those for the previous year but the losses were regarded as unsatisfactory. In response to continuous changes in technology and customer demands the organisation had been adapting at operational level and in terms of the composition and structuring of personnel. Corporate management voiced concern about the centralised decision-making style of the general manager at the specific plant. The top management team as well as other levels of management were consequently seen as reactive (rather than proactive) and they did not take sufficient responsibility or act in an accountable manner.

The consultants suggested that replacing the general manager might not solve the problem. In an environment or system where there is codependence, problems should be viewed systemically (Gould, 2001). The interdependence and mutual influence of the members of the system should be acknowledged. Interaction between various related systems also takes place and the degree of this interaction depends on how open or closed the systems are (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001; Stacey, 2001). In this instance the staff, the management team, corporate management, the suppliers and the customers, as well as the community and even the broader society, were all regarded as systems influencing each other. A systemic intervention was therefore suggested to bring about change through transition rather than compliance. Since the identified problem was leadership style, the focus was on the general manager and his team. Leadership styles as well as group processes and dynamics in this team were studied. The interaction with other systems was also considered, and at various stages these systems were involved in the intervention process.

1.2   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Questions relating to the literature study were as follows:

- What is the theoretical basis of the full range model of leadership that emphasises the transactional-transformational paradigm?
- What effect does leader behaviour have at individual, group and organisational level when

viewed from the perspective of the full range model?

- What characteristics and processes have to be considered when studying and working with groups?
- How does a systems psychodynamic approach to studying groups provide for the interrelatedness between systems in organisations, especially in a context of organisational change?

Questions relating to the empirical investigation were as follows:

- What traits and behaviours are displayed by managers exercising transactional and/or transformational leadership?
- How do the processes and dynamics in a management team reflect and influence the leadership style being exercised?
- How are the management team and its leadership related to other systems in and outside the organisation in a context of organisational change?

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS

The overall aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between leadership style and group processes and dynamics with due consideration of the role of related systems in a context of organisational change.

The aims of the literature study were as follows:

- To discuss the theoretical basis of the full range model of leadership with its emphasis on the transactional-transformational paradigm.
- To review research on the effect that leader behaviour has at individual, group and organisational level when viewed from the perspective of the full range model.
- To discuss group characteristics and processes.
- To explore the systems psychodynamic approach to studying groups.

The aims of the empirical investigation were as follows:

- To gain an understanding of transactional and transformational leadership through a description of the traits and behaviours of managers exercising these styles.
- To gain an understanding of the processes and dynamics in a management team and how these reflect and influence the leadership style being exercised.
- To gain an understanding of the relationships of the management team and its leadership with other systems both in and outside the organisation in a context of organisational change.

1.4 PARADIGM

The theoretical paradigm of the study was primarily interpretive (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999) although this was combined at certain stages of the project with a more positivist reliance on the concept of external reality. Leadership theory as discussed in this study, is based largely on the interpretation of reality as stable and law-like relationships between a number of variables (ontological dimension) with a view to confirming or rejecting hypotheses on these relationships (teleological dimension) based on objective data including measurements (epistemological dimension). The full range model of leadership which formed the basis of this study, includes the following assumptions (Bass & Avolio, 1994):

- Every leader displays each of three leadership styles to some degree, namely laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership.
- Transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership each style differing in terms of the process whereby the leader motivates his or her followers and the type of goals set.
- The effective leader places more emphasises on transformational behaviours associated with idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration than on the other styles of leadership (but is nevertheless guided by the situation).
- Leadership can be studied at different levels providing for leader-member interaction, group-level processes and influence at organisational level.

The theory was applied in this study in a positivist manner using quantitative methods (methodological dimension) to gain an understanding of transactional and transformational leadership.

The information gained in the above manner was, however, integrated in further interpretive exploration and description. The systems psychodynamic perspective based on the theory and concepts of psychoanalysis, group relations and open systems theory was used to study a management team and its relationship with other systems in an organisation. This perspective implies the internal reality and subjective experience of participants as the research domain (ontological dimension), understanding and describing this reality as the goal (teleological dimension) and ensuring that this understanding is reliable and valid through a researcher who is emphatic and practises observer intersubjectivity (epistemological dimension). The systems psychodynamic approach includes the following assumptions (De Board 1978; Gould, 2001):

- Behaviour is both conscious and unconscious and the behaviour of individuals, groups and the organisation should be understood at both levels thus providing for the relationships between these systems.
- At an unconscious level, individuals and groups rely on defence mechanisms such as regression, denial and splitting and projection to deal with anxiety.
- Organisations serve as containers for this anxiety but also reinforce the defence mechanisms with individual and group dynamics being a source and a consequence of organisational culture, role definitions, boundary definitions and the management of these roles and boundaries.

Qualitative methods (methodological dimension) were used to obtain information. The interpretive paradigm suggests an emphasis on the contribution of human subjectivity to knowledge without sacrificing the objectivity of knowledge - in other words, understanding subjective meaning objectively.

1.5   DESIGN

The research design should follow logically from the research problem and includes the

guidelines to be followed in addressing this problem. In this instance, the research problems and aims were best answered by using both quantitative and qualitative tools, the compatibility of which is supported by Mouton (2002). Quantitative instruments were used to obtain data on the traits and behaviours associated with different leadership styles. Although the use of measuring instruments implied numerical data and predetermined categories, this information was used to provide qualitative descriptions that formed part of further exploratory and descriptive investigations of a management team and its relationship with other systems in an organisation.

The preceding was done within a qualitative methodological framework which implies certain themes of inquiry (Durrheim, 1999; Fouché & Delport, 2002; Janesick, 2000; Mouton & Marais, 1996). Qualitative research is holistic - in other words , the phenomenon being studied is understood as a complex system that is more than the sum of its parts. The context is essential in understanding the phenomenon, and data[1] on numerous aspects thereof are gathered to construct a complete picture. This method is recommended for studies focusing on dynamic (and mostly latent) processes (Schneider & Shrivastava, 1988). Qualitative research is furthermore inductive in the sense that the emphasis is on understanding a phenomenon without imposing pre-existing expectations. According to Durrheim (1999) and Mouton and Marais (1996), an inductive strategy implies that the conceptual framework is less explicit. However, in this study, in order to guide the researcher, certain expectations were based on the literature survey on leadership style and group processes and dynamics. Although the theory provided an explanatory framework, the aim of the study was not to test formal hypotheses but instead to be flexible and allow a systematic explanation of the interrelatedness of the concepts to emerge through rich description of the data. This involved an in-depth understanding of and immersion in the details of the data to discover important categories, dimensions and interrelationships. Qualitative research is also naturalistic with the emphasis on real-world situations as they unfold (as opposed to control over people and the aim of proving something) and it is subjective in the sense that it implies understanding from

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[1] For convenience sake the term "data" is used throughout this study although a more neutral term such as "research material" is more appropriate to qualitative research (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999).

the participants' perspective, with the focus on their experiences (in this instance, the experiences of the management team in relation to leadership style and group processes and dynamics in the broader context of change).

Research needs to be designed in such a way that the planning, structuring and execution of the study are coherent with the theoretical approach and will ensure the objectivity of the conclusions and maximise the validity of the findings (Durrheim, 1999). Operationalisation of the concepts of leadership style and group processes and dynamics as well as the context in which these phenomena were studied, implied decisions on research strategies and techniques of data collection and analysis. Both to structure the research process and to meet the requirements in terms of the intervention, an outline for a proposed process was drawn up. However, the design was flexible and the outcomes of each stage determined the way in which the next stage was to be approached. Janesick (2000) refers to unpredictability when doing field work and that schedules need to be continuously adjusted. A broad time limit of six months was set for the intervention but within this period the use of time was flexible. However, regular contact with participants kept them engaged in the project.

1.6   METHOD

With reference to the sociological dimension (Mouton & Marais, 1996), the current study can be regarded as self-initiated in terms of the conceptualisation of the problem, namely an investigation into the relationship between leadership style and group processes and dynamics with due consideration of the role of related systems in a context of organisational change. Since the focus of this study was on understanding and describing the functioning of a management team in a specific organisation, it can be defined as an interpretive case study (Stake, 2000). A suitable study presented itself as a request for an intervention at management level in an organisation experiencing change, and in this sense, the study can also be regarded as contract research. The research strategy was therefore not limited to gaining information but by giving feedback to participants, they gained insight and were thus enabled to function more consciously and to be more effective in identifying and planning strategies in response to the changes required in the organisation.

Conceptualisation involved a literature review to show how the current research is integrated into the body of existing theory and research (Mouton, 2002). Leadership and leadership styles were studied from the perspective of the full range model of leadership and an overview was given of related research. Group processes and group dynamics and the way in which they are related to leadership were explored by studying the theory underlying the systems psychodynamic approach. This approach provides for understanding the interrelatedness of a group and the broader context in which it functions. Related research, including work on organisational change, was reviewed.

An approach referred to as triangulation was followed to collect and analyse the data (Janesick, 2000; Kelly, 1999c). Not only were a variety of data sources used but a multimethod approach also implied the use of different techniques of data collection. This enabled the researcher to obtain data on various facets of the phenomena in a broader context. According to Mouton and Marais (1996), the inclusion of multiple sources and techniques of data collection is likely to increase the reliability of observations. Data were obtained from directors, members of the management team, representatives of the staff, staff members as well as the researcher and co-workers in their role as respondents. The fact that the project was undertaken by a team of consultants, implied investigator triangulation, although this was limited because the primary researcher was responsible for most of the analysis and interpretation. Personality questionnaires and a questionnaire on leadership styles, a climate survey, a survey on strategic objectives, semistructured individual as well as group interviews, observation of group functioning during group consultation with the management team and personal reflections were all used to obtain information.

In qualitative research, data analysis cannot be separated from data gathering (Kelly, 1999a). Ideas on what was happening in the research setting were developed and noted throughout the research process. The researcher tried to understand the experiences of the respondents empathically, and also adhered to the principle of using the self as instrument (McCormick & White, 2000). This implies continuously reflecting on one's own experiences in relation to co-workers, the respondents and the process as well as critically evaluating the self as an object in the research and seeing the self as both inquirer and respondent. Feedback was also obtained throughout from co-workers. The researcher was not restricted in terms of the time

spent in the setting but was guided by the development of the research process in this regard. Preliminary analyses of data obtained with the different techniques took place as soon as the data have been gathered. (Note that the initial analysis of the questionnaires involved quantitative methods.) Both the ideas on what was happening as well as the preliminary findings were used to shape the ongoing research process. This is in line with the idea that an interpretive approach within a qualitative methodological framework implies a flexible design that evolves throughout the research process. According to Mouton and Marais (1996), analysis refers to the isolation of factors, the separation of parts, while interpretation requires an integration and reconstruction of relationships. Existing theory was used as frame of reference in the interpretation process. Data were interpreted from the perspective of a model of leadership as well as the systems psychodynamic approach (implying theory triangulation). Categories, dimensions and interrelationships that emerged from the data were used to form a comprehensive picture of the research setting. Validity had to be addressed by ensuring relevant and adequate support for conclusions and the exploration of alternative interpretations. The contextual nature of interpretive research nevertheless places a strong limit on the generalisability of findings (Kelly, 1999c).

Moral concerns were considered as ethical questions on informed consent, deception, privacy and confidentiality, accuracy, etcetera (see ch. 6 on the research method).

1.7   CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapters 2 and 3 deal with a literature survey on leadership. Chapter 2 provides an overview of traditional approaches to leadership while discussing the full range model in detail. The effectiveness of the leadership styles defined in the full range model is considered in chapter 3. The literature discussed here deals with the relationship between the leader and followers as well as the effect of leader behaviour on attitudes and work performance. Relationships with individual members, interaction with the group and the impact of leadership styles at organisational level are covered. Chapters 4 and 5 deal with the literature on group characteristics, processes and dynamics. In chapter 4, group composition and structure and stages of group development are discussed. Research on the maintenance and task behaviours in groups, and topical issues related to organisational teams are also covered. Chapter 5

provides an explanation of the systems psychodynamic perspective on groups and organisations and the role of leadership in these contexts. The relevance of this approach for intervention in an organisation in transition is also illustrated. Chapter 6 outlines the method of research, the research participants, data collection, the procedures followed and methods of data analysis and interpretation. The results are discussed in chapters 7 and 8. Chapter 9 contains the conclusions based on the results and recommendations.

1.8   SUMMARY

The problem statement refers to the exploration of leadership style and its influence on the team being lead in the context of organisational change. Factors were mentioned that influence the perspective adopted on the study of leadership and of the processes and dynamics in the group in which this leadership is being exercised. These include the value of transformational leadership in the current work environment and the need for considering intersystemic relationships to provide for the organisational context in which a group functions. Related research questions and research aims were stated and a methodology for answering the problems and aims outlined. This included a discussion of how the research paradigm dictated a suitable design to guide the study and reference to the actual methods used to obtain and interpret results. The chapter concluded with a layout of the thesis.

In chapter 2 an overview of various approaches to leadership is provided, while a detailed discussion is given of the theoretical basis of the full range model of leadership with its emphasis on the transactional-transformational paradigm.

CHAPTER 2
APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Bass and Stogdill's *Handbook of leadership* (Bass, 1990) provides a comprehensive classification scheme for definitions of leadership. This scheme reflects the development of the way in which leadership has been viewed and also indicates how definitions of leadership are related to different approaches to leadership.

Some individuals have regarded leadership as *personality and its effects*. The trait approach to leadership, in turn, led to measurement to determine which combination of traits enables an individual to be a leader/successful leader. The leader "must possess prestige and must know what stimuli will condition adequate responses for his purpose and develop a technique for presenting these stimuli" (Bernard, 1926 in Bass, 1990, p. 12). Leadership is seen as "a combination of traits that enables an individual to induce others to accomplish a given task" (Tead, 1929 in Bass, 1990, p. 12). This is a simplified position because it does not allow for the interactive effect of leaders and followers. The traits are not leadership, but influence the way in which potential followers will regard the individual and the esteem he or she has in their eyes (hence the definition of leadership as an *emerging effect of interaction*). The situation also influences which personal qualities are important.

Similar to the previous definitions, leadership as *inducing compliance* implies influence by the leader without recognising the role of the followers and the group. It refers to authoritarian, directive and coercive leadership. This can be linked to leadership as a *power relationship* where a group member perceives another group member as having the right to prescribe the former's behaviour because it relates to membership of the group.

Leadership as a form of *persuasion* without coercion and leadership as the *exercise of influence* acknowledge the interactive aspect in the sense that the individual's behaviour is seen to affect the activities of the followers or the group. Leadership is "the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable" (Tead, 1935 in Bass, 1990, p. 13). It is "the process of influencing the activities of an organised group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1950 in Bass, 1990,

p. 13). Defining leadership in terms of *goal achievement* led to the use of reinforcement theory to understand leader-follower behaviour. The leader creates a vision and indicates how to obtain the goals. Followers are transformed into wanting to strive towards the vision.

The interactive element is also present in leadership as *a focus of group processes* as seen in the early definition of leadership as "the preeminence of one or a few individuals in a group in the process of control of societal phenomena" (Mumford, 1906 - 07 in Bass, 1990, p. 11). Leadership has also been defined as the "centralization of effort in one person as an expression of the power of all" (Blackmar, 1911 in Bass, 1990, p. 11), and more recently: "As a nation develops, it needs a centralized locus for its operation which can only be achieved by a single leader" (Babikan, 1981 in Bass, 1990, p. 11). These viewpoints led to interest in group structure and group processes in the study of leadership. Leadership has also been defined as the *acts or behaviours* in which the leader engages when coordinating and directing group activities and as a *differentiated role* assumed in a community, group or organisation. Leadership as the *initiation of structure* implies that the leader does not only assume a given role but also initiates and maintains the pattern of differentiated role relationships (including the persons, resources and tasks within the roles) in the group.

Conger (1992, p. 18) provides a broad definition that encompasses many of the aspects mentioned: "Leaders are individuals who establish direction for a working group of individuals, who gain commitment from these group members to this direction, and who then motivates these members to achieve the direction's outcomes." This is similar to Bass's (1990, p. 20) concluding definition of effective leadership "as the interaction among members of a group that initiates and maintains improved expectations and the competence of the group to solve problems or to attain goals".

2.1 TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Theories and models of leadership focus on how leadership develops, its nature, its consequences and its interaction with other factors. The trait theories, psychoanalytic theory and theories of leadership behaviours are discussed in the subsections below. These theories form part of Bass's (1990) category of personal and situational theories (which also includes

Hersey and Blanchard's situational model). The leader-member exchange theory refers to leadership behaviours, but Bass (1990) also groups it with theories of interactive processes. The discussion continues with Hersey and Blanchard's situational model, Fiedler's contingency model, the path-goal theory and Vroom and Yetton's model. Bateman and Snell (1999) refer to all of these as situational or contingency models, while Robbins (1993) classifies the last three as contingency theories. Bass (1990), on the other hand, classifies Fiedler's model and the path-goal theory together with interaction and social learning theories and the Vroom and Yetton model together with perceptual and cognitive theories. The discussion below indicates where leadership styles followed from a theoretical approach, and also when a model provides for the contingencies that influence the decision on an appropriate style.

2.1.1   Trait theories

The leader's personal characteristics and personality traits are the focus of trait theories, one of the oldest approaches to leadership that was dominant until the end of the 1940s. It is believed that there are qualities that differentiate leaders from followers, and the aim of leadership research should be to identify these qualities. Certain leadership traits expected by followers such as honesty, competence, being forward looking and being inspiring have been identified (Carrell, Jennings & Heavrin, 1997). Researchers should, however, not expect to find traits that always differentiate leaders from followers or that can act as predictors of leadership. Nowadays, it is accepted that traits do not ensure leadership success but that some traits (e.g. drive, leadership motivation, integrity, self-confidence and knowledge of the business) do distinguish effective leaders (Bateman & Snell, 1999).

Bass (1990) provides a review of the field of trait theories, showing how patterns of traits affect the emergence of leadership and interact with the characteristics of followers and the demands of the situation to influence effectiveness. To emerge as a leader, the individual needs to participate and interact. Personality traits associated with activity level include energy, assertiveness, dominance and talking. A need for achievement also contributes to the emergence of leaders, and their performance is shaped by their values. Self-concepts playing a role in this process include locus of control, sense of self-efficacy, self-confidence, self-

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esteem and the importance of self-actualisation. Conger (1992) emphasises motivation to lead and indicates a possible relationship between leadership and self-esteem and power needs. To remain acceptable to others as a leader, the leader should possess task competence because this is more likely to lead to effective accomplishment of the group's tasks. However, competence is relative and individual competencies such as intelligence, experience and possession of information, should also be relevant to the situation.

The leader should furthermore be sensitive to the problems and the people in the group being led, and interpersonal competence (communication skills, ability to handle conflict, authenticity and trust) seems necessary for effective leadership. A leader should be able to respond adequately to changing situations. Although this could imply understanding of social situations, research results on social insight and empathy are mixed. An authoritarian leader is oriented towards the use of power and political manipulation rather than interpersonal relationships and social influence. Whether this type of approach or a more egalitarian leader is acceptable to the group, depends to some extent on a matching with the personalities of the followers. The status of the leader (value of the position) and his or her esteem (value of the person) influence other's acceptance of the efforts to lead and thus influence successful performance.

Various studies on the relationship between personality characteristics and managerial attributes, behaviours and effectiveness are based on the measurement of personality. Note that these studies focus on management as a position in the organisation and the research is therefore relevant to managers and leaders. Hendler (1999) indicates a relationship between conscientiousness of leaders and team performance measures but found no such relationship for extroversion. Given the cultural differences found in terms of personality dimensions as measured on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Furnham and Stringfield (1993) suggest that the relationship between personality and management practices may be culture specific. They found that personality factors were related to work performance but that personality did not account for a great deal of variance. More comprehensively, Gardner and Martinko (1996) provide a review of research on type as identified with the MBTI and suggest various propositions on the relationships between personality type and focus, inter alia, on type of stimuli and information preferred, preferred environment, differences in

managerial behaviours and decision styles. Managers performing certain functions or roles have also been observed to share personality characteristics leading to the identification of Belbin's team roles (Dulewicz, 1995). Peper (1994) used the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) to provide support for a distinguishable personality profile of effective managers. Also using the 16PF, Bartram (1992) regards the differences between the profile of UK managers from the general population as justification for the development of norms for managers to counter the effects of self-selection, pre-selection and impression management. Managers were shown to be more extroverted and independent and less anxious than the average population.

2.1.2   Psychoanalytic theory

Interpretations from a psychoanalytic orientation portray the leader as, say, a father/mother figure, as a source of love or fear, as representing the superego, as a container for follower frustration and aggression as well as an ego-ideal. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) provide a detailed classification of how pathology can manifest as part of leadership because of an extreme manifestation of a specific neurotic style. The characteristics, fantasies and dangers of five common neurotic styles are described with specific reference to the way in which these styles in a top executive could influence the dominant organisational adaptive style (this style as a consequence, also being dysfunctional). Individuals might use elements of different neurotic styles in their functioning without being classified as pathological, although an extreme manifestation of a style could have serious implications for a person's functioning. Personality styles are a cluster of relatively stable behaviour patterns rather than simply dimensions of behaviour. Psychoanalytic object relations theory explains the development of neurotic styles in terms of interpersonal interactions and instinctual needs (Klein, 1985). An individual's behaviour is determined by his or her representational psychic world consisting of enduring images of the self and others that developed as the person matured. These images are the organising units enabling the person to perceive, interpret and react to sensations meaningfully. Instinctual needs are linked to these images and transformed into wishes which give rise to fantasies - schemata for viewing the world.

Intrapsychic fantasies are also used to explain group dynamics when exploring leader-member

relations. Lyndon (1994), for example, refers to the role of leader-member relationships in the basic assumption (fantasy) group of dependency. The group initially searches for structure and projects expectations of providing these onto the leader. This lessens feelings of helplessness and fear of loss of self. If the leader does not meet these expectations, he or she cannot be challenged because this will reactivate anxieties. Lyndon (1994) illustrates how the situation can be resolved by projecting subsequent feelings of frustration and anger caused by the experience of dependency onto another person - a scapegoat. If this person experiences the projection and has insight into the process of splitting and projection, he or she facilitates a transition from compliance and suggestibility to self-initiative and responsibility.

It is important to also consider the psychoanalytic perspective of charismatic leadership (given its importance to the full range model discussed in sec. 2.2.3). Charismatic leaders are seen to arise in crisis out of a sense of their own grandiosity and the group's sense of helpless dependency (Barbuto, 1997; Hogan, 1994; Lowe et al., 1996). They use many self-assuring internal images that form the basis of their connections with others. Given their influence, some degree of self-concentration appears to be important for effective leadership. In a positive sense, the emotional attachment that followers form with the leader, the faith and trust they have in him or her and the consequent personal identification, also contribute to the ability of the leader to inspire followers to transcend their own interests for higher goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The sense of reality of both the charismatic leader and the followers could, however, be distorted by psychodynamic mechanisms such as projection, regression and disassociation (Bass, 1990). In this regard, some relationship is evident between charisma and the narcissistic personality trait described by Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) as implying being self-centred and manipulative, and exploiting others.

2.1.3   Theories of leadership behaviours

Identifying the traits of an effective leader leads to the selection of the right person, whereas identifying behaviours critical to leadership implies that people can be trained to become leaders. Leadership styles refer to patterns of leadership behaviour and correspond to dimensions of leadership behaviour. These styles are, however, related to approaches involving not only leader behaviour but also other processes (interactive, cognitive, etc.).

2.1.3.1   Behavioural dimensions

Efforts to identify independent dimensions of leader behaviour led to the classification of behaviour termed by Bateman and Snell (1999) as task performance behaviours and group maintenance behaviours. Task performance behaviours are the actions taken to ensure that the group achieves its goals. This category has also been termed "initiating structure" (the structuring of tasks, work relationships and roles and goals) and "production-oriented" (a style characterised by an emphasis on the technical aspects of the task and the accomplishment of goals by the group members) (Robbins, 1993).

Group maintenance behaviours are actions to ensure the satisfaction of group members and the development and maintenance of good work relationships. It refers to the relationship between the leader and followers being characterised by mutual trust, respect for the ideas of followers, and regard for their feelings, well-being and satisfaction (Robbins, 1993). The focus is on interpersonal relationships with concern for followers' needs and acknowledgement of individual differences. Hence also the terms "consideration" and "employee-oriented".

The managerial grid suggested by Blake and Mouton (1964) is based on these two dimensions. A grid was proposed on the basis of the styles of concern for people and concern for production with leadership styles falling on a position from low in concern for both people and production to high in concern for both. An individual's position on the grid was identified, and training was initially aimed at developing leaders high in terms of both orientations. However, this approach ignores the moderating effect of situational factors.

A third category of leadership behaviour identified by Bateman and Snell (1999) is that of behaviours related to participation in decision making. In democratic leadership, followers are allowed to participate in decision making, whereas the autocratic leader retains all authority and decision making. According to Robbins (1993), autocratic and democratic leadership can be viewed as two opposite behavioural dimensions. However, if it is seen as a continuum with various leadership styles between these two styles, it would be more correct to classify it as a contingency theory. Carrell et al. (1997) refer to participative leadership as

seen from an autocratic-democratic leadership perspective but also acknowledge situational factors such as the organisational environment as influencing the decision on which style the leader should use. Participative leadership requires the leader to share authority with others when making decisions. In practice, this could take the form of the leader involving followers in decision making but retaining the authority to take independent action. Alternatively, employees could be allowed to form autonomous, self-led teams with specific objectives that make their own decisions.

2.1.3.2   Leadership styles

Gibson and Marcoulides (1995) define leadership style as the degree of direction provided by the leader in attempting to influence behaviour towards the accomplishment of organisational objectives. Leadership styles therefore refer to leadership behaviour. Bass (1990) distinguishes between autocratic and democratic leadership styles or patterns of leadership behaviour. This dichotomy is multifaceted referring to the way in which power is distributed and decisions made as well as whose needs are being met. The autocratic cluster of behaviours refers to a performance dimension and the democratic cluster to a maintenance dimension (i.e. task performance behaviours and group maintenance behaviours). Depending on circumstances, both styles could lead to an increase in performance and productivity, but the democratic style seems more effective in the long term and generally leads to greater satisfaction.

A number of dichotomies included in the autocratic and democratic clusters has sufficient specificity to classify them as separate leadership styles. A participative versus a directive leadership style refers primarily to the way in which decisions are made, that is, the processes involved in decision making. The directive leader is active in decision making and guides followers, while participative leadership implies that followers are involved in the planning and decision-making process. As in the previous dichotomy, this style can be placed on a continuum with most individuals using multiple decision-making styles on the continuum. The style affects acceptance of the decision, commitment, satisfaction and productivity, but a number of moderators should be considered in deciding on an appropriate style (see the leadership-participation model in sec. 2.1.8 where conditions are specified under which either

more direction or more participation is appropriate). Sagie (1997a) suggests that the two styles be regarded as two distinct constructs measured on two continuous scales (see the discussion on the loose-tight transformational leader in sec. 3.2.1).

Being production oriented versus employee oriented considers whose needs are being met when making a decision. Being task oriented implies the creation of structure and setting goals as well as planning how to realise them. In a relations-oriented leadership style, the focus is on the maintenance of personal relationships, open communications and the development of potential. The managerial grid suggested by Blake and Mouton (1964) proposes that the leader should integrate these styles (which, in many cases, seems to be the best option). There are, however, situational contingencies that have a moderating effect on the impact of these leadership styles on satisfaction and productivity (Hersey & Blanchard's situational model discussed in sec. 2.1.5 and Fiedler's contingency model in sec. 2.1.6 provide for these contingencies).

Consideration versus initiation of structure describes leader behaviours, with consideration referring to the extent to which the leader shows concern for the followers' welfare and initiation of structure referring to the extent to which the leader initiates and organises activity and defines how work should be done.

2.1.4   Leader-member exchange theory

Bass (1990) regards the vertical-dyad linkage or leader-member exchange (LMX) theory as one that explains leadership and leader-follower relationships as an interactive process. It focuses on the group maintenance behaviour referred to in the section on leadership behaviours. It is based on the work by Graen (1976 in Liden & Maslyn, 1998) which proposes that the interaction linkage between leader and follower is one of mutual influence and that the relationship between the leader and each individual follower should be considered instead of focusing on the relationship with the group as a whole. The leader develops a unique relationship or exchange with each follower instead of using the same style in dealing with followers. Central to this theory are the concepts of in-group and out-group. The extent to which the leader treats the follower as an out-group member versus the extent to which the

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follower is treated as an in-group member falls on a continuum of leader-member roles (Murphy & Ensher, 1999). In-group members are allowed more independence and also receive more attention and other rewards, resulting in better performance and greater satisfaction. Leader-member exchange theory is furthermore based on the assumption that social interaction represents a form of exchange. For example, the group provides the leader with esteem in exchange for the leader's unique contribution to group goals. This theory is discussed in more detail in chapter 3 as one of the theories used to explain the processes and outcomes associated with the leadership styles included in the full range model of leadership.

2.1.5 Hersey and Blanchard's situational model

In its simplest form situational theories have situational demands since the focus and situational factors are seen to determine who will emerge as leader. In what Bass (1990) refers to as personal-situational theories, the person should be considered together with the situation. It is not sufficient to consider only the traits and behaviours of the individual (the leader) because the situation and followers' needs also influence the effectiveness of leadership. The personality traits and behaviours of the leader together with the nature of the group (and its members) and the problems it must solve, determine leadership. This approach resulted in the practical application of predicting leadership potential by matching individual background, competencies and traits with the requirements of the position.

Originally called the life cycle theory, Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) situational model suggests that leader behaviour should correspond to the maturity of followers - in other words the follower's job maturity and psychological maturity should be considered when deciding between task performance behaviours or group maintenance behaviours. Hersey (1984) distinguishes between a theory (interpreting why things happen) and a model (pattern of existing events) and refers to their approach specifically as the situational leadership model. Leadership style is defined as the patterns of behaviour of the leader as perceived by others. Task behaviour is characterised by one-way communication from the leader to the follower and is directive because it involves telling people who is to do what, how and where. Relationship behaviour involves a two-way (or multiway) communication and is participative in the sense that the behaviour includes listening, encouraging, facilitating, providing

clarification and giving socioemotional support. The leader should have concern for people and results, and should be able to vary his or her leadership style to adapt to problems or situations. Hersey (1984) distinguishes between four possible styles that comprise combinations of high or low task and relationship behaviours.

Situational factors that impact on leader effectiveness include interactions with followers, superiors, associates, the organisation, job demands and time constraints (Hersey, 1984). However, the follower's readiness level is regarded as a critical factor in the situational leadership model. Four levels of readiness are distinguished in terms of the different combinations of ability and willingness to perform a particular task. Based on the follower's readiness level, the leader decides which leadership style is appropriate. As the follower matures in terms of experience, ability and motivation, the leader's behaviour should show decreasing emphasis on task structuring (task oriented) and increasing emphasis on consideration (relations oriented) which should again decrease with further maturation. Of importance is the leader's ability to adapt his or her behaviour to help others help themselves.

Nicholls (1985) criticises certain aspects of the situational leadership model. Firstly, it is suggested that the model should be adapted to allow for a consistent connection between the level of task/relationship behaviour and followers' ability/willingness. Secondly, the development level (ability and willingness) should be continuous along the development scale. The model should furthermore conform to the idea that a high concern for task is necessary with inability to perform and a high concern for relationships with an unwillingness to perform. The implication of these suggestions is a shift from a high task, high relationship style to a low task, low relationship style, as the followers develop from unable and unwilling to able and willing.

2.1.6   Fiedler's contingency model

Contingency theories see the leadership style chosen and its effectiveness as dependent upon the leader, the group and the situation. Also referred to as the "saw-toothed theory" (Bass, 1997), Fiedler's (1967) model describes the effectiveness of task-oriented and relations-oriented leadership styles as contingent upon the particular situation and its demands.

Whereas the person-situation approach focuses on the development of the individual to adapt to the situation, Fiedler's theory suggests that significant factors of the situation should be determined and the individual should be placed in the situation to which he or she is best suited.

This theory follows from the trait theories in that the leadership style is determined by means of a questionnaire on the way in which the leader judges his or her least-preferred co-worker. Contingency dimensions (or situational factors) are the leader-member relationships, the task structure and the leader position power. The situation is classified as favourable (positive relationships, structured tasks and greater position power) or unfavourable towards the leader. Task-oriented leaders perform better in situations that are either extremely favourable or extremely unfavourable to them while relations-oriented leaders perform better in moderately favourable situations. If a leader's style depends on his or her personality, it is would be more feasible to change the situation to fit the style. Fiedler's (1967) suggestions for leadership training involve diagnosing a situation and changing or modifying it to fit the leader's style.

The situational factors are, however, complex and difficult to assess and are furthermore not the only variables of importance. Altering these might also not be easy. Further weaknesses of this model are that the instrument for measuring leadership style is open to question, leader's technical competencies and the competencies and characteristics of subordinates are not considered, and the model does not provide a clear explanation of the leadership process. According to Bass (1997), effective leaders are able to integrate a task-oriented and relations-oriented approach.

2.1.7 Path-goal theory

The theory of reinforcement of change (Bass, 1990) is prominent in the path-goal theory. This theory states that motivation is increased by changing followers' expectations of being rewarded or punished and that the leader reinforces their behaviour by controlling rewards and punishments. House's (1971) path-goal theory of leader effectiveness focuses on the relationship between the leader's behaviour and followers' output and two sets of contingency variables that moderate the relationship. As seen earlier, leadership behaviour can be

classified in terms of initiating structure or consideration. More specifically, possible leadership styles defined by this theory are directive leadership, supportive leadership, participative leadership and achievement-oriented leadership (Bateman & Snell, 1999; Carrell et al., 1997). The effectiveness of a leadership style depends on the situation.

According to the path-goal theory, the leader motivates his or her followers by increasing rewards for attaining goals, clarifying the paths (method) to achieve these goals and also reducing problems that might hinder a person in achieving the goals, and increasing personal satisfaction in working towards goals, and also providing more opportunities for reward. Leader behaviour needs to be seen as an immediate source of satisfaction or as being instrumental for future satisfaction, and will motivate followers to the extent that satisfaction is made dependent on effective performance, and guidance, support and rewards necessary for effective performance are provided. The leader considers the environment and selects those behaviours that will ensure that his or her followers are maximally motivated towards the organisational goals (Gibson & Marcoulides, 1995).

Situational variables that impact on the effectiveness of leadership behaviour are the personal characteristics of followers and the environmental pressures and task demands with which followers must cope to realise their goals and obtain satisfaction. Important follower characteristics are authoritarianism, locus of control and ability, and the environmental factors to be considered are the tasks, formal authority system and primary work group. These variables should be taken into account when deciding on an appropriate leadership style(s). In a more structured situation, consideration is helpful, whereas initiating structure (clarifying the path) leads to greater satisfaction when tasks are not clear. The performance-based system of reward (pay-for-performance) is an example of the application of the path-goal theory.

Schriesheim and Neider (1996) refer to inconsistent findings and methodological problems in research on this theory. The relationship between leadership behaviour (specifically consideration) and job satisfaction as an outcome measure has been confirmed, but support for performance as an outcome measure and for the moderator variables has not been consistent. According to the authors, the theory can nevertheless be regarded as valuable because it provides a functional approach to leadership, focusing on the functions which need

to be fulfilled in the subordinates' work environment to ensure motivation, performance and satisfaction. Modification and extension of the theory in terms of the work done on charismatic leadership are suggested as a future possibility.

2.1.8   Leadership-participation model

This leadership model developed by Vroom and Yetton (1973) and revised by Vroom and Jago (1995) is based on a rational-deductive approach. The leader asks himself or herself a number of questions in deciding to adopt a directive or participative style in decision making, and whether to do so with individual members or the whole group . This model is also referred to as a decision-making theory (Gibson & Marcoulides, 1995).

Vroom and Jago (1995) provide the following presentation of the basic model. The leader chooses from five possible decision processes that differ in the form and amount of participation. These can be seen as running parallel to the autocratic-democratic continuum and include the following:

- You reach a decision alone, employing whatever facts you have at hand.
- You reach a decision alone, but first seek specific data from those who report to you.
- You consult one-on-one with those who report to you, describing the problem and seeking advice but still making the final decision alone.
- You consult with those who report to you in a meeting on the situation, take advice and choose one or more options alone.
- You devote a meeting to the situation and help the group to concur on a decision.

Eleven decision heuristics (contingency questions) are used to analyse the problem, and based on the answers to these questions, appropriate decision behaviour (i.e. how much participation should be used) is suggested. The use of a leadership style (or styles) depends on whether the aim is to improve decision quality, improve decision commitment, reduce decision costs (time) or increase subordinate development.

This model can be classified as a contingency theory in terms of its consideration of the type

of situation. However, it differs from theories such as those of Fiedler or Hersey and Blanchard which deal with relatively stable situational factors, implying a difference between managers who are in different circumstances. The Vroom-Jago model requires the leader to adjust his or her style to different situations. The situational unit of analysis is the immediate decision problem and the leader's behaviour varies in as much as he or she is presented with a variety of dissimilar decision problems. Vroom and Jago (1995) and Vroom (2000) refer to this as a normative model that helps the leader to select a style that best fits the decision problem/combination of situational factors.

A descriptive model, the aim of which is to describe how leaders decide if and when to use a participative style, was also developed. The unit of analysis is the person rather than the situation, and it is determined how effectively each person responds to a number of decision-making situations. Although the situation has been shown to explain more variance in behaviour than the overall leadership style, there are factors that lead to a disposition towards autocracy or participation. These person effects include industry differences, level in the organisation, function, gender and culture. Person-by-situation effects apply when different implicit theories concerning the usefulness of participation and the expected outcomes of its use result in differences in behaviour between persons, given a specific situation.

2.2 THE FULL RANGE MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership and management are not synonymous (Bateman & Snell, 1999; Kanungo & Conger, 1992; Yammarino, 1994). Leadership is the attempt to influence the behaviour of others, and being perceived as a leader is a prerequisite for influencing others. Related to this, is the influence potential of power, with a distinction between positional power and personal power. The leader engages in task-relevant activities such as planning and organising, but these activities are characterised by consideration for working relationships and the facilitation of interpersonal interaction, addressing the needs of the organisation, the task, the group and the individual in the broader environment. In addition to this interpersonal component underlying the leader's influence, charismatic and transformational leadership which is the focus of contemporary perspectives on leadership (Conger, 1999) also emphasises a visionary component. Leadership involves creating a vision and in doing so

giving meaning to the activities of followers, and inspiring them to attain the vision. Conger (1992) emphasises the leader role of effectively introducing important change and, according to Yammarino (1994), the leader copes with change by means of the visionary process.

Management, however, seems to be task oriented. The manager works towards organisational objectives and management involves the planning, organising and control of the group or organisation's activities thus emphasising procedures (Yammarino, 1994). The day-to-day activities of members of the group or organisation rather than longer-term change are the focus (Bateman & Snell, 1999; Conger, 1992). However, the manager works with and through others to achieve organisational objectives, and leadership is a vital component of management. Skill in relating to others is a requirement at all levels of management, implying a leadership function as part of management. This leadership component becomes clear if one considers the different role requirements of managers at different organisational levels. Top managers are concerned with broad objectives and strategic planning (which become more specific lower down) and are also central to the influencing processes. Supervision is more important to middle management and technical expertise to lower management, but managers at these levels also need to visualise the broader objectives and take action to achieve them. They need to be able to develop individual competence and to guide followers to continually improve their abilities and make greater contributions to the organisation. In a comparison of top and lower-level leaders, Den Hartog et al. (1999) found the preferred attributes of top managers to include characteristics such as being innovative, visionary, persuasive, long-term oriented, diplomatic and courageous while those of lower-level managers were more social such as attention to subordinates, team building and being participative. Shamir and Howell (1999) propose that charismatic leadership is more likely to emerge at top level, but that it is not restricted to this level. A difference in the methods employed at the different levels, however, is expected with greater emphasis on the visionary aspects and image building at the top level, and more on the development of individuals and the team and personal role modelling at the lower levels.

The full range model of leadership clarifies leadership in terms of its interpersonal and visionary components. This model includes laissez-faire behaviour, transactional leadership and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Every leader displays each of the

three styles to some degree. The model is based on the concept of transactional-transformational leadership as developed by Burns (1978 in Bass, 1997) and expanded by Bass (1985 in Bass, 1997) and this concept of leadership can be described as neocharismatic. According to Bass (1997, p. 130) the transactional-transformational paradigm views leadership "as either a matter of contingent reinforcement of followers by a transactional leader or the moving of followers beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society by a transformational leader". Differentiations such as task oriented or relations oriented, directive or participative, and autocratic or democratic can be compared with transactional-transformational leadership, but the latter is a new paradigm, neither replacing nor explained by other models (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997). The transactional-transformational paradigm can be regarded as a hybrid explanation (Bass, 1990) and various theoretical approaches can be used in studying the leadership styles included in this paradigm as well as the effects of these styles. Burns (1978 in Lowe et al., 1996) based the constructs of transactional and transformational leadership on literature on traits, leadership styles and leader-member exchange, and Den Hartog et al. (1997) also refer to trait, style and contingency approaches of leadership being contained in this approach. Both in this and the next chapter, it is shown how these theories, inter alia, are used in exploring the transactional-transformational paradigm. Leadership research referring to this paradigm represents numerous perspectives, a situation regarded as necessary by Hunt and Conger (1999). Despite being a relatively comprehensive model, Yukl (1999) contends that some important leadership behaviours have been omitted (to be discussed) and that this should be regarded as a weakness of a model referred to as the full range model of leadership.

2.2.1   Laissez-faire leadership

The leadership styles associated with the autocratic or democratic cluster of behaviours have a general leadership factor in common, namely the motivation to lead and to manage (Bass, 1990). This is also referred to as active leadership as opposed to passive leadership or laissez-faire leadership, the latter implying absence of leadership (Bass, 1997). The leader does not set clear goals or participate in decision making related to the group's activities but leaves responsibility for the work to followers. He or she does not attempt to influence followers or provide support. Laissez-faire leadership should not be confused with more democratic and

participating styles that allow for autonomy, with the active delegation of responsibility, or with intervention when standards are not met.

This style cannot be regarded as that effective. Follower reaction might include conflict, the leader being seen as not credible, and followers taking over the leader's role. Depending on the characteristics of the followers, the task and the organisation, highly active leadership might not always be necessary. A less active leadership style could lead to empowerment of followers. Gibson and Marcoulides (1995) refer to laissez-faire leadership as allowing for the possibility of self-management in the sense that it allows employees to make decisions for themselves. However, to be effective this style should be used as a component of other leadership styles.

2.2.2   Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership involves a transaction between leader and followers and is based on contingent reinforcement. Bass (1990) explains this interaction as a social exchange process which is established and maintained if the benefits to both the leader and the followers outweigh the costs. Simply put, the leader and the followers see each other as instrumental to the fulfilment of each other's needs. The leader clarifies what the followers need to do as their part of the transaction (successfully complete the task) to receive a reward (satisfaction of the followers' needs). The reward or avoidance of punishment is contingent on the fulfilment of the transaction (satisfying the leader's needs).

The contingent reward style implies that the leader engages in a constructive path-goal transaction of reward for performance. Den Hartog et al. (1997) refer to path-goal theory and vertical dyad theory as transactional theories. The leader discusses what is required with the followers, explains how to meet the requirements, and specifies the criteria for effective performance and the positive rewards the followers will receive if they fulfil these criteria. The leader should also provide feedback on whether objectives are being met, and he or she should be seen to allocate rewards that are contingent on meeting these objectives. According to Bass (1997, p. 133), "Reinforcement can be materialistic or symbolic, immediate or delayed, partial or whole, implicit or explicit, and in terms of rewards or resources". This

leadership style depends on the leader's power to reinforce followers for their successful completion of the bargain. Followers react by achieving expected performance. This style should be practised when the focus is on efficient procedures and can therefore be compared with the task performance behaviours and concurrent leadership styles (initiating structure, production-oriented and task-oriented) discussed earlier. However, one should bear in mind that this is a new approach, not fully explained by earlier theories. The social exchange implies interpersonal relationships, and although the final aim might not be the development of followers (one of the aims of transformational leadership) but rather accomplishing a task, the transactional leader uses a task-oriented or a relations-oriented style, depending on what is most appropriate in a given situation.

When the work and the environment of the follower do not provide the necessary motivation, direction and satisfaction, the behaviour of the leader compensates for this (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The leader's behaviour contributes to the performance and satisfaction of followers by creating expectations of rewards as a consequence of their efforts. To the extent that the leader's behaviour helps to clarify roles and lessen role conflict, it also directly contributes to performance and satisfaction. Using the contingent reward style has been reasonably effective in motivating followers and in leading to higher levels of development and performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Contingent negative reinforcement (which also reduces role ambiguity) has been shown to improve performance, although it has been suggested that this should be used in conjunction with contingent reward to be effective (Bass, 1990). According to Avolio and Bass (1995), the impact of the reward or punishment depends on the follower's valuing of the anticipated effect, the amount, timing and fairness of the reward or punishment, the effort expended, and the needs of the followers (not directly considered by the transactional leader). The duration of the impact depends on the full or partial repetition of the reward or punishment over time.

Management by exception, another from of transactional leadership, implies that the leader either actively monitors deviances from standards and mistakes and take corrective action (rules are enforced to avoid mistakes), or waits more passively for deviances and mistakes to occur and then takes corrective action. In the case of active management by exception, the leader sets certain standards and regularly monitors the extent to which followers meet these

standards. Passive management by exception implies that the leader waits to be informed about errors and deviances before taking action. Followers typically react to passive management by exception by maintaining the status quo and to active management by exception by avoiding initiation and risk taking. This style is less effective than the contingent reward style but might be necessary, depending on the situation. If this style is practised as negative feedback when something goes wrong, it can be regarded as contingent negative reinforcement.

Transactional leadership as an interactive process implies that the leader and the followers play certain roles in the exchange taking place. The leader, for example, is involved in various types of communication with followers including his or her role as a source of feedback. As mentioned, the leader should also serve as a source of influence in other words, he or she should have sufficient influence to obtain the benefits that serve as rewards. Followers, in turn, also serve as a source of feedback that affects the leader. Their performance influences the feedback and rewards or punishment the leader gives, and the leader's behaviour and style could be influenced by the followers' interests and competence. Because these processes occur simultaneously, the influence is regarded as mutual. This mutual effect is illustrated in groups that are more successful when the leadership style and leadership behaviours are compatible with the personality of followers (e.g. a participative leadership style used with highly involved followers or both leader and followers being more task than person oriented).

Yukl (1999) criticises what is defined as transactional research and regards this definition as ambiguous. According to Yukl (1999), different behaviours that are not clearly related to the leader-subordinate exchange are included in what is referred to as studies on transactional leadership. Contingent reward behaviours may involve transformational as well as transactional leadership. (Some support for this statement is found in intercorrelations between the dimensions.) Furthermore, management by exception does not seem to be theoretically related to the exchange taking place. Clarifying the standards that should be met and taking action before and/or after failure to meet these standards imply an exchange, but it is necessary to explain this in terms of specific behaviours related to the exchange. This would help to clarify the construct of transactional leadership in future.

2.2.3   Charismatic leadership

According to Yukl (1999), the core behaviours used to define charismatic leadership, vary to some extent from theory to theory. There are also propositions in these theories that still need to be properly tested. Applying the term "charisma" to leadership contexts originated in the work of Max Weber, who developed a typology of leadership including the charismatic, the traditional and the rational-legal (bureaucratic) type of leader (Conger & Kanungo, 1992, 1994). The new leadership theories, however, differ from the older theories of charismatic leadership in terms of the way in which charisma is conceptualised (DiTomaso, 1993). Charisma should be seen primarily as wisdom or a body of knowledge. According to DiTomaso (1993), both Weber and Amitai Etzioni regarded charisma as relational in the sense that it is not determined by the characteristics or behavioural style of the leader, but exists because of the followers' belief that the leader has wisdom and their consequent trust in him or her. The new leadership theories discuss charisma only in terms of vision or inspiration, thus limiting the concept.

Different levels of analysis are furthermore addressed by the new leadership theories (DiTomaso, 1993). Weber's theory explains charisma in terms of a social movement - the bridge between traditional authority and the emergence of rational-legal authority. As such it should be studied within the framework of social institutions considering the social and political circumstances of its emergence. Etzioni's structural theory of charisma focuses on charisma in terms of normative institutions. It deals with where and how routinised charisma (a concept also used by Weber) emerges in managerial and/or professional positions in an organisation (not necessarily only at the top of organisations as specified in Weber's theory). In contrast, the new leadership theories focus on charisma in terms of individual-level behavioural styles and the responses of followers to the leadership style in dyadic relations. The fact that the levels of analysis included in earlier theories are not considered, limits the ability of new theories to explain how and when charisma is likely to develop in organisations.

The new leadership theories furthermore do not focus on the tensions in the emergence, development and maintenance of charisma (DiTomaso, 1993). According to Weber's work,

charismatic authority is most likely to emerge in periods in which traditional authority is in crisis. Because charisma primarily resides in followers' beliefs, it is sustained by conditions that allow followers to continue to believe - that is, by mystery, distance and extraordinary circumstances. The routinisation of charisma, on the other hand, implies involvement of the leader in day-to-day administrative duties, greater familiarity and an exchange framework that is introduced into the interaction between the leader and his or her followers. This period is consequently characterised by tensions in maintaining discipline among followers of charismatic leaders. The structural theory of charisma in organisations deals with the tension between the existence of charisma and organisational discipline. Charisma is only seen as having functional consequences if it occurs in the "right" place (e.g. when decisions are made about ends rather than means, when followers need to accept guidance in expressive matters rather than instrumental performance and where their moral involvement is necessary). Consistency between the charismatic role and the charismatic person needs to be maintained.

The original theological connotations of the word "charisma" were retained in Weber's theory (DiTomaso, 1993) and this is also reflected in Conger and Kanungo's (1992, 1994) emphasis on a future vision, sensitivity to followers' needs and the use of unconventional, innovative acts by the leader. The latter is a more comprehensive approach than the theories discussed by DiTomaso (1993). Kanungo and Conger (1992) developed a three-stage model to explain charismatic leadership as a dimension of leadership. The aim was to operationalise the charismatic dimension by defining the role behaviours associated with it. It would then be possible to measure charisma in the same way as the other behavioural dimensions (task maintenance behaviour, group maintenance behaviour and directive-participative behaviour) have been measured. The model not only regards leadership in terms of an individual property (the leader's set of role behaviours), but also as an influencing process, reflecting the group context. The model furthermore regards charismatic leadership, like other forms of leadership, as an attribution based on the followers' perceptions of the leader's behaviour.

The first stage of the model refers to the evaluation of the status quo. This involves assessment of environmental resources and constraints and of followers' needs and abilities. What distinguishes the charismatic leader is the ability to recognise deficiencies in the present system. Because such leaders have a high level of intolerance for these deficiencies, they are

always perceived as organisational reformers and agents of innovative and radical change (regardless of the outcome of change). The second stage involves the formulation and effective articulation of an inspirational vision, namely some idealised goal (different from the status quo) that represents a perspective shared by the followers (aimed at meeting their needs) thus challenging and motivating followers. The leader articulates the context and his or her own motivation to lead. The third stage deals with the means to achieve the vision. Through personal example, risk taking and unconventional expertise, the leader builds trust and motivates followers. This last stage seems to contain elements of the "wisdom" referred to in the earlier theories.

Associated with each stage of this model, Kanungo and Conger (1992) and Conger and Kanungo (1994) identified (interrelated) behaviour components responsible for the perception of charisma as well as items to measure these components. These components are as follows: not maintaining the status quo, environmental sensitivity, sensitivity to member needs, vision and articulation, personal risk and unconventional behaviour. This approach (based on earlier formulations of charismatic leadership emerging from the fields of sociology and political science) emphasises *perceived leader behaviour* which induces follower responses. According to Conger and Kanungo (1994), there are few fundamental differences between the leader behaviour described by charismatic theories and that described by transformational theories (as described in the full range model). However, the perspective from which the concept of leadership is viewed differs. Transformational leadership is defined as transforming followers by elevating their needs and motives, thus emphasising *follower outcomes* associated with leadership behaviours. However, it is difficult to distinguish leadership behaviour and its effect from what is referred to as perceived leader behaviour. The items used to measure transformational leadership furthermore include items measuring charismatic behaviour as well as those measuring attributed charisma, thus acknowledging the attributional component of charisma (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999).

The behavioural dimensions identified as charismatic in the above model, were shown to be positively associated with perceived managerial roles that emphasise influencing the attitudes and behaviours of followers whereas insignificant or negative correlations were found in the case of roles that focus on task accomplishment. The people-oriented, participative and

charismatic roles were also interrelated, confirming that exhibiting sensitivity to followers' needs is related to charisma. Although all three roles were related to the behavioural dimensions, the charismatic role explained a significant proportion of additional variance. (Note that charisma was measured in terms of the "charismatic" function of transformational leadership as defined in the full range model.)

Behling and McFillen (1996) propose a syncretical model of charismatic leadership which is a set of hypothesised causal relationship between leader behaviours and follower beliefs. This model also includes the moderating influence of situational conditions. (Dominant theories of charismatic leadership are criticised by Conger, 1999, for paying insufficient attention to contextual variables although their own model provides for an environmental assessment.) According to Behling and McFillen (1996, p. 164) their model was developed in an attempt to reconcile the differences between existing models and "(a) to capture common threads running through many important works on charismatic leadership, (b) to operationalize key constructs in the model, and c) to offer testable hypotheses regarding the relationships between those constructs". In their discussion, the above authors do not distinguish between charismatic and transformational leadership and refer to the literature on these two concepts as encompassing both. This trend was also observed in other discussions, such as those of Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) and Sagie (1996). Leader behaviours common to different theories on charismatic/transformational leadership have been identified. These behaviours result in or strengthen key follower beliefs which, in turn, result in follower behaviours, namely exceptionally high effort and commitment and willingness to take risks. Job-related anxiety, fear and frustration created by crisis in the organisation, are seen as moderators of the relationship between leader behaviour and follower beliefs and may even be necessary for the relationship to exist. (Note that Yukl, 1999, believes that a crisis facilitates charismatic leadership but that it is not a necessary antecedent condition - a leader can, for example, identify opportunities for significant beneficial innovations.)

The syncretical model corresponds with the perceived leadership behaviour referred to by Kanungo and Conger (1992) in terms of the follower beliefs of inspiration (which corresponds to inspirational vision) and awe (which relates to the element of building trust by setting an example). Innovation and change are not directly related to follower beliefs, although a need

for change is implied in the moderator variable of a crisis. Kanungo and Conger (1992) refer to the relationship of charismatic leadership with sensitivity towards followers' needs. Greater emphasis is placed on follower outcomes in the syncretical model in the form of the third follower belief of empowerment.

Inspiration (the first of the three key follower beliefs) refers to developing and communicating a mission and gaining commitment to this mission. The leader should be seen to be dedicated to the mission, and the type of mission is also important in the sense that it should have a transcendent moral or ethical base. Leader behaviours associated with inspiration are empathy (e.g. showing sensitivity to followers' needs, wants and fears) and the ability to dramatise the mission (the use of metaphors, analogies, repetition, etc., and organisational procedures such as creating a vision, supporting the vision and shared symbols to reinforce the vision). The second follower belief, namely awe, is regarded as a response to effective charismatic leadership. This is the confidence that followers have in the leader's abilities, and refers, among other things to respect, admiration and often affection for the leader. The leader shows self-assurance through unconditional acceptance of followers, trusting them and treating them with consideration and attention. The leader furthermore deals with relationships and problems in the present and manages to work effectively without needing constant approval and recognition. Enhancing his or her image is also important, but what is regarded as image-enhancing behaviour depends on the environment and is also influenced by culture. The third follower belief included in Behling and McFillen's (1996) model is that of empowerment - that is followers' confidence in their own ability or in the ability of the organisation or unit to which they belong. Empowerment is encouraged by leaders who expect high performance and who have confidence in their followers' ability to perform at that level. Leaders empower followers by assuring them of their competency and affording them opportunities to experience success. According to Conger (1999), the dominant theories of charismatic and transformational leadership appear to overlap in terms of leadership behaviours as well as similarity in terms of the nature of the influencing process, namely the use of empowerment to effect change rather than employing control strategies that lead to compliance.

Inspiration, innovation, sensitivity to followers' needs and empowerment are concepts associated with transformational leadership. Awe is associated with charismatic leadership

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which is described in the literature as a separate concept or as part of transformational leadership. If charismatic leadership is seen as distinct, greater emphasis is placed on the element of personal identification. Bass (1990) regards two elements as essential to the charismatic relationship. The first is the abilities, interests and personal traits common to most charismatic leaders. They are self-confident, self-determined and free from internal conflicts. Charismatic leaders are idealistic in their vision of the future, convinced of the moral righteousness of their beliefs and willing to take personal risks. They are also agents of radical change. Although there is a sensitivity to the needs of followers, charismatic leaders have a need to influence others. They are strongly articulate and emotionally expressive. The second essential element is the strong desire by followers to identify with the leader. The charismatic leader is able to communicate his or her vision of the outcome of followers' efforts. This gives meaning to their work, motivates them and creates enthusiasm, excitement and commitment to group objectives. By going beyond their own self-interest, they become more worthy. The leader inspires trust, confidence, acceptance and obedience, and followers become emotionally involved as seen in their response of affection and admiration. The leader is idealised and becomes the model of behaviour - he or she is made the ego-ideal of followers.

Deluga (1988) refers to charisma as the fundamental factor in the transformational process. Empirical research also indicates charisma to be the most prominent component of transformational leadership in the full range model. Although the functions of charisma and inspiration (both used by the transformational leader) are often regarded as the same, conceptual distinctions are possible which relates to the emphasis on perceived leader behaviours versus the emphasis on follower outcomes referred to earlier. Charismatic leadership involves inspiration, but the personal identification process that defines the charismatic leader is absent in the case of the inspirational leader. According to Bass (1990), inspirational leadership involves the identification and encouragement of mutual goals and it is these goals that draw followers rather than the person. Barbuto (1997) also argues that although most research found inspirational and charismatic leadership to be empirically the same, there are conceptual differences. Inspirational leaders motivate followers to work towards goals that correspond with the organisational mission and to change their values accordingly. Followers identify with the goals and are empowered to achieve these goals.

Charismatic leaders are seen to have exceptional skills or talents. They often emerge in a crisis, assuming the role of saviour. They have extraordinary appeal and followers strongly identify with them, show a great deal of commitment to them, and often display unquestionable obedience. In the case of charisma, the focus is on the leading figure and followers' enthusiasm stems from identification with the leader. Conger (1999) also regards this as a major distinction between Conger and Kanungo's theory with its emphasis on personal identification, and that of Bass and Avolio with goal identification as the motivator.

According to Barbuto (1997), inspirational leadership resembles transformational leadership more closely than charismatic leadership. Transformational leadership involves the motivation of followers to pursue organisational goals. Attributes that are essential are inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. These attributes raise the enthusiasm of followers to pursue organisational goals, help them to recognise the importance of these goals and their own contribution, and encourage them to solve problems innovatively. The focus is on the organisation and its goals and the followers' enthusiasm stems from identification with the organisation's mission. Transformational leadership implies empowerment, whereas the identification process of charisma could make followers dependent on the leader. Conger (1999) refers to the distinction by theorists between a constructive identification with the leader versus a more pathological dependency. Impression management is also relevant when considering charisma. Whereas transformational leadership implies genuine concern for others' needs and welfare, the charismatic leader could tend towards narcissism and be more self-centred and inclined to manipulate and exploit others (Cannella & Monroe, 1997). A vision is formulated that is grandiose and unrealistic, not considering the feasibility of implementing the vision. Barbuto (1997) sees these concepts as separate, with charisma not being a requirement for the leader to be able to bring about transformation. Conger (1999) regards the liabilities of charismatic and transformational leadership as a neglected area of research.

Yukl (1999) regards charismatic and transformational leadership as distinct, but partially overlapping. A leader can be charismatic without being transformational, and the developing and empowering behaviours associated with transformational leadership probably result in followers being less inclined to attribute extraordinary qualities to the leader. Followers have

respect and affection but not attributed charisma and personal identification. However, if the situation is more favourable for continued dependence, the leader becomes more charismatic and less transformational. Rather than empowering followers to achieve objectives, a context of radical change requires trust in the leader.

Charisma and inspiration are regarded as distinct but essential transformational leadership behaviours in terms of the full range model of leadership (Carless, Wearing & Mann, 2000). It is argued that charismatic leadership is that quality of the transformational leader that causes others to perceive him or her as trustworthy, highly competent and worthy of respect. This, in turn, helps the leader to inspire followers to higher levels of motivation and performance in striving towards organisational goals, thus justifying the inclusion of both charisma and inspiration in this model.

2.2.4   Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership does not replace the idea of leadership as the leader giving reinforcements that are contingent on the performance of followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It adds the role of the transformational leader which is an expansion of transactional leadership. It adds to the effect of transactional leadership on followers' efforts, satisfaction and effectiveness. In other words, transformational leadership accounts for incremental variance in important outcome variables after controlling for the effect of transactional leadership. Transactional and transformational leadership are not seen as being opposite ends of a continuum but rather as separate dimensions. A leader can be both transactional and transformational. The two dimensions differ in terms of the process through which the leader motivates followers and the type of goals set. Better leaders are both transactional and transformational, although there is a mutual effect between the leader and the situation.

Transformational leadership involves "moving followers beyond their self-interest for the good of the group, organization, or society" (Bass, 1997, p. 130). Transformations occur when the personal standards and values of the leader become organising processes for the followers (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995). Avolio (1997) regards the term "morally uplifting" as a critical component of transformational leadership, while Lowe et al. (1996) also refer to a

reciprocal process leading to a higher level of motivation and morality for both leader and follower. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), there are four ways in which superior results can be achieved and the transformational leader uses one or more of these.

Idealised influence overlaps with what has been described as charisma. The leader behaves in such a way that he or she becomes a role model for his or her followers. This leads to respect, admiration and trust, and followers consequently identify with the leader. The leader's behaviour is characterised by consideration of the needs of others over his or her own personal needs, risk sharing, consistency, ethical and moral conduct, and the use of power only when needed and not for personal gain. This leads to an increase in the level of moral development and the self-concept of followers. Followers have faith in and are loyal to the leader.

Inspirational motivation refers to behaviour that motivates and inspires followers. Enthusiasm and optimism are stimulated, which, in turn, enhance team spirit. The leader achieves this by giving meaning to followers' work and providing challenges. A shared vision is created to which the leader is seen to commit. This vision, together with specific goals and expectations, are clearly communicated. The leader uses emotional appeals, vivid and persuasive images and examples.

Intellectual stimulation is the basis of behaviours underlying "true leadership" according to Lowe et al. (1996). This implies that innovation and creativity are encouraged through the questioning of assumptions, reframing of problems and new approaches. The leader articulates the organisation's opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses. An awareness of problems and potential solutions is created. Followers are involved in problem solving and neither new ideas nor mistakes by individual members are criticised in public. This leads to the recognition of problems, the identification and implementation of quality solutions and commitment by followers.

Individualised consideration deals with the need for achievement and growth of individual members. The leader acts as a mentor and followers are developed to maximise their potential. Methods to achieve this include the creation of learning opportunities and a

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supportive environment, and delegating tasks and responsibilities as a means of development while taking note of progress made and the need for additional direction. Individual differences in needs and desires are acknowledged and accepted and the leader behaves accordingly. Interactions are personalised and communication is encouraged with the leader listening effectively. According to Avolio and Bass (1995), the construct of individualised consideration provides the means for moving from transactional to transformational leadership. For transformation to take place, individual differences need to be addressed, individual development needs to be emphasised, and a qualitative transformation needs to take place from basing human interactions on self-interest to basing them on an interest in others, and ultimately on principles of what is best for the group/organisation. It involves changing followers' motives to consider not only their self-interest but also moral and ethical implications.

In summary, transformational leadership refers to followers' strong personal identification with the leader, a shared vision of the future, attitudes and behaviour that reflect higher-order needs, and followers who think and act for the sake of the organisation because they have been made aware of the importance and interdependence of their efforts. Bateman and Snell (1999) identify specific skills and strategies contributing to transformational leadership, namely the leader has a vision, he or she communicates this vision through word, manner or symbolism, he or she builds trust by being consistent, dependable and persistent, and he or she should have a positive self-regard without being self-important or complacent, recognising strengths and compensating for weaknesses.

Transformational leaders occupy a variety of positions at various levels of the organisation and are formal or informal leaders (Bass, 1997). The importance of leadership at all levels of management was referred to earlier. It is also not limited to direct leadership where there is direct contact between leaders and followers (face-to-face or telephonic contact) but could also be indirect through intermediaries and the mass media. Yammarino (1994) expands these ideas by including upward influence of leadership. This refers to the influence of followers on leaders through tactics such as assertiveness, reasoning, bargaining and forming coalitions. These tactics have been shown to affect the behaviour of leaders, their performance and the organisation's success. Horizontal influence of leadership refers, inter alia, to the influence

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of co-workers on each other, different units affecting each other or the way in which interfunctional teams work. According to Yukl (1999), there is an element of heroic leadership bias in theories of transformational and charismatic leadership that implies insufficient attention to these reciprocal influence processes and also to shared leadership.

It is clear that the emphasis of transformational leadership is on the leader's influence on followers and the behaviour used to achieve this effect. Yukl (1999), however, points to a conceptual weakness in the theory as the vagueness of the underlying behavioural processes related to the way in which the leader influences followers. Influence processes that underlie interactions include instrumental compliance, internalisation and personal identification, and in the case of the charismatic component, collective identification too. Leadership behaviour also influences performance by having an effect on mediating variables (see ch. 3). Yukl (1999) proposes that the essential influence processes should be identified more clearly and should be used to explain how each type of behaviour affects mediating variables and outcomes. Instrumental compliance probably plays a greater role in the case of transactional leadership, internalisation in the case of transformational leadership and personal identification in the case of charismatic leadership. Yukl (1999) furthermore criticises the ambiguity of transformational behaviour (as seen in the partially overlapping content and interrelatedness of constructs shown empirically) and refers to the omission of important behaviours. The fact that the transformational leader at times resorts to transactional behaviours as well as behaviours related to group and organisational levels (in addition to the dyadic level of analysis) answers some of these criticisms (discussed in ch. 3).

2.3 PERSONALITY TRAITS ASSOCIATED WITH TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL STYLES

Singer and Beardsley (1990) found dispositional attributes to be significantly more important as leadership factors than situational attributes when considering the implicit leadership theories of both leaders and followers (although cognitive ability was favoured in comparison with personality style). According to Cannella and Monroe (1997), personality theories and a study of the executive personality contribute positively to approaches to studying top managers. For example, strategic leadership theory assumes that top managers differ in terms

of psychological constructs (knowledge, experience and values) and that these differences impact on their field of vision, their selective perception of information and their interpretation of information. This, in turn, affects the strategic choices made by them (see also Miller, Kets de Vries & Toulouse, 1982, on strategy-making behaviour.) The transformational leadership approach views the leadership functions, including charisma, in terms of the relationship between leaders and followers. This implies that the qualities of the leader as well as follower outcomes are involved. Using trait theories to explore the characteristics of the transactional and the transformational leader expands the practical value of the full range model given the utility of these theories in, say, a selection context. In addition, the ability to transform followers' needs provides for the social interaction between the manager and his or her followers.

The transactional and transformational leadership styles seem to reflect different levels of maturity in terms of personal development and goal orientation. It has been suggested that differences in personality traits may result in a transactional or transformational style. Church and Waclawski (1998) studied the relationship between various individual personality preferences and leadership styles among a group of 253 senior executives. They administered the MBTI, the Kirton Adaptation Inventory (KAI) as a measure of innovation in problem solving, and the Leadership Assessment Inventory (LAI) which measures the extent of transformational versus transactional leadership as well as specific leadership dimensions. In terms of personality type, the executives as a group were moderate with respect to their preference for extroversion and intuition and showed a definite preference for thinking and judgement. They seemed slightly more innovative than adaptive in problem solving. It is interesting to note that the executives rated themselves as somewhat more transformational, while their subordinates (direct reports) rated them as more transactional. The ratings by followers were, however, consistent, possibly reflecting implicit theories of leadership.

Four groups with specific personality orientations were identified and the relationship with leadership style determined. The inventors and the motivators were perceived by themselves and by others as more transformational than the other two groups. A preference for innovative problem solving characterised these executives and they seemed to represent the type of leader who is focused on organisational change rather than stability. In terms of personality

type, both groups were high on intuition (as opposed to sensing) and also tended to be more perceiving than judging, indicating individuals with a vision who are less likely to focus on the strategy to achieve this. They probably relied for this on the managers and implementors who tended towards sensing and judging. The innovators scored towards introversion and thinking, while the motivators were highest in terms of extroversion and feeling. This was reflected in ratings on the specific dimensions, with innovators being seen as better in determining direction and in establishing a purpose, while motivators were seen as better at influencing followers.

The innovative tendency found in Church and Waclawski's (1998) study, corresponds with the entrepreneurial qualities found in executives with an internal locus of control (as opposed to externals) by Miller et al. (1982). They administered Rottor's questionnaire to chief executives in 33 business firms to measure locus of control and conducted interviews to complete a questionnaire on strategic, innovation, structural and environmental variables. The locus of control of the executive was shown to influence his or her strategy making behaviour. Internal locus of control was associated with firms engaged in more innovation and a style of strategy-making that includes a greater amount of risk taking, a tendency to be proactive and the use of more planning (futurity). This corresponds with the definition of the transformational leader as being innovative and less likely to support the current situation, seeking opportunities in the face of risk, and attempting to shape and create rather than react to environmental circumstances (Lowe et al., 1996). The transactional leader is seen to prefer stable, predictable environments and procedures to maintain control.

Miller et al. (1982) found that the strategy (and thus indirectly the personality) of the executive and the firm, in turn, influenced the structure and environment of the organisation. Innovative firms in more dynamic and heterogeneous environments were run by executives with an internal locus of control and these firms were linked to the structural variables of scanning, technocratisation and differentiation. (Note that the possibility of structure and environment influencing personality was not excluded.)

A study by Howell and Higgens (1990) also provides support for the change-agent function of the transformational leader and the personality characteristics of risk taking and

innovativeness. They identified 25 champions of technological innovation and paired them with 25 nonchampions. The participants functioned at a middle management or executive level. Data were gathered by means of interviews and questionnaires (including the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire [MLQ] Form5-Self). Champions and nonchampions were shown to differ significantly in terms of transformational behaviours (with charisma, inspiration and intellectual stimulation showing the most convincing results), the personality characteristics of risk taking, innovativeness and need for achievement, as well as frequency and variety of influence tactics. Personality characteristics, transformational behaviour and influence tactics were also related. Champions identify and articulate the potential of innovation and inspire and motivate others to commit to the innovation.

Articulating a vision is central to Hogan's (1994) view of the key tasks of leadership. Creating a vision is a primary mechanism in recruiting new members to the group or organisation as well as in motivating and inspiring existing followers. The leader should also be a resource for the group in realising its goals (through acquiring resources and strategic planning) and continuously evaluate the functioning of the group in terms of, inter alia, morale and strategy. These last functions imply more of the practical orientation of the managers and implementors in Church and Waclawski's (1998) study. This supports the idea that transformational leadership adds to transactional leadership - which is more focused on procedures - and that an effective leader uses both styles as and when appropriate (Bass, 1997).

Wofford, Goodwin and Whittington (1998) also emphasise a vision as a distinguishing factor of transformational leadership, but explain this in terms of cognition rather than personality. They regard the cognitive processes and structures underlying behaviour as more important than personality traits. Wofford et al. (1998) conducted a study in an engineering services government agency with a sample consisting of 96 managers and 158 subordinates. The MLQ-5X was completed by the subordinates and on the basis of factor analysis, contingent reward was included in the transformational scale. Content analysis of responses to a number of open-ended questions served as measure of leaders' cognitive processes. Two concepts of importance in this study were cognitive schemata and scripts. A schema contains the related propositions, features, images, feelings and ideas of a schema category such as goals, persons, tasks, roles and organisations. The schemata are structured in terms of a central construct and

lower-order constructs. Scripts are a type of schema that include a sequence of behaviours that will be followed in working towards goals. Scripts are also arranged hierarchically with higher levels containing more abstract representations of the activity.

An abstract concept, "organisational vision", is seen to be at the centre of the transformational leader's schemata while broad performance outcomes represent that of the transactional leader. The transactional leader is expected to focus on performance goals while the transformational leader considers the long-term vision or makes use of lower-order constructs such as performance goals, depending on the situation. (This transactional behaviour by transformational leaders was referred to earlier.) The results indicated support for idealisation of a vision (but not the abstractness of the vision) being part of the content of the schemata of the transformational leader.

It was hypothesised that the transformational leader would expect his or her followers to have attributes such as self-reliance, innovativeness and initiative, whereas the transactional leader would expect commitment to goals, expectancy of goal attainment, expectancy of rewards and need of role clarity. Because of low measurement reliability, these hypotheses, were not tested. In terms of the self-schemata, the transformational leader would view himself or herself as considerate, charismatic, inspiring and stimulating (no support was found for this), while the transactional leader would see himself or herself as offering rewards for successful performance, correcting behaviour and processes as needed and clarifying tasks and goals (this hypothesis was supported).

The motivation scripts of transformational leaders reflected a latent transformational leadership cognition construct including the communication of the organisational vision, generating commitment, building trust and empowerment. Support was not found for the hypothesis that the transactional scripts would focus on achieving goals and evaluating goal attainment, low-cost production and a high level of customer service.

Church and Waclawski (1998) found that more task-oriented (the innovators) as well as more people-oriented (the motivators) executives could be transformational. This reflects an emphasis on the visionary aspect that distinguishes the leader from the manager and on the

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inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation functions of the transformational leader. However, it is an oversimplification to conclude that the interpersonal factor is less important in distinguishing leaders from managers, or that the charismatic and individualised consideration functions might not be a distinguishing factor in transformational leadership. The transactional and the transformational leader both interact with others but the type of interaction differs (Lowe et al., 1996). The transactional leader is involved in a leader-member exchange relationship in which the leader fulfils the needs of followers in exchange for their performance meeting certain expectations. The transformational leader raises the level of intellectual awareness of his or her followers, raises and expands individual needs, and motivates followers to transcend self-interest for the sake of the group or organisation.

According to Hogan (1994), effective leadership is rooted in individual personality - what people do reflects the stable structures within themselves. Moderators of the relationship between personality and effectiveness should, however, be kept in mind (Gardner & Martinko, 1996). Hogan (1994) regards social and interpersonal skills as essential to the effective leader. In terms of the Five Factor Model of personality, adjustment (self-confidence, handling pressure, etc.), social impact (outgoing, assertive, etc.) and agreeableness (warm, friendly, etc.) have to various degrees been associated with effectiveness. The factors correspond with the findings of Van Rensburg and Crous (2000) in their study on the personality traits of transformational leaders. They administered the MLQ and the Jackson Personality Research Form (PRF-E) to 998 middle- and higher-level managers in a national South African company. Transformational leaders were focused on achievement implying setting standards and persevering to reach long-term goals instead of being impulsive. They showed a need for affiliation and their interpersonal relationships were warm, accepting and supportive while they also showed an enjoyment of attention from others. These leaders were enquiring and open to change, indicating an adaptable and flexible approach.

However, social skill could coexist with traits that affect subordinates negatively, thus impacting negatively on performance. The traits, referred to by Hogan (1994) as "the dark side of charisma", include arrogance, insensitivity, vindictiveness, selfishness and dishonesty. References are also made to ethical and unethical charismatic leaders. Kets de Vries and

Miller (1984a) refer to the impact that a neurotic personality style has on a leader's effectiveness. Characteristics of the histrionic style that they refer to correspond with aspects of the psychoanalytic view of charisma. Identifying reasons for incompetence requires evaluations of leaders that include appraisals by followers, examples of critical incidents, results on inventories of normal personality as well as of personality disorders (although the traits are not regarded per se as pathological). The unit's relative performance should also be considered because it provides a method for demonstrating the negative impact and alerts a manager to his or her own negative traits causing problems in the unit.

Ross and Offermann (1997) considered the personality profile associated with transformational leadership as well as the issue of perceived performance versus organisational reality in trying to clarify the potential positive and negative effect of the transformational leader. Their findings point to the importance of interaction in the sense that they found personality attributes associated with the functions of intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration to be the more consistent predictors of transformational leadership. Forty leaders at a military institution were identified, and for each leader, three direct subordinates completed a personality questionnaire and all subordinates under a leader (110 to 120 each) provided leadership ratings on the MLQ and ratings in terms of satisfaction with their unit and with the organisation. Three second-order personality factors were identified, and contrary to expectations, need for change was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership (as measured by a combined score based on MLQ ratings). A factor representing an enabling style of leadership explained 38 percent of the variance. Pragmatism, nuturance and feminine attributes loaded positively on this factor with negative loadings on aggressiveness and criticalness. It is therefore characterised by practical support and concern for subordinate development. The factor, forcefulness (self-confidence, dominance and masculine attributes), was only significant when the enabling factor was already in the model, contributing a further 10 percent of the variance. Of the three variables included in the forcefulness factor, only self-confidence was significantly related to transformational leadership. It seems as if the more forceful persona may be an asset if the person also has the core enabling functions. In terms of outcomes, transformational leadership was related to satisfaction but not to objective performance. Satisfaction does not necessarily guarantee better performance. Liking, respect and admiration for the charismatic leader could

lead to a subjective report of better performance, confounding personal attraction and interpersonal skill with performance.

From the foregoing it can be concluded that personality traits associated with transformational leadership include those related to innovativeness and entrepreneurial qualities that lead to change. Social interaction and interpersonal skills are also important in as much as they relate to articulating a vision and inspiring and motivating others as well as to enabling others. Although various theories can be utilised to promote a better understanding of the leadership styles included in the full range model, considering the traits and characteristics of leaders exercising these styles and obtaining more information in this regard are especially valuable from a practical perspective (i.e. the selection, training and development of managers).

2.4   SUMMARY

Different theories and models that are regarded as more traditional approaches to leadership were described. The full range model of leadership is a hybrid explanation that provides for aspects of various of these earlier theories. However, it does not replace, nor is it fully explained by any of these theories. Leadership styles included in the full range model are laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership and transformational leadership. The path-gaol theory and the leader-member exchange theory were both shown to be prominent in understanding transactional leadership, although the latter also helps to explain relationships between the transformational leader and his or her followers. The construct of charismatic leadership and the way in which this relates to transformational leadership were described in detail. There are opposing viewpoints on the importance of charisma for transformational leadership (with its leader identification) versus the importance of the function of inspirational motivation (where the followers identify with the organisation's goals). The functions of intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration are grouped with the latter. Relying on trait theories and to some extent the psychoanalytic theory, the role of personality in the functioning of the transactional and the transformational leader was also explored. An innovative tendency, the ability to articulate a vision and social and interpersonal skills were found to distinguish transformational leaders. One of the aims of this study is to further explore these issues. It was mentioned that the choice of an appropriate style depends to some

extent on the situation (contingency theories), as well as the fact that both transactional leaders and transformational leaders vary in terms of leadership behaviours on different continuums.

In chapter 3 the nature of the relationships between the leader and his or her followers is explored and research is discussed on the impact of the leadership styles of the full range model in terms of individual followers, a group and the organisation.

CHAPTER 3
THE FULL RANGE MODEL OF LEADERSHIP IN PRACTICE

The full range model of leadership is based on the concept of transactional-transformational leadership and an assumption underlying this model is that every leader displays each of three leadership styles to some degree, namely laissez-faire leadership behaviour, transactional leadership and transformational leadership (Bass, 1997). The transformational leader moves followers to a higher level of motivation and morality but when required, he or she is also able to rely on contingent reinforcement which is characteristic of transactional leadership. The greatest amount of theory development and empirical research on charismatic and transformational leadership focus on leader behaviours and follower effects, with less emphasis on the latter (Conger, 1999). From a theoretical perspective, the interest has primarily been in the leader-follower interactions in independent dyads or in dyads in groups (Yammarino, Spangler & Dubinsky, 1998). Yukl (1999) criticises transformational leadership theory for this overemphasis on dyadic processes. Empirical studies, on the other hand, seem to favour an individual level of analysis because results are based on individual differences in the perceptions of subordinates and of leaders. Higher levels of analysis would imply that the dyad or the group is the focal unit of analysis rather than individual scores. Yammarino et al. (1998) investigated whether the relationships reported between leadership style and performance and attitudes would hold at higher levels of analysis. Their results indicated that these relationships reflect individual differences in the responses of superiors and subordinates and they are unaffected by dyad and group membership of the individuals.

A distinction between individual followers, the group as a unit and the organisation nevertheless seems to be useful in exploring the relationships between the leader and followers in the different contexts. Furthermore, even when individual perceptions are used to obtain data, the focus of the research may be on the effect of leadership on performance and attitudes in a group or organisational context. The first section of this chapter deals with the behaviour of the leader and his or her effect on individual followers. Transformational leadership in terms of the relationship between the leader and individual members of the group, however, differs from transformational leadership at group level. Where the influence of leader behaviour on group outcomes is studied from the perspective of the full range

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model, group-level processes are taken into consideration but leader-member interaction still seems to underlie many of the explanations. However, some contributions have been made that extend the theory by including group-level processes (including mutual trust and cooperation between group members, member identification with the group and member confidence in the capacity of the group to attain its objectives, efficient use of resources and external coordination) and the influence of leadership behaviour at organisational level.

Avolio (1997) seems to use the concept "level of analysis" to refer to the level at which the transformational leadership is displayed (rather than the level at which its effect is studied). Transformational teams and transformational organisational cultures should be regarded as two additional possible levels of analysis to individual leadership behaviours. Although the behaviour observed at one level is consistent with the behaviour and norms described at subsequently higher and more inclusive levels of analysis, there are qualitative differences. If all three levels are to be included in future research, the components of transformational leadership need to be operationally defined, measured and interpreted at each level (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Conger, 1999).

Individualised consideration is regarded as central to transformation at individual, group and organisational level. Avolio and Bass (1995) use this component of transformational leadership to explain how it emerges from representing individual leadership behaviours to represent group behaviours and to represent characteristics of the organisation's culture. The behaviour exhibited by the leader, if reinforced over time, could emerge at subsequently higher levels of analysis representing a group norm or characteristic of the organisational culture. Understanding the manifestation of the construct at the various levels implies an understanding of the broader context in which the leader's behaviour is embedded. In the studies referred to in this chapter, the broader context is to some extent acknowledged by the identification of moderator variables related to the leader, the followers, the organisation and the environment (providing support for contingency theories such as the situational model). However, the focus is primarily on the leader's behaviour and its effect on followers.

A number of studies on the relationship between the leader and subordinates (whether the focus was on the individual members of a group or team, on the performance of the team as

a whole, or on organisational effectiveness) were based on student samples. For example, Sosik (1997) studied a group of undergraduate students, Kirkpatrick and Locke's (1996) sample comprised third-year business students, and Sagie (1996) based his findings on the results of students in the social sciences. Other student samples included students in a master's degree in management programme and university students in junior-level management classes. The findings discussed here, however, are not limited to student samples (as this could result in sampling bias) but are also based on data from a variety of public and private organisations including hospital staff, the military, national police force members, university personnel, the media, insurance companies, banks, computing and manufacturing firms, a telephone company, a telecommunication company, a multinational telecommunication organisation, the marketing division of an electric company and a firm specialising in medical products.

Reports by followers are based on samples that varied in size from 38 to 802. Management samples were generally smaller (between 18 and 94) with the exception of the 224 chief executive officers included in Chitayat and Venezia's study (1988) on organisational variables that serve as moderators of the leadership-effectiveness relationship. Bycio et al. (1995) used an exceptionally large sample (1 376 registered nurses) as did Kuchinke (1999) in a multinational (1 674 employees) study. In the latter study, the results were based on self-report measures of work-related values, and probably also leadership behaviours.

The number of teams included, for example, were 72 comprising three members each in the study by Durham, Knight and Locke (1997) and the 58 self-managing teams and 60 traditionally managed teams studied by Cohen, Chang and Ledford (1997). The studies were usually based on small groups of three to five members. The terms "group" and "team" are used interchangeably although the latter seems to be preferred when referring to a work team, and a common goal and interdependence are implied (Durham et al., 1997). According to Sosik and Dionne (1997), teams consist of two or more individuals with a common task-oriented purpose, with skills needed to complete the task and whose members interact and work together to attain their goals.

Engle and Lord (1997) refer to the possibility of same-source bias when predictors and

criterion variables are based on the ratings of the same person. Follower reports of leadership behaviour, the relationship with the leader and outcome measures such as satisfaction with leadership and the perceived effectiveness of the leader and the work unit, were used in the majority of the studies discussed here. This could have introduced mono-method bias . There is also the possibility that ratings by leaders of their own behaviours differ from ratings by followers of the leader behaviours (Chitayat & Venezia, 1988). Murphy and Ensher (1999) report moderate agreement between the ratings of interns and of supervisors on the leader-member relationship, whereas Vroom (2000) found that direct reports saw their managers as more autocratic compared with the way managers saw themselves. In studies that dealt with the relationship of leadership styles with the traits and behaviours of the leader, Church and Waclawski (1998, 1999) obtained ratings in terms of leadership style from senior managers and their co-workers. They emphasise the relative degree of accuracy of any given set of ratings. In terms of perceived leadership style, the managers rated themselves as more transformational. Moderate but significant correlations were found between self-ratings and ratings by direct reports and supervisors. The ratings by others, however, were significantly more transactional. For the other behaviours measured, relatively weak relationships were found in terms of self-reports versus ratings by direct reports and supervisors. Singer and Beardsley (1990) found significant correlations between supervisor and subordinate ratings of leadership style but the supervisor's ratings on both transformational and transactional factors were significantly higher (with the exception of management by exception).

Research included data gathered in a natural working context as well as experimental studies and simulations of leader behaviours. Where there was manipulation of, say, leadership styles and goal difficulty, these were controlled through questionnaires and reported perceptions. Variables such as individual differences in ability with regard to, say, the experimental task and gender effects, were also considered. Howell and Higgens (1990) are in favour of measurement to obtain data on leadership, while Waldman et al. (1998), regard case studies (which imply smaller samples) as more appropriate in analysing the role of leadership style in organisational functioning. They contend that this type of research is exploratory and deals with contemporary issues, and the context includes significant events and variables that cannot be manipulated. Greater realism of information being gathered is obtained. Avolio et al. (1999) argue that the results of survey evaluations of leaders should be confirmed by

means of alternative methodologies such as observation and/or interviews. Hunt and Conger (1999) also support the use of multiple methods. In studying approaches to leadership training, Conger (1992) also preferred the more qualitative methods of participant observation and field interviews. Conger (1998) provides arguments about why a qualitative study is an appropriate methodology for topics as contextually rich as leadership (even if the research is no longer in an exploratory stage). According to Conger (1998), surveys measure attitudes about behaviours rather than actual observed behaviour. Surveys are also influenced by social desirability concerns. It is suggested that participative observation (inter alia, interviewing people) be used to obtain information about the interaction process that forms part of leadership and to capture the dynamic nature of leadership.

3.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEADER AND INDIVIDUAL FOLLOWERS

The performance of individual followers is influenced by the leader's characteristics and leadership style as well as task characteristics. The various ways in which the transformational leader achieves results influence individual followers. Specifically, the concept of individualised consideration plays a greater role in the one-on-one interaction compared with interaction at group level (Atwater & Bass, 1994). Individualised consideration refers to the recognition and consideration of individual differences and developmental needs. The leader listens actively to followers, is sensitive to expressions of needs, delegates challenging tasks with timely information and sufficient follow-up, and provides opportunities for development, risk taking and innovation in accordance with individual characteristics and needs. "It is through individualized consideration that a transformation is first noticed in the leader's behaviour and its impact on others" (Avolio & Bass, 1995, p. 202). The focus is on recognising individual differences in needs, elevating these needs and developing potential to achieve higher levels of performance. Transformation implies that attention to individual needs forms part of the process through which these needs change from self-interest to a perspective that includes contributions that can be made for the good of the group or organisation. Avolio and Bass (1995) emphasise the fact that the leader prepares the follower to perform through individualised consideration and the relationship with the performance of followers is therefore often indirect in the sense that individualised

consideration tries to maximise development (which may or may not affect performance). (Note that the other components of transformational leadership, namely charisma or idealised influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation, also contribute to the developmental impact of the leader on the follower.)

Individualised consideration by the leader also implies the understanding of how individual characteristics (strengths and weaknesses) of members may affect the team's functioning. These include biographical and demographic characteristics such as job experience, cognitive abilities including knowledge, skills and abilities and noncognitive characteristics such as personality, interests, attitudes and values. Individualised consideration furthermore helps the leader to understand how he or she forms different relationships with members of a group or team based on characteristics of the leader and the followers. This could lead to differential treatment in terms of rewards (including recommendations and recognition) and punishment. The leader should be aware of how giving rewards affects group outcomes including an increase in performance and improvement of group relationships. Without this understanding, differential treatment of individual members could become a threat to the group's functioning.

Basu and Green (1997) refer to the leader-member exchange theory as a transactional approach with the leader providing something of value to the follower in return for specified behaviour or performance. By contrast transformational leadership implies that the values of the follower are replaced with values that represent higher levels of morality. Transformational leadership can, however, also be viewed as an extension of transactional leadership and the leader-member relationship as playing a role in transactions and in transformation. Basu and Green (1997) found a significant positive correlation between a measure of exchange quality and a measure of transformational leadership. They provide a possible explanation of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation being transactional rewards. However, it should be kept in mind that a leader-member relationship including these components influences the development of the follower and thus contributes to a shift in values, beliefs and needs. This explains the importance of individualised consideration which seems to focus on social needs (human interaction, acceptance, empathy, etc.) as part of transformational leadership with its focus on higher-order needs (involving growth and achievement).

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According to Murphy and Ensher (1999), leader-member exchange theory combines characteristics of transactional and transformational leadership. The relationship between the leader and the follower falls on a continuum of possible leader-member roles that have been negotiated by the leader and the follower. This continuum reflects the extent to which the leader treats the follower as an out-group member versus the extent to which the follower is treated as an in-group member. The relationship with the out-group member is in accordance with the formal employment contract. Murphy and Ensher (1999) regard this behaviour as similar to that of the transactional leader who supports and gives direction or guidance in goal attainment, based on his or her assessment of subordinate needs. The leader is good at planning, organising, directing and controlling and relies on formal authority in dealing with the follower.

The unidimensional view of the leader-member relationship is based on these task-related behaviours of leaders and followers. Liden and Maslyn (1998) label this dimension "contribution". The roles defined in the leader-member relationship deal with the expectations that the leader has of the follower with regard to the work assignments and the quality of the work done. The follower, on the other hand, expects certain work-related resources from the leader. Social exchange theory, in addition to role theory, is therefore relevant. The extent to which the follower complies with task demands influences the type of exchange relationship that develops. This, in turn, influences the extent to which the leader provides resources such as information, challenging assignments and autonomy. High-quality exchange relationships are possible, but these relate to the contribution dimension only.

The transformational leader delegates not to accomplish goals or to influence relationships but rather to enhance autonomy and individuality and develop others to contribute to a high-performance group and work environment (Kuhnert, 1994). In the exchange relationship with the in-group member, there is more exchange between leader and follower, and the leader gives a high level of support and trust to the in-group member who is treated in a more transformational style (individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation) to help him or her to attain goals (Murphy & Ensher, 1999). The leader provides greater support, autonomy and influence in decision making, and followers respond with loyalty towards and support for the leader (Nelson, Basu & Purdie, 1998).

This view is supported by the multidimensional view of the leader-member relationship that proposes that mutual loyalty, affect and professional respect in addition to the contribution dimension determine the quality of the exchange relationship. These dimensions of the leader-member exchange relationship were identified by Liden and Maslyn (1998) in a study involving both working students and organisational employees who responded in terms of their relationship with their supervisors. Loyalty refers to the extent to which the leader and the follower support each other's actions and character. It includes notions of trust, that is, mutual concern for the best interest of the other member of the dyad as seen in supportive behaviour and honesty. Loyalty should not be regarded only as an outcome of high-quality exchanges but as influencing the development and maintenance of the exchange relationship. Affect is defined in terms of interpersonal attraction rather than work values. Professional respect which could also be associated with expert power, is regarded as the perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad is seen as excelling in his or her line of work (in and/or outside the organisation).

Using the functions of transformational leadership, especially individualised consideration, facilitates the development of a high-quality exchange relationship between the leader and the follower. It implies an exchange which contributes to the development and thus transformation of the follower. This relationship can be explained in terms of the in-group of leader-member exchange theory. The follower in the in-group performs beyond what is expected in terms of the transactional relationship (Murphy & Ensher, 1999). The different dimensions of the exchange relationship as discussed by Liden and Maslyn (1998), imply the possibility of variability in exchange types. A high-quality exchange relationship dominated by the contribution dimension, results in tasks and duties that exceed expectations of the formal employment contract. However, including the other dimensions seems to explain the exchange more in terms of a transformational relationship. If loyalty plays a role in the exchange relationship, the follower is more likely to be developed by being asked to do tasks that require more independence and responsibility. This provides support for the idea that transformational leadership adds to transactional leadership (Bass, 1997).

The relationship between the leader and an individual member of a group, differs from the relationship with the group as a unit. Leader-member relationships nevertheless impact on the

group. The leader should understand how different members contribute to the group and also how differential relationships with members impact on the group. High-quality relationships with individual members furthermore contribute indirectly to their performance and thus to the performance of the group. Such relationships also imply the transformation of members to become committed to the group or organisation's mission.

3.1.1   The development of individual followers

Using the transactional-transformational paradigm to describe the nature of the leader-member relationship, contributes to an understanding of why the transformational leader is more successful in developing individual followers. The environment and the developmental level of followers determine the appropriate leadership and delegation style. Transformational leadership, however, is most effective in the developmental process, inter alia, because this type of leader is capable of operating at different levels in the transactional-transformational paradigm.

Kuhnert (1994) identifies three styles in the transactional-transformational paradigm, each with specific preoccupations, focal tasks and expectations that affect the approach to delegation that the leader will adopt. This approach, in turn, determines how successful the leader is in the development of individual followers. According to Kuhnert (1994), transactional operators have personal goals and agendas and enter into agreements with others to satisfy these goals and agendas. They may be highly task oriented and not able to empathise with other's views, but instead find it difficult to put the interests of other individuals, the group or the organisation before their own goals. The previous section indicated how Murphy and Ensher (1999) compare the leader-member relationship in the case of transactional leadership with that of the out-group. Kuhnert (1994) acknowledges that expecting and demanding results lead to productivity and that followers will experience this approach as fair if the rewards are adequate.

Sosik and Godshalk (2000) studied the relationship between leadership behaviour as reported by a group of mentors and the mentoring functions received as reported by the protégées. Their findings provide some explanation of how leadership behaviours, especially those of

the transformational leader, facilitate individual development. Mentoring refers to the relationship between a more skilled and experienced person and a lesser skilled and experienced one in which the mentor provides career development and psychosocial support functions. As expected, in the above study, laissez-faire leadership behaviours were negatively related to receipt of mentoring functions. The transactional approach seemed to have potential for individual development in that transactional leadership behaviour was positively related to the receipt of certain mentoring functions. Transactional contingent reward behaviour may enhance the development of the follower by setting career goals, clarifying developmental outcomes and learning objectives and rewarding the follower for developmental behaviour. There is probably also psychosocial support in the sense that negotiations, agreement and rewards are characteristic of behaviours that promote trust. Post hoc analysis indicated that the relationship was primarily with the psychosocial support functions rather than the career development functions of mentoring.

If transactional behaviour is augmented by transformational behaviour, even more support is provided as a stronger positive relationship was found between transformational behaviour and mentoring functions received (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). This is explained in terms of the task orientation of transactional behaviour versus the relation orientation of transformational leadership which is an important aspect of the mentor-protégée relationship. Leadership behaviours associated with idealised influence (the mentor is perceived as a trustworthy, respected and admirable role model) are similar to the role modelling behaviours associated with the psychosocial support function of mentoring. Individually considerate behaviours (teaching and coaching others, paying attention to unique needs, developing strengths and listening attentively to concerns) facilitate the counselling and coaching behaviours associated with the psychosocial support function. Intellectual stimulation enhances analytical skills, cognitive development and creativity. According to Kuhnert (1994), the transactional operator uses delegation to serve a purpose and achieve goals. Transformational leadership (the second style used to explain individual development) shows concern for individuality and individual development. The transformational leader considers the long-term goals and interests of the organisation as well as those of the individual. The needs of the leader, the group and the individual are taken into account and both performance and development are regarded as important.

The individual is furthermore developed to a higher level of potential through setting higher goals and an increase in self-efficacy. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found the communicating-a-vision component of charismatic/transformational leadership related to followers' goals for quality and self-efficacy regarding quality which, in turn, affected performance quality. The inspirational motivation component of transformational leadership builds efficacy and the follower's confidence that he or she can contribute to the organisational mission. This contributes to the mentoring functions received. Murphy and Ensher (1999) also found that high quality exchange relationships affect performance because these lead to an increase in task self-efficacy, especially for a follower who is initially low in self-efficacy. This is explained in terms of positive expectations (that could lead to an increase in actual performance) and the model of appropriate work behaviour provided in a high-quality exchange relationship. Lowe et al. (1996) regard the function of intellectual stimulation as important in developing followers' belief in their ability to attain higher goals.

According to Lord, Brown and Freiberg (1999) leaders affect followers by changing the way followers perceive themselves, and the self-schemas of followers also influence their perceptions of leaders. This is seen as a dynamic process. The leadership style should, however, be matched to an appropriate identity level. The self is defined at one of three levels, namely individual, interpersonal or collective/group with only part of the self-identity active at any one time (implying a temporal value for leadership activities). In the context of transformational leadership, the development of individual members and leader-member exchange (the individual and interpersonal levels) form part of a process with a broader aim, namely to integrate followers and built a strong group or organisational identity (the collective/group level). Transformational/charismatic leadership thus emphasises members' contribution to the good of the group or organisation, which is why Lord et al. (1999) regard it as one of the most appropriate theories at collective level.

Bass (1990) refers to the need to learn how to train supervisors in the sensitivities and interpersonal competencies required of the transformational leader. Cilliers (1988, 1995) and Cilliers and Wissing (1993) are specific in their discussion of the characteristics of the manager and of the interpersonal relationship that contribute to development and growth in the second person. Psychological optimal functioning refers to certain intrapersonal

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characteristics at a physical, cognitive, emotional and conative level (self-actualisation was referred to in the discussion on the trait approach in ch. 2). It also includes the interpersonal characteristics of respect for the other person, empathy with him or her, realness in the subsequent response and a concreteness in the expression of relevant information. A manager who functions optimally is capable of creating an interpersonal relationship characterised by these behavioural dimensions. This is referred to as sensitive relation forming, a process that stimulates the follower's acceptance of personal responsibility and enables him or her to develop his or her potential. The follower works in a motivated and productive manner to attain organisational objectives while still acknowledging his or her own needs and objectives. Although the authors do not refer specifically to transformational leadership, it is clear that the manager utilises behaviours that correspond with the function of the transformational leader.

The third style of delegation discussed by Kuhnert (1994) involves an integration of contingent rewards and individual consideration but the team player does not have the vision of the transformational leader. Team players define themselves in terms of how others view them and they are transactional to the extent that their actions are guided by a need for affection from others. To the extent that their focus is on group outcomes, this type of leader is also transformational. Although team players delegate to promote the development of followers, the focus is on the enhancement of interpersonal relationships and not on autonomy, individuality and growth.

3.1.2   The quality and effect of leader-member relationships

It has been shown that leader-member exchange theory is one way in which to study the dynamics of dyadic functioning in an organisation. Murphy and Ensher (1999) studied the influence of the individual characteristics of both the leader and the member on the nature of initial interactions and thus on the quality of the leader-member exchange. They worked with interns on a job training programme and their supervisors and found that perceived similarity was related to liking for both the interns and the supervisors as well as to higher quality exchange relationships from both perspectives. The supervisors rated the followers who were high in work self-efficacy, higher in similarity, liking and quality of exchange relationships,

while the interns' job experience and general ability seemed to have little effect.

Leader-member exchange quality, in turn, has been found to be related to job-related outcomes such as performance evaluations, job satisfaction, role clarity and turnover. Murphy and Ensher (1999) found supervisors' ratings of liking and quality of exchange as well as of the self-efficacy of the interns to be related to the supervisors' ratings of subordinate performance. Interns who reported high-quality exchange relationships also reported greater job satisfaction. This corresponds with Liden and Maslyn's (1998) findings that the affect (mutual liking), loyalty and professional respect dimensions of leader-member exchange were related to satisfaction with supervision, and that mutual loyalty was also related to the evaluation of job performance by managers. Professional respect was furthermore related to organisational commitment and autonomy. Contribution was related to organisational commitment, satisfaction with work, and job performance. Basu and Green (1997) also found the quality of exchange to be positively related to follower autonomy, leader support of followers and follower commitment. Quality of exchange was related to innovative behaviour by followers (as was leader support and follower commitment). Follower reports were used to measure these variables except for the innovative behaviour of followers which was rated by supervisors.

Basu and Green (1997), however, found a strong negative relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behaviour (contrary to what is expected on the basis of the conceptualisation of transformational leadership). It is suggested that more innovative transformational leaders might have been stricter in rating followers as innovative, and/or the negative side of charisma that encourages dependence of followers actually deters innovation and as the supportive aspects of leadership were controlled for, the remaining variance in innovative behaviour might have been more sensitive to these negative aspects.

Higher-quality exchange relationships are negatively related to followers' perceptions of job stressors (Nelson et al., 1998; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). The leader provides greater support in the in-group with a higher extent of communication and role clarification, more favourable job assignments and opportunities for career advancement, as well as more influence. This explains lower role conflict and role ambiguity in the case of higher-quality relationships as

well as the fact that less stress from lack of career progress, low job scope and lack of participation was reported. Not all stressors are affected by the quality of the relationship - because high performers are more likely to form part of the in-group, they are just as likely to experience certain stressors such as work overload as are members of the out-group.

Engle and Lord (1997) studied the role of cognitive similarities between supervisors and subordinates and the effect of these similarities on the quality of leader-member exchange. Perceived attitudes were regarded as being on a cognitive level, and similar to Murphy and Ensher (1999), they found perceived attitudinal similarity to be related to both liking and ratings of the quality of leader-member exchange for supervisors and subordinates. However, liking was strongly related to the quality of leader-member exchange, and in the case of subordinates, this variable mediated the effect of perceived similarity whereas for supervisors partial mediation occurred. Engle and Lord (1997) also studied similarity in terms of implicit leadership theories and implicit performance theories. These theories are used as the basis for interpreting the behaviour of the other person in the dyad as well as for own behaviour. Congruence in implicit leadership theories was not related to subordinate ratings but congruence in implicit performance theories was significantly related to liking and quality of leader-member relationships as rated by supervisors. Liking again acted as a mediator. Although it is not possible on the strength of these results to determine causality, it is suggested that cognitive factors influence liking which, in turn, influences the exchange relationship. Predictions about the moderating role of self-schemas were not supported. Exploratory analyses indicated that implicit theories and self-schemas as evaluated in terms of organisational normative definitions were related to liking and the quality of leader-member relationships as rated by the other member of the dyad. The relationship for self-schemas was positive in the case of the subordinates while a negative relationship was found for supervisors.

An interesting finding by Murphy and Ensher (1999) was that leader characteristics seemed to affect the leader's own ratings of followers' performance and of the quality of exchange (a positive relationship). They expected the leader's self-efficacy in developing quality relationships and optimism (associated with leader responsibility and goal attainment as well as with follower attitude and performance expectations) to influence the quality of the

exchange relationship. Only optimism, in the case of female supervisors only, was related to the followers' ratings of the quality of exchange relationships. The relationship with the leader's own ratings, however, has implications for subjective performance appraisals. Hogan (1994) also refers to the effect of leader behaviour on outcomes specific to the leader (e.g. representing the group, coordinating with other units and communicating with superiors and peers) in addition to follower outcomes.

3.2　　　INTERACTION BETWEEN THE LEADER AND THE GROUP

The leader is usually evaluated in terms of the performance of the group(s) of which he or she is the leader rather than the performance of individual members of the group(s). It has been emphasised that the distinction between transformational leadership in the relationship between the leader and the individual member and transformational leadership at group level should be kept in mind (although the importance of the dyadic relationship in the group context has also been stressed). In the discussion on the relationship at a dyadic level in the previous sections, the importance of individualised consideration in the development of individual followers was indicated. The characteristics of the follower and the leader also affect the dyadic relationship which, in turn, influences worker attitudes and performance. The discussion in this section focuses on mediator and moderator variables that should be considered when studying the effect of leadership style at group level.

Similarities to the dyadic level are evident, and Sagie (1997a) proposes that the effect of a leadership style at the group level is similar to that at the dyadic level if this style is homogeneous across the dyads in the group. This seems to be a simplified explanation. It is possible that a different style is used with an individual member than with the group as a whole. The leader's relationship with each of his or her followers may differ from the leader's relationship with the same followers as a group and individual followers may react differently to a leader when they are alone with the leader than when they are in a group with the leader (Bass, 1990). The nature of, say, inspirational motivation used with an individual probably differs from that used with the group.

Group performance depends on the performance of individual members but is also modified

by the interaction between group members and between members and group characteristics. The group as a unit has characteristics that are more than the sum of the individuals' qualities. These characteristics are affected by but also impact on the emergence of a leader, his or her leadership behaviour and decisions made by him or her (Atwater & Bass, 1994). The group's drive, cohesiveness and norms are, inter alia, significant factors that affect the leader (Bass, 1990). For example, in a more cohesive group, the norms, structures and roles are clear and initiation of structure by the leader is therefore unnecessary. Consideration seems to contribute more to further clarify the existing roles in such groups. The leader influences the group's norms (which are formed around the group objectives), but once these norms are established, he or she is expected to conform, especially in the earlier stages of the relationship.

When deciding on the group's structure and composition, the leader should be individually considerate as well as task oriented. The size of the group (another factor that impacts on the leader) should allow participation by members, but they should also be sufficiently diverse to ensure task accomplishment. The individually considerate leader focuses on the individuals' roles in the group and how this affects the interactive processes. The group has expectations of how individual members should behave and each member has his or her own perceptions of these expected behaviours. Related to these roles is the relative importance of each member's position (or status) in the group. Leadership behaviour should furthermore be consistent with the developmental stage of the group and the type of decisions the group needs to make, and as indicated, its tasks and goals as well as its norms need to be considered.

Given these group-related factors, the leader should be able to recognise which leadership style is more appropriate. Leaders usually do not display only one style, and an effective leader, for example, uses both transformational leadership and contingent reward to increase group cohesion (which generally has a positive influence if the group's goals complement the organisational goals, one of the outcomes of transformational leadership). As mentioned by Lord et al. (1999), group cohesion and a strong group identity represent a collective level of identity and are the aim of transformational leadership.

3.2.1   Dimensions of leadership behaviours

Dimensions of leadership behaviours and corresponding leadership styles were identified in chapter 2. Transformational leadership in the relationship between the leader and individual followers was described in terms of the patterns of leadership behaviour associated with a relations-oriented style and with consideration. Being task oriented and the initiation of structure seem more characteristic of the transactional leader. Lowe et al. (1996), however, also refer to the splitting of constructs such as "initiation of structure" into two dimensions, namely, according to the transactional approach, the leader clarifies the task structure in terms of the preferred way of doing things, whereas the transformational approach implies a new strategy or vision to structure the way in which to do things, thus enabling followers to function interdependently.

As in the relationship with individual followers, a distinction can also be made between group maintenance behaviours versus task performance behaviours in the interaction between the leader and the group. These patterns of leadership behaviours have differential effects on the group's performance and attitudes. Moderator variables that need to be considered when deciding between a task-oriented and a person-oriented style, include the characteristics of the leader, the characteristics of followers (Hersey, 1984) and the demands of the situation (as explained in Fiedler's contingency model). However, the full range model of leadership subsumes prior models of leader behaviour (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Since this model proposes that every leader displays a combination of laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership styles, the leader is not restricted to, say, task- or relations-oriented behaviour. Transformational leadership is furthermore an expansion of transactional leadership, and behaviours associated with the latter are displayed by the transformational leader if deemed necessary. An illustration of this is the three components of charismatic and transformational leadership identified by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), namely communicating a vision, implementing the vision and demonstrating a charismatic communication style. These components refer to inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation but also include behaviours such as providing direction, initiating structure and giving guidance in goal attainment. Transformational leadership compliments transactional leadership and is in fact likely to be ineffective in the total absence of transactional leadership. Sosik (1997) believes that transformational leadership and its effects on group processes and outcomes provide a theoretically based paradigm (inter alia) for describing the relationships

between leadership style, group characteristics and group processes and outcomes.

According to Kanungo (1997), in assuming a role (be it a task-oriented initiating structure role or a person-oriented consideration role), the leader may at times act in a directive manner and at other times in a participative manner. With regard to participation in decision making, Sagie (1997a) explains how behavioural styles can coexist in this third dimension of leadership behaviour. A participative versus a directive leadership style refers to decision making and goal setting in the group. If this is seen as a dichotomy with the patterns of behaviour placed on a continuum, a contingency model such as that of Vroom and Jago (1995) can be used in deciding which style to adopt. Sagie (1997a) suggests that it is also possible to regard the participative and directive practices as two distinct constructs that are measured on two continuous scales. In other words, leader direction is seen as compatible with employee participation. This explains the combined use by the transformational leader in what Sagie (1997a) refers to as the "loose-tight practice". Idealised influence and inspirational motivation entail a more directive impact on followers, whereas individualised consideration can be regarded as participative. Intellectual stimulation involves both practices as the leader promotes a way of thinking that leads to a response from followers. However, given the possible coexistence of the two types of behaviour, the transformational leader could rely on a directive or a participative style when using any of the four functions. The transformational leader has a strong sense of purpose and he or she motivates followers to also support this purpose. The followers, however, are developed and granted autonomy while working towards broad organisational goals.

There are different ways in which to interpret the seeming contradiction of the loose-tight transformational leader (Sagie, 1997a). One view holds that, in most cases, participation by followers should be encouraged during decision making while a more directive approach is followed during the execution of decisions. Secondly, followers usually possess more operational knowledge which makes participation useful when tactical decisions are made, while leader direction is more appropriate when strategic decisions are taken. A third explanation suggests that both practices are applied and that a specific practice does not have to be limited to a specific phase. A distinction is made between two aspects of the decision-making context, namely framework and substance (Sagie, 1997b). The procedures that direct

information gathering and decision making set the framework while the contents of the information and decisions are substance. Framework setting is basically the same in each phase of performing the work and is linked to direction. The leader sets up a framework by being directive in initiating, structuring and controlling the task-related communication with followers. Followers then participate in the actual decisions being made during this leader-follower interaction. They are allowed autonomy, innovation and involvement in goal setting and decision making. The substance (linked to participation) depends on the work phase (strategic, tactical or execution). In the sense that the distinction between the work phases can be regarded as referring to the situation, this model corresponds with contingency theories. Kanungo (1997) suggests an additional work phase related to the development of work competence and self-efficacy of followers. Directive and participative practices are also used in this phase, as is the empowering practices used by the charismatic/transformational leader. A variation in style, depending on combinations of situational factors, also seems plausible although not necessarily in terms of the specific behaviours and contingencies in the model proposed by Vroom and Jago (1995). Munene (1997) argues that the inspirational motivation component of transformational leadership in particular refers to a leader function, while participation can be regarded as a form of management. However, participation does not only refer to strategy making but also includes the creation of shared meaning implied by participative goal setting. Sagie (1997b) furthermore points out that making choices between events often precedes giving meaning to an event and both are therefore functions of leadership.

Different leadership behaviours are emphasised, depending on whether the leader adopts a transactional or transformational style. Because the interaction between the leader and the group refers to a dynamic process, the leader, however, is not limited to a specific pattern of behaviours. In the case of the transformational leader in particular, flexibility with regard to the behavioural dimensions (task performance, group maintenance and participation in decision making) is suggested. The transactional leader focuses on procedures, whereas the transformational leader also has to take into account the processes involved in the functioning of the group as a whole, thus implying less individual control.

3.2.2   Leader effectiveness in terms of performance and attitudes

Transactional and transformational leaders differ primarily in terms of the style used to motivate followers and the types of goals set. As in individual performance, transactional leadership is believed to result in expected performance, while transformational leadership has been shown to result in group and unit performance beyond expectations in a variety of contexts (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). A meta-analytic review of literature on the full range model (as measured by the MLQ), showed higher correlations for transformational scales with effectiveness (subordinate perceptions and organisational measures of leader effectiveness) than for transactional scales (Lowe et al., 1996). Values of 0.71, 0.60 and 0.60 were found respectively for charisma (idealised influence and inspirational motivation), individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation with a value of 0.41 for contingent reward and the lowest correlation with effectiveness of 0.05 for management by exception (a distinction was not made between passive and active management by exception). Results varied across the studies included in the review, suggesting moderator variables (still to be discussed). Bycio et al. (1995) emphasise the predictive validity of the charismatic dimension in a discussion on the augmentation effect of leader behaviour on followers' levels of extra effort, their satisfaction with the leader and their perception of his or her effectiveness.

A number of authors (e.g. Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Sagie, 1996; Sosik, 1997) found a differential relationship for transactional and transformational leadership behaviours with the work performance of groups. Results indicated that a distinction can be made between the quantity and quality of performance, and mediating factors were also identified. Vision implementation is one of three components of charismatic and transformational leadership identified by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996). Implementation techniques include providing task clues, serving as a role model and providing individualised support. Providing task cues involves transactional behaviours such as structuring, task clarification and supplying task strategies. However, these behaviours are also regarded as part of transformational leadership, especially if the behaviours involve some form of intellectual stimulation. The effect of manipulating the different components of transformational leadership was studied in an experiment in which a number of groups performed a simulated production task. Vision implementation in the form of providing task cues (versus no task cues) was found to directly affect performance by increasing the quality and quantity of followers' performance. It also

indirectly affected performance quantity through quantity goals.

A proposition can be put forward that providing structure in terms of task-related behaviours, contributed to quantity whereas quality was influenced by transformational behaviours. This corresponds with Sosik's (1997) finding that transformational leadership resulted in higher creativity in idea generation. Sosik (1997) studied group performance in an electronic brainstorming task in a computer-mediated context - a context in which the dynamics of group communication differ from that in traditional face-to-face contexts. Low transformational leaders engaged in goal-setting behaviour, which to some extent explains why these groups focused more on outcome-oriented comments, that is, the number of solutions offered. The intellectual stimulation provided by the transformational leader was expected to stimulate generative and exploratory thinking which should have resulted in an increase in the number of solutions as well as the originality of these solutions. It was expected to also stimulate process-oriented thinking. Some support for these expectations was found. These groups focused more on process-oriented comments with more original solutions, questions about solutions and solution clarifications. Individualised consideration (seen as rewarding behaviour) and inspirational motivation (seen to increase intrinsic motivation to work collectively) were expected to also result in an increase in the number of solutions as well as the number of supportive remarks. Only the second expectation was confirmed.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) indicate that transactional behaviours can form part of the repertoire of the transformational leader. This is also the view of Sagie (1997a) as seen in the explanation of the way directive and participative behaviours coincide in the loose-tight practice. Practising a directive approach is appropriate to the leader's communication style in task-oriented communication. Sagie (1996) distinguished between low and high leader directiveness in initiating interaction in a team, and controlling and structuring the team. Low directiveness implied free communication between all team members while the leader was involved in each of the internal interactions in the high-directiveness condition. Communication style was significantly related to performance, and all team performance indices improved when the degree of leader directiveness increased.

In contrast to the results reported in the meta-analysis by Lowe et al. (1996), Singer (1985) found contingent reward (as measured on the MLQ) to have the highest correlation with perceived work-unit effectiveness (although all correlations were significant). (A similar finding is reported by Yammarino et al., 1998, in terms of subjective ratings of subordinate performance by their supervisors. Negative correlations were reported in the case of objective performance measures.) Given the differential influence indicated earlier in terms of quantity and quality, it is possible that quantitative measures are used more often by members of a work unit when evaluating work unit performance. Whatever the explanation, it would seem that behaviour that provides direction and gives structure and guidance, impacts on work performance. (This includes transactional behaviours by the transformational leader, e.g., vision implementation and leader directiveness.) However, conditions for this effect have been reported, as in the study by Butler and Cantrell (1997), where it was found that leadership behaviour that initiates structure must be accompanied by high consideration to be effective in increasing productivity.

In addition to the effect on work performance, relationships were found between transactional behaviours and work attitudes. A positive relationship was evident between vision implementation and task satisfaction in the study by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), although this could have been the result of the relationship between vision implementation and task performance. In addition, positive relationships were found with task clarity and the perception of the leader as providing intellectual stimulation. Leader directiveness was also positively related to task satisfaction as well as to satisfaction with team achievements (Sagie, 1996). Once again, satisfaction could be regarded as an attitudinal consequence of success in goal attainment (better performance). Yammarino et al. (1998) found significant positive correlations between contingent reward and subordinate satisfaction with the superior and subordinate affect (commitment and job satisfaction). Bycio et al. (1995) report a positive correlation between contingent reward and extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness as well as with affective commitment to the organisation which, in turn, affected intent to leave the profession or the job. Negative relationships were found with management by exception. Wofford et al. (1998) report similar negative correlations with regard to perceived leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. Singer (1985) reports positive correlations for contingent reward and management by exception with perceived leader

effectiveness and job satisfaction. The correlations with management by exception were lower.

Bycio et al. (1995), Singer (1985), Wofford et al. (1998) and Yammarino et al. (1998), however, found stronger relationships with the transformational scales (corresponding with the meta-analytic study of Lowe et al., 1996, also in terms of the highest correlations being with the charismatic function). When studying the interaction in groups in a more traditional face-to-face context, transformational leadership has been shown to be positively related to motivational beliefs and attitudes. This finding is supported in computer-mediated groups in which high transformational groups reported higher levels of perceived performance, extra effort and satisfaction with the leader (Sosik, 1997). Wofford et al. (1998) report that group satisfaction with the leader and perceptions of leader effectiveness were positively related to transformational leadership (contingent reward was included in the combined transformational scale). Similarly, Butler and Cantrell (1997) report an increase in job satisfaction with an increase in leaders' scores on consideration, while a decrease in satisfaction was evident with an increase in scores on initiating structure. However, they report that interaction between the two leader behaviours and the effect of consideration seemed stronger when scores on initiating structure were high rather than low. Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986) found both consideration and initiating structure to be positively related to satisfaction with the leader. Tracey and Hinkin (1998) report that transformational leadership accounts for a significant proportion of variance in ratings of leader effectiveness, beyond that accounted for by managerial practices.

In the study by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), communicating a vision, a component of transformational leadership, had an indirect effect on performance quality through followers' goals for quality and self-efficacy regarding quality. This component, however, had a direct influence on followers' work attitudes as seen in an improvement in their attitudes and perceptions. Those groups in which a vision of quality (versus no vision) was communicated, showed significantly higher congruence between followers' beliefs and values and those communicated through the vision. Followers in these groups also indicated higher levels of trust in the leader and said that they perceived the leader as charismatic and providing inspiration and intellectual stimulation. The third component of transformational leadership

identified by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996), namely charismatic communication, was not related to performance (although such a relationship has been found in prior research), and only affected the perception of the charisma of the leader.

The above discussion shows that communicating a vision contributes to a shared vision for the leader and the group and has an influence on work attitudes. Sagie (1996) also found that participative goal setting has a greater influence on personal work attitudes than the influence evident in the case of a directive communication style. When compared with assigned goals, participative or group-set goals yielded significantly lower ratings of task difficulty, while it was also significantly related to higher ratings of goal commitment, task interest, achievement satisfaction and task satisfaction. Although goal setting did not influence performance directly, participative goal setting could increase goal level which could, in turn, lead to a higher level of task performance (goal level should be held constant for participative and assigned goals). The positive effects of directive communication and participative goal setting seem to be additive, with both contributing to effective leadership.

Deluga (1988) provides some insight into the dynamics underlying the stronger relationship between transformational behaviour and work attitudes. The leadership-employee influencing interactions were studied using the transactional-transformational paradigm. Subordinates completed the MLQ-5 as well as a questionnaire on the frequency of influencing strategies used in relation to the manager. It was proposed that downward-influencing behaviour is inversely related to employee upward-influencing behaviour. This was supported for both transactional and transformational leadership with a stronger relationship evident for transactional leadership. Transactional leadership seems to allow for a greater shift in relative power whereas transformational leadership, with the focus on the organisational mission, ensures more stable influencing activity. Such a more stable (versus volatile) influencing system is expected to result in greater organisational productivity. Deluga (1988) regards the significant relationship of transformational leadership with satisfaction with the leader and with perceived leader effectiveness as supportive evidence.

Research shows that motivational factors such as self-efficacy, goals set (quantity and quality goals) and goal level mediate the effect of leadership style on performance (Kirkpatrick &

Locke, 1996; Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Sagie, 1996). Kirkpatrick and Locke's (1996) findings furthermore suggest that motivational (e.g. task clarity) and cognitive factors (e.g. intellectual stimulation) probably mediate the effect of leadership behaviours on work attitudes. Although attitudes have been distinguished as an outcome variable similar to performance, Avolio's (1997) view that job attitudes and effort are also mediating factors simplifies research interpretations. Durham et al. (1997) found cognitive factors to also mediate the effect of leadership style on performance. They did not find an effect for leader role through motivational factors (team-set goals and team efficacy), but concluded instead that leader role had an effect on performance in their study through the quality of team tactics, which is in the cognitive realm.

Durham et al. (1997) studied the effect of a participative leadership style on team effectiveness in a laboratory experiment. Leaders were either classified as commanders (the leader makes decisions for the group) or as coordinators (the leader ensures good communication and coordination among team members). The task was a computerised tank battle simulation and assigned goals of varied difficulty (hard or easy). A team was defined as two or more individuals working interdependently to achieve a common goal. If such a team is faced with a task requiring new learning, it has to discover and implement effective task strategies and tactics. The team needs to have or be able to discover information relevant to task performance and be able to communicate this to others. Under these conditions, using a more participative leadership style - with all team members sharing equal responsibility for determining strategy and directing activities - facilitates effectiveness through communication. It is a means of enhancing both information exchange and the development of competencies.

Durham et al.'s (1997) findings revealed that leader behaviour influences motivation through assigned goals, and the performance effects of team-set goals also corresponded to Sagie's (1996) findings on participative goal setting. Assigned goals affected team-set goals directly and indirectly through team-efficacy. Team tactics were more strongly related to performance than team-set goals, but team-set goal difficulty was related to performance in teams using better tactics. A relationship between team efficacy and tactics was also evident.

Leadership styles influence group performance and work attitudes. This effect is either direct or mediated by motivational and cognitive factors. The context and specific situation also need to be considered to provide for moderator or contingency variables of the effect of leadership style. Yukl (1999) criticises transformational and charismatic theories for insufficient specification of situational variables. Despite the positive effects found for the coordinators in the study by Durham et al. (1997), it was acknowledged that the relative amount of knowledge and ability of the leader versus that of the subordinates should be considered. There may be task situations that are more appropriate for commander behaviours. Sagie (1997a) explains how the leader variable, technical expertise, should be low in order to enhance the usefulness of the combined loose-tight practice. If this expertise is high, it serves as a substitute for the loose-tight practice. This implies that it neutralises the effect of leadership behaviour while having an independent positive effect on work outcomes. Other leader variables influencing the loose-tight practice include the personality traits of flexibility and need for achievement (should be high and low respectively to act as enhancers).

Chitayat and Venezia (1988) found that, in addition to acting as moderators, leader variables also influence the choice of leadership style. Top executives were less directive, less negotiative and more participative than second-level managers. This corresponds with the findings for middle-level managers, indicating the possibility that the leadership style is dynamic with a person changing his or her style when moving to a higher level of management. As in the case of lower-level managers, factors such as power and information were seen to affect the choice of leadership style for senior executives. However, since this effect differed across business and nonbusiness organisations, Chitayat and Venezia (1988) concluded that the nature of the organisation is a more important determinant.

In their meta-analytic review, Lowe et al. (1996) also found a difference in behaviour, depending on the level of the leader. However, contrary to what was expected, transformational behaviours were more prevalent among lower-level leaders (although these leaders also showed more behaviours associated with management by exception). They acknowledge that the criteria for the inclusion of the studies in the review could have influenced this finding. Kuchinke (1999), on the other hand, did not detect any differences

in leadership style (transactional and transformational) among job categories when considering executives, professional employees and production-level workers (although a difference was found in work-related values with higher rankings on long-term orientation, masculinity and individualism at higher levels). Lowe et al. (1996) did not find support for the hypothesis that the level of the leader moderates the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness.

Worker variables that serve as enhancers of the effect of leadership style include high education levels and a high need for independence together with high self-efficacy. It is also necessary to consider the nature of the task, with a possible difference in terms of the impact of directive or participative leadership, depending on whether the task is highly structured or less structured (Kahai, Sosik, & Avolio, 1997). According to Avolio (1997), the trust that the leader and the followers have in each other also determines the appropriate level of the loose-tight practice. Trust, in turn, is partly dependent on developmental level and maturity (this corresponds to Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory). Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986) found group cohesiveness to moderate the effect of leadership behaviour on facets of job satisfaction. Both consideration and initiating structure were more effective in high-cohesiveness groups than in low-cohesiveness groups. A possible explanation is that the interpretation of leader behaviour is a function of group cohesiveness (note that cohesiveness has a number of positive consequences as illustrated by the positive relationship to facets of job satisfaction, noticeably satisfaction with co-workers). These results conflict with the situational theory because they suggest that the leader should exhibit high levels of both types of behaviours throughout the development cycle of the group. Earlier distinctions made between the dimensions of directive-participative and initiating structure-consideration should be kept in mind as well as Sagie's (1997b) comment that the leader could be loose or tight in a consideration role and in a role where structure is given.

According to Lowe et al. (1996), the type of criterion used to determine effectiveness is an important moderator of the relationship between leadership and effectiveness. Positive relationships were observed for the transformational scales regardless of the criterion but significantly higher positive relationships were found for transformational and transactional scales with subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness than with organisational measures.

This is attributed to a combination of mono-method bias (subordinates rating leader behaviour and leader effectiveness) and fundamental differences in the aspects of effectiveness being measured (a narrower perspective of performance in the case of organisational measures). Similarly, Ross and Offermann (1997) found positive relationships with perceived work group effectiveness but not with objective ratings. Their results showed a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership (as measured by a combined score based on the MLQ) and subordinates' ratings of satisfaction with the unit and the institution. Correlations with performance of the work group in terms of objective scores on multiple performance areas such as professional competency examination scores were not significant. They concluded that transformational leadership seems necessary for optimal subordinate satisfaction, but it is not clear whether this contributes to actual performance or whether there is only a perception of performance. The influence of initial differences in subordinate performance should also be considered, given Ross and Offermann's (1997) suggestion of the possibility that transformational leaders do not develop but rather attract high performers.

3.2.3   Self-management and multifunctional teams

Self-management teams serve as an example of the application of participation in leadership. Since these teams are characterised by interdependence as well as a high degree of authority to make decisions about the group, this implies an increase in employee involvement. The tasks of the group are furthermore high in autonomy and identity. An increase in responsibility and authority implies that both the team and team members become empowered. This, in turn, implies that the organisation is more capable of adapting to the environment. Most self-managing groups have a formal leader but his or her role differs from that of conventional supervisors. The leadership style and associated behaviours influence the development and performance of the team.

Stewart and Manz (1995) combine an autocratic-democratic dimension with an active-passive dimension to explain the leader's effect on the team. In the early phases of the team, an active democratic style would enhance skill development and team building. Leader behaviours include guidance and encouragement, delegation and reinforcement. According to Cohen et al. (1997), followers are encouraged specifically in terms of self-managing skills such as self-

expectation, rehearsal, self-goal setting, self-criticism, self-reinforcement and self-observation/evaluation. A broad construct of encouraging self-management seems to underlie these specific behaviours. At this stage, the team controls the way in which the work is done, but the leader still has significant control in terms of setting the direction of the team.

As the team matures in terms of self-management skills, a democratic style with the leader adopting a more passive role, enables the team to control what work is being done and how it is being done (a similar suggestion on leader involvement and the maturity of subordinates is found in Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory). Stewart and Manz (1995) propose that this type of leader serves as a resource whose behaviours include serving as a model of self-management, connecting the team with the rest of the organisation and the environment, and being available to provide assistance. (Note that Cohen et al., 1997, regard the management of resources and of external boundaries of the organisation as leadership dimensions different from behaviours that encourage self-management.) The development of the behaviours associated with the different leadership styles is explained in terms of social learning theory. For example, in the more democratic style, there is an interaction between the characteristics of the leader such as formal education and experience, and the characteristics of the setting such as an organisational culture that focuses on long-term performance and a mature team. The leader's cognitive interpretations of these interactions (e.g. high self-efficacy for team leadership) results in a goal being more passive and democratic explaining the leadership behaviours. Social learning theory thus provides for an integration of trait, situational and cognitive theories and allows for individual and environmental factors to be acknowledged.

Cohen et al. (1997) use social learning theory to explain the positive (although moderate) relationship of self-managing leadership behaviours with effectiveness and with the quality of work life reported by members of self-managing and traditionally managed teams. They suggest that the members' self-control systems (a cognitive component) determine their behaviour. Organisational control systems (environmental contingencies), in turn, influence the self-control systems. Members, as well as leaders of the self-managing teams, rated their leaders somewhat higher in terms of encouraging self-management, but these behaviours were also observed in the traditionally managed teams. Self-management leadership behaviour therefore seems to form a continuum.

Encouraging self-management requires characteristics seen in transformational leadership such as individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation, whereas dealing with a mature team (Stewart & Manz, 1995) requires the leader to serve as a model of self-regulation and as a reminder of the larger context. Behaviours that are characteristic of transformational leadership also enhance the functioning of multifunctional teams. A multifunctional team consists of individuals with different functional, technical or professional backgrounds. The multifunctional team works on tasks from more than one phase of innovation and product development simultaneously (with each individual contributing to each phase). This differs from a more traditional approach in which different groups, each consisting of members from the same functional area, complete a set of tasks at different phases.

In a multifunctional team, a functional leader maintains control over the technical details. The team leader is responsible for the composition of the team and should ensure that the team members have the necessary qualifications and expertise to successfully complete the project. Qualified members have a degree of autonomy because they are responsible for their own section of the project but also need to work in coordination with other members. The team leader facilitates this interaction in the team. He or she furthermore represents the team in dealings with management and also in interacting with customers.

Waldman (1994) explains why a transformational leadership style is effective in this specific context. The leader is dealing with people from different functional areas and the sensitivity to differences that is implied by individualised consideration is required. Evaluation for both individual and team development rather than single-person evaluation is also used. The leader should stimulate others intellectually. The team members have skills and expertise in areas that are unfamiliar to the leader. In this context, the leader is responsible for initiating actions such as questioning assumptions and thus encouraging intellectual stimulation and creativity. The leader should inspire and motivate the team by clarifying its importance, mission and goals. Idealised influence in the context of the multifunctional team includes the leader as an example of someone who works well with people of different backgrounds and opinions.

3.3   LEADERSHIP STYLE IN AN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

Work teams function in a larger organisational context that impacts on the group as well as on the decision about an appropriate leadership style. For example, if a leader is appointed, he or she derives power from the position in the organisation and may be more transactional, whereas elected leaders derive their power from their idealised influence, intellectual stimulation or individualised consideration and may therefore be more transformational (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Obholzer, 1994a).

Corporate strategy refers to an organisation's basic direction for the future, namely its purpose, ambitions, resources and interaction with the environment (Kemp, 2000). Overcoming resistance to changes emanating from strategic planning requires a shared vision and leadership style that encourages commitment to this vision. When a work team is formed and before its members have developed a shared purpose, it relies on the organisational culture (the beliefs, values and norms of an organisation's members) to guide its actions. The purpose developed by the team should preferably be in line with the organisation's vision and mission, while the organisational culture should, in turn, support the team in accomplishing its tasks and realising its goals. Atwater and Bass (1994) discuss how, as part of a full range approach to leadership, the transformational leader uses intellectual stimulation to redefine values and norms if this is necessary and inspirational motivation and idealised influence to develop a shared purpose. The team's effectiveness depends partly on an accurate understanding of the team's tasks by the members.

An effort should also be made in planning and implementing strategic plans and ensuring sufficient resources and support for them. Planning and implementation require a leadership style that is high on both the people and task dimensions and should therefore involve joint involvement (Kemp, 2000). The organisational context influences the availability of the resources the team needs to accomplish its tasks. Active transactional leadership may be used to determine what resources are needed and to make these available. The leader should also be afforded opportunities to reward successful teams that individual members regard as beneficial. Consideration of individual members furthermore requires that appropriate information reaches members and that they have the opportunity to convey their ideas. Two

other important aspects of the organisational context which the leader should consider, are the social environments in which team members function and the role of outsiders.

Both transactional and transformational leadership therefore play a role in forming and implementing a strategy that fits into the broader context, thus ensuring greater effectiveness. An example of how these leadership styles contribute to organisational effectiveness is a model relating to quality improvement. Quality improvement can be regarded as an organisational strategy and terms such as total quality management are associated with this strategy. Sosik and Dionne (1997) refer to Deming's 14 points of operating principles to promote an organisational culture of total quality management as an alternative manifestation of five interrelated behaviour factors identified by Waldman (1993, in Sosik & Dionne, 1997). These factors are change agency, teamwork, continuous improvement, trust-building and short-term goal eradication. Sosik and Dionne (1997) provide a theoretical link between these behaviour factors and leadership styles identified in the full range model. This corresponds to suggestions for a model of leadership in quality improvement based on a qualitative analysis of experiences in this regard (Waldman et al., 1998).

Transformational leadership is essential at the senior level of management to ensure communication and reinforcement of a vision of quality and values that support it. Development of transformational leadership at this level enhances the likelihood of such leadership at lower levels. Waldman et al. (1998) suggest that senior management should work as a unified team with a vision of and a commitment to quality improvement. They should have a physical presence indicating their commitment in policy development, strategies and objectives. Only when working as a team is there continuing organisational commitment. Transformational leadership is effective in achieving performance beyond basic expectations and, as such, Sosik and Dionne (1997) also regard transformational leadership as positively related to the behaviour factors associated with total quality management.

Transformational leaders initiate and guide change by generating strategic insights, providing intellectual stimulation, creating a vision and utilising teamwork. A vision of quality includes continuous improvement as a value. Through inspirational motivation, the leader enables his or her followers to understand the organisation's mission and the way they should move

beyond their own interests and work together to achieve it. Teamwork, in and across departments as well as across organisational boundaries is enhanced. In this regard, Bass (1990) observes that working in a group probably requires more individualised consideration, while representing the group externally might be based more on negotiations with higher authority and outsiders. Through idealised influence and individualised consideration, the leader also establishes trust in management. Lastly, the transformational leader not only considers short-term goals, but also focuses on the future in terms of continuous improvement.

This aspect of total quality management is inconsistent with transactional leadership where there is a short-term emphasis on management by objectives (Sosik & Dionne, 1997). The transactional leader contributes to change and continuous improvement by clarifying, directing and rewarding quality improvement outcomes. This exchange also leads to the establishment of trust and teams may or may not be used to achieve desired goals. According to Waldman et al. (1998), a routinisation of charisma might be needed to ensure that efforts towards quality improvement persist. This implies more transactional forms of leadership at lower levels of management to operationalise quality improvement and communicate and reward relevant activities and goals. Sosik and Dionne (1997) regard the relationship of management by exception (a transactional leadership style) and laissez-faire leadership with the behaviour factors associated with total quality management as negative. However, if the leader actively introduces change through error searching, deviation monitoring and process control, management by exception could contribute to continuous improvement.

Waldman et al. (1998) emphasise that leadership behaviours should be persistent for quality improvement efforts to be successful. Persistence, however, does not imply lack of flexibility. Planned redirection might be needed in developing an organisational culture of quality improvement (including emphasis on problem solving, systems-level thinking, learning, information sharing and cooperation). This also requires a focus that goes beyond particular projects, emphasising not only current performance but also the organisation's future position. The effect of the leader on the successful implementation of quality improvement is thus mediated through his or her effect on the organisational culture. The leader has a transforming effect not only on individuals but also on organisations. This is done by defining the need for

change, creating new visions and stimulating commitment to these visions.

Not only leader behaviours but also personal characteristics interact with and impact on the organisation. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) discuss the effect on the organisation of top executives who manifest a neurotic style. Although a leader may show some of the elements of different neurotic styles in his or her functioning, the characteristics of the five common neurotic styles described by Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) (paranoid, compulsive, histrionic, depressive and schizoid) do not specifically correspond to behaviours described in the full range model. However, it is important to note the suggested relationship, because it illustrates that the personality of the leader interacts with organisational functioning, charismatic leadership can be viewed from a psychodynamic stance, and the fantasies underlying the neurotic behaviour of individuals also explain the dynamics in groups in the form of shared fantasies. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) describe five common pathological organisational types indicating how elements of the climate, structure, strategy and environment of each type are consistent with the neurotic style of the top executive. This influence is proposed in organisations in which power is centralised. Cilliers (1999) points to the fact that the influence between organisational orientations and managerial disposition is reciprocal. Understanding the characteristics of the leader and organisation from a psychodynamic perspective, helps to evaluate the leader and the organisation's reaction to change and in recommending procedures for dealing with change.

The leader affects the organisation but organisational culture also impacts on the emergence of effective leadership (Conger, 1999; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Organisational and environmental factors that facilitate the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic or transformational leadership seem to be characterised by turbulence and change and to refer to less structured situations containing ambiguity and uncertainty ("psychologically weak situations"). For example, in a crisis situation, the charismatic leader emerges in reaction to the distress experienced and the promise of salvation. This is consistent with psychoanalytic explanations of charismatic leadership (Conger, 1999). The opposite is conditions of stability and continuity which refers to structured and clear situations with formalisation of procedures and routine tasks ("psychologically strong situations"). Procedures that contribute to a strong situation could be regarded as a substitute for leadership.

Howell and Higgens (1990) refer to the expectation of champions emerging in an organic rather than a mechanistic organisation. Sagie (1997a) identifies several moderators at organisational level that influence the effectiveness of the loose-tight leadership style. A structure that is decentralised as well as unstructured work procedures, for example, serve as enhancers, while a dominant work value of cooperation and competition serves as a substitute. Shamir and Howell (1999) describe organisational factors contributing to the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leadership as follows: an organisational life cycle with charismatic leadership being more likely in the first or entrepreneurial stage and in the latter stages when collaboration is needed to ensure renewal and motivation in the place of continued structure and control; an organic structure characterised by flexibility; an adaptive organisational culture; organisational goals that are consistent with dominant social values; and organisational tasks that are complex and challenging with low analysability and ambiguous performance goals. The authors regard these factors as interrelated, and state that none of these factors is a necessary or sufficient condition for the emergence of charismatic leadership.

Sagie (1997a) discusses moderators of the effectiveness of the loose-tight leadership style at the environmental level such as a dynamic market condition and a culture of low power distance. In a later article, Sagie (1997b), again refers to diversity in environments such as the low power-distance cultural environment. Shamir and Howell (1999) also refer to a dynamic and unstable environment characterised by rapidly changing technologies with high demands and opportunities for change as a condition favouring the emergence of charismatic leadership. Avolio (1997) proposes that the environment and the organisation should be analysed at separate levels.

Organisational structure and norms have been shown to influence leadership style, with a difference in the use of a directive or participative approach (other styles included in the study were negotiative, consultative and delegative), depending on whether it is a business or nonbusiness organisation, the nature of the operations of the organisation and the social norms adhered to (Chitayat & Venezia, 1988). This provides some support for the situational (or contingency) theory of leadership which refers to the effectiveness of different leadership styles in different situations. The nature of the organisation seemed to be a more important

determinant of leadership style than leader variables such as power and information.

Chitayat and Venezia (1988) found that a more directive style was associated with nonbusiness organisations and a more participative style with business organisations. Although both approaches have been shown to form part of the transformational leadership style, a participative approach is accepted as more typical of this style - hence Lowe et al.'s (1996) expectation that transformational leadership would be more commonly observed in private organisations compared with public organisations. This was not supported, and leaders in public organisations had higher mean scores on all three transformational scales (as well as on management by exception). The type of organisation moderated the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness, but again contrary to what was expected, significantly higher relationships were found in public compared with private organisations for charisma and intellectual stimulation. This was also the case for management by exception. As mentioned earlier, methodological limitations could have affected the results. Lowe et al. (1996) found that when controlling for the effect of the type of criteria, the difference was only observed consistently in the case of intellectual stimulation.

3.4   SUMMARY

Research on the relationship between the leader and his or her followers was discussed in this chapter. The focus was on the leadership styles as described in the full range model and the effect of these styles in dyadic relationships, on the group as a unit as well as in an organisational context. A distinction has to be made between different levels of leadership behaviour (individual leadership behaviours, group behaviours or characteristics of the organisational culture) and different follower contexts (leader-member, leader-group or leader-organisation). This chapter dealt primarily with individual leadership behaviours and the manifestation thereof in different contexts. The leader-member exchange theory is used to explore the relationships of both the transactional and the transformational leader with individual followers and the quality of the exchange has been shown to be related to job-related outcomes. The latter style implies an emphasis on the development of followers. Transformational leadership complements transactional leadership and it was illustrated how an effective leader utilises the different behaviours associated with these styles in his or her

relationship with the group. The broader behavioural dimensions discussed, were task performance, group maintenance and participation in decision making. Transactional and transformational leadership have been shown to have a differential effect in terms of group performance (a distinction was made between quantity and quality of performance), and although both styles are related to work attitudes, a stronger relationship has been identified in the case of transformational leadership. Mediator and moderator variables of the effect of leadership style were discussed. Transformational leadership can be used effectively with self-management and multifunctional teams and also plays a key role in successfully effecting organisational change. However, both transactional and transformational leadership are needed to form and implement an organisational strategy.

In addition to describing leadership styles, this study also aims to further explore group processes and dynamics in relation to the leadership style being practised. Group composition, structure and stages of group development are discussed in chapter 4 and an overview is given of research on group processes.

CHAPTER 4
GROUP CHARACTERISTICS AND PROCESSES

..., I would like to suggest that a group is a living system, self-regulating through shared perception and interaction, sensing, and feedback, and through interchange with its environment. Each group has unique wholeness qualities that become patterned, by way of members' thinking, feeling, and communicating, into structured subsystems. The group finds some way to maintain balance while moving through progressive changes, creating its own guidelines and rules and seeking its own goals through recurring cycles of interdependent behavior (Luft, 1984, p. 2).

Although different types of groups can be distinguished, all groups meet certain criteria. Members of a group share a purpose or a goal, interact, and some differentiation of behaviour or function starts to emerge. Luft (1984) adds that members must feel that there is more value belonging to the group than being outside it. It is necessary to distinguish between value for the individual and value in terms of the organisational context in the case of formal groups defined by the organisation's structure and guided by designated tasks. Examples of informal groups are friendship groups or interest groups that satisfy social needs. Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998) also refer to the interdependence of members and the fact that individuals are embedded in one or more larger social systems. Luft (1984) emphasises the connection between the various aspects of group behaviour in the use of the term "group mind" when the principles of behaviour of a group are studied at the level of group activity rather than at the level of individual personality.

Although the terms "group processes" and "group dynamics" are often used interchangeably (e.g. Luft, 1984), these terms refer to different paradigms with different assumptions about behaviour. Group processes refer to group phenomena such as the communication patterns used by group members for information exchanges, group decision processes, leader behaviour, power dynamics and conflict interactions. Robbins (1993) defines group processes as the cause-and-effect relationships in a group. Studying group processes therefore implies a focus on the development and manifestation of these relationships. Group dynamics, on the other hand, refer to the psychodynamic phenomena in groups. From a comprehensive

publication by Cartwright and Zander (1968) on the development of the study of groups, it is clear that the research focus up to the 1970s was more on group processes than on the psychodynamics of groups. This chapter deals with group processes while group dynamics, specifically from a systems psychodynamic perspective, are discussed in chapter 5.

The processes underlying groups that are more therapeutic have been studied systematically, providing a comprehensive system of interrelated principles for group functioning in this context. In counselling groups, a range of personal and interpersonal problems are addressed through interpersonal support, the development of positive attitudes and the development of interpersonal skills that enable individuals to deal with future problems. This implies the study of group behaviour from a humanistic viewpoint (rather than following a psychodynamic or systems approach). According to Corey and Corey (1997), the principles that apply to these groups are also relevant to groups in which the focus is more specific, for example, guidance or psychoeducational groups that aim specifically at addressing an information deficit in a certain area. The principles for counselling groups also apply to psychotherapy groups, although in the case of the latter there is greater emphasis on specialist knowledge and experience.

In task or work groups, these principles are applied to improve practice and foster the accomplishment of identified work goals. In previous chapters such task or work groups were mostly referred to as teams. According to Schminke and Wells (1999), a large percentage of companies have adopted team approaches to work including quality circles, self-managed teams, task forces, problem-solving teams and high performance teams. Burns (1995) refers to a standing team as a natural work group that deals with a series of related goals on a continuous basis. Such a team could be one of a number of teams in a department, it could refer to a department as a whole such as services or sales, or it could imply a relatively constant team across departments such as the top management team in an organisation. A cross-functional team, on the other hand, often aims to achieve specific and significant improvement and then disbands. Such a team is not necessarily restricted to the same company or organisation. An example is a team including retailers, parents, lawmakers, law enforcement, educators and youth to decide on a policy for dealing with the access minors have to tobacco (Anonymous, 2000). A multidisciplinary or multifunctional team could,

however, also work together on a more continuous basis. Examples include the approach followed in a group of clinics dealing with AIDS patients where a primary-care physician, specialists and therapists work together in evaluating and treating people (Croswell, 1998), and the team approach being used by a company to encourage regional offices to work together to save transportation costs (Milligan, 1999). A distinction can also be made between traditionally managed teams and self-managed teams. A case in point is the study by Sheridan (1991) in which an increase in commitment was found when the role of shift supervisor was eliminated and production workers made decisions as a team.

The individuals in a group are ideally interdependent and the purpose of the group is to help members achieve their mutual goals, which may be personal, interpersonal or task related. Group work involves the application of group theory to processes to achieve this. As part of group work, members need to become aware of the processes in the group. Experience-based learning may also be the main purpose of a group as in the laboratory method of studying groups (also referred to as sensitivity groups, encounter groups, human interaction groups, and T-groups or training groups). In such groups, a distinction is made between the content of group discussions and the processes underlying group behaviour and these categories are clarified. The terms "action learning" (Raelin & LeBien, 1993) and "learning groups" (McDougall & Beattie, 1995) have also been used in a context where the experience-based learning is more work centred. The focus is on learning instead of simply achieving a task, the aim being to provide opportunities for relating theory to practice and/or implementing what was learned in practice. Group members have also reported a transfer of the skills learnt in the group to the workplace. Sharing and learning with others in group situations imply individual change (such as the development of leadership competencies) and the development of process skills (such as communication and dealing with group conflict) (Zajas, 1994).

Group functioning takes place in a system, and a study of group processes should include reference to the group and organisational variables of this system. Raelin and LeBien (1993) for example, refer to the business and organisational relevance fostered by learning in an action-learning programme. Dirks (1999) suggests that the input-process-output model can be regarded as the predominant theory of group performance. Gladstein's (in Bottom & Baloff, 1994) model of task group effectiveness includes input and output variables in

addition to the group process variables. Input variables at group level are the group composition (adequate skills, heterogeneity, organisational tenure and job tenure) and the group structure (role and goal clarity, specific work norms, task control, size and formal leadership). The organisational level refers to resources are available (training and technical consultation and markets served) as well as the organisational structure (rewards for group performance and supervisory control). The output or group effectiveness is defined in terms of performance and satisfaction.

West and Anderson (1996) also use an input, group process, output model to guide their research on innovation in teams but define the outputs specifically in terms of the number and nature/content of innovations and also provide for innovation when describing input and process variables. In measuring output variables one should bear in mind that teams comprise individuals and measurement should be done at both team and individual levels (Zigon, 1998). Team-based measurements should be supplemented with individual measurements on behaviours that support team goals (Sahl, 1998; Zigon, 1997). This also has implications in terms of a reward system which recognises the importance of cooperation and team outputs as well as differences in individual performance (Barnard, 1998). According to Conger, Lawler and Finegold (1998), certain group effectiveness issues cannot be addressed without evaluating the individual members.

The input variables at group level are dealt with in more detail in the next section. This is followed by a discussion on studies of group processes divided into maintenance behaviours and task behaviours. Inputs at group and organisational levels serve as mediator and moderator variables in these studies while outputs are usually defined as the dependent variables. A number of the studies discussed here made use of student samples, notably business students at undergraduate and graduate levels (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Brandstätter & Farthofer, 1997; Dirks, 1999; Niederman & DeSanctis, 1995; Schminke & Wells, 1999; Watson, Johnson & Merritt, 1998). Organisational samples ranged from manufacturing companies to high-technology firms and also included public service institutions and financial companies. Keck (1997) worked with both cement manufacturers and microcomputer firms in a study on team diversity (74 companies in total). Private as well as government-sponsored research and development organisations in the fields of electronics, chemistry and mechanical

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engineering were included in the study by Kim et al. (1999) (6 organisations in total). The majority of the organisational studies focused on managers and top management teams. When considering the role of cultural diversity, studies included companies and participants from more than one country (Earley, 1999; Knight et al., 1999) and even as many as 34 countries in the case of Elron's (1997) study.

The number of participants varied, for example, the 36 students divided into four samples of three 3-person groups in the study by Brandstätter and Farthofer (1997) versus the 503 research and development professionals from 87 project teams used by Kim et al. (1999). Salk and Brannen (2000) report findings from their work with a single multinational management team. Studies were usually based on small groups of 3 to 9 members, although the teams ranged between 4 and 19 members in the study by West and Anderson (1996). Intact groups as well as randomly formed groups are reported on.

Dirks (1999) comments on the possible inflation of correlations when self-report surveys are used to collect data. This relates to the common source bias referred to by Elron (1997) when collecting data on the different variables from the same subjects. Information in the various studies was collected on variables such as organisational practices, demographics, personality traits, managerial practices, task characteristics, group processes (including maintenance and task behaviours), rated team performance, hard performance measures, satisfaction with the team and job satisfaction. In many of the studies, the group was used as the unit of analysis and individual scores were aggregated to the group level. According to West and Anderson (1996), one first need to demonstrate agreement between members in terms of their ratings. Paper-based measures as well as computer simulations were used in the data collection and some of the authors report effects over time (eg. Keck, 1997; Schminke & Wells, 1999; Watson et al., 1998). Natural work teams as well as experimental groups were studied and McLeod, Liker and Lobel (1992) used groups that had a life before and after the experiment.

4.1   GROUP STRUCTURE AND COMPOSITION

Group structure refers to the patterns and relationships in the group - the way in which the parts of a group (individual members, units, roles, etc.) are arranged and the way in which the

parts relate to one another and to the group as a whole (Luft, 1984). The structure of the group changes as it moves through stages of development. When considering the structure of a group, its composition is of obvious importance. The purpose of the group determines whether a more homogeneous or heterogeneous group is preferable. McDougall and Beattie (1995), for example, included members with a range of learning styles and team types as well as from different organisations in groups where the aim was to enhance members' learning. Lewis (1999) refers to the use of personality profiling to include people with different ways of thinking in a team because different thought patterns complement one another in creating optimal designs and solutions. Heterogeneous membership has the advantage of diverse abilities, information, skills and knowledge, but diversity in terms of, say, demographics, could result in more conflict. Group homogeneity, on the other hand, has been shown to be correlated to groupthink (premature consensus) (McCauley, 1998).

The purpose of the group also determines the most advantageous size (note that a group is defined as two or more persons). Luft (1984) refers to a five-person group as an optimal size in terms of cohesion and moral, Cilliers and Koortzen (1997) indicate that smaller groups are better at using input productively (i.e. coordinating and implementing a decision), while Gist, Locke and Taylor (1987) suggest that a large task be subdivided and portions assigned to several groups in order to minimise the potential for process losses from a large group. Large groups (12+), on the other hand, are good for gaining diverse input and Phillips and Phillips (1993) suggest that groups of 7 to 15 members provides for consensus decisions as well as diversity of perspectives. There seems to be agreement that an odd number is preferable. McCauley (1998) explains how ineffective decision making occurs in both small and relatively large groups. Personal attraction is more likely as a source of cohesion in small groups which, in turn, could result in groupthink or premature decision making. With increased size there could be an increasing disproportion of contributions and thus not a full exchange of relevant information and an averaging away of individual biases (requirements for high-quality decision making). McCauley (1998) refers to results that showed that high-cohesion conditions were more likely than low-cohesion conditions to produce poor decisions when group size was relatively large. Groups should have sufficient but not more than sufficient members to perform the group task. Based on this, West and Anderson (1996) expected between 6 and 10 members to be an ideal size in terms of innovation (smaller groups

lacking sufficient diversity of perspectives and larger groups being less effective in interaction, exchange and participation). This hypothesis was, however, not supported in the specific study of West and Anderson (1996).

Group task serves as a moderator variable both in the relationship between group diversity and performance and between group size and performance (Dirks, 1999). The impact of group processes on the group's performance and member satisfaction is also moderated by the group's tasks. Complex tasks require discussion among members and the consideration of alternatives, whereas simple routine tasks, imply the use of standardised procedures. Tasks may furthermore require interdependence and therefore effective interaction, that is, effective communication and conflict resolution. Group processes are therefore important in tasks with higher uncertainty making smaller more homogeneous groups an advantage. However, these tasks also require diverse inputs which, in turn, is an advantage of bigger more diverse groups. According to Zajas (1994), the ability of the group to achieve its mission depends largely on the integration of member and group meta-goals.

Team tenure also needs to be considered. Variation in team tenure, that is, changes in the team members, could lead to lower communication on account of differences between members. This type of fluctuation can be distinguished from the mean tenure of the team (Keck, 1997). It takes a few months for a new team to become productive because roles, norms and cohesion need to develop and team members have to absorb the information required to perform the task. Productivity increases once these aspects have been established, but the longer the team tenure the more the members' thinking and behaviour patterns converge while communication with the outside environment lessens. Keck (1997) found longer mean tenure to be negatively related to performance in turbulent environments that require the team to respond more openly and to generate and consider new or unusual alternatives.

Structural arrangements in terms of channels open for communication are shaped by and, in turn, impact on the leadership of the group. Centralised networks (such as a wheel with communication going through the person in the centre) function best when dealing with simple problems while decentralised structures (such as the circle where no one person has greater access to information than any other person) are more effective when dealing with

complex problems.

Group roles are another important structural variable and refer to the functions, responsibilities and tasks assumed by group members (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997; Zajas, 1994). An example is leadership roles which include formal leadership (a characteristic of work groups). Roles refer to the set of expected behaviour patterns associated with someone occupying a given position in the group. Roles are imposed by the context as well as the role expectations of others and the role perceptions of the person in the position. The personality of a member may fit the role to various degrees. Personality also to some extent determines with what type of group structure an individual is comfortable. Role conflict emanates from the fact that members usually function in various contexts, implying various roles. Functional roles refer to task-oriented activities while another set of roles is used to describe group building and group maintenance activities. Roles might change if the composition of the group changes and also in accordance with clarification and changes in terms of the group's goals. Members should be empowered to assume roles that are meaningful, relevant and supportive of individual and team goals. Another member variable is status (formal or informal) which refers to a socially defined position given to the group or to group members by others (whereas power refers to the capacity of a member to influence others as well as the course of events in the group).

Group norms serve as guidelines for behaviour and provide order and predictability to the functioning of the group. The group norms are the acceptable standards of behaviour shared by group members. These are initially more implicit, but as the group members agree upon the norms and accept them, the norms influence behaviour with a minimum of external controls. According to Zajas (1994), members of effective groups comply with expected norms out of an internal desire to belong to the group and be accepted by its members. The group's influence in terms of acceptance of the common set of beliefs (social reality) and the normative expectations (group standards) by its members is therefore related to the group's cohesiveness (Cartwright & Zander, 1968). Conformity refers to the members' acceptance of the group norms. Most norms are informal but could be formalised as rules and procedures. Rules and norms that become rituals or traditions could be followed without consideration for the purpose of the groups. An established group imposes these traditions on individual

members and the leader's influence is in accordance with the group's traditions. According to Luft (1984), such rituals and traditions serve to alleviate anxiety.

Cohesiveness is the degree to which members are attracted to one another and are motivated to stay in the group (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997). It implies that members are motivated to work towards the group's objectives. Group cohesion is a sense of togetherness, or community in a group. Members share a feeling of belongingness. This stage is typically reached after the group has struggled with conflict, shared pain and is committed to taking risks. According to Cartwright and Zander (1968), cohesiveness is related to the dynamic nature of groups. It is determined by the combination of forces that motivates members to move into a group, to leave or resist leaving a group, or to encounter resistance in attempting to cross the group's boundary of membership. Cilliers and Koortzen (1997) list determinants of cohesiveness as time spent together, severity of initiation, group size, the gender of members, external threats and previous success. High cohesiveness is both the cause and outcome of high productivity, but the relationship is moderated by performance-related norms. Cohesion has negative implications when it is a source of groupthink or premature consensus (McCauley, 1998).

4.2   STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Luft (1984) reports a number of different constructions of the stages of group development based on empirical studies. Wheelan (1994) discusses a number of models of group development that include reference to group processes as well as group dynamics. Trends and commonalities were present in the different studies referred to by Luft (1984), but variations were also noted on the basis of differences in group populations, purposes and contexts. Wheelan (1994) also mentions considerable overlap between the models with differences related to the task of the group (experiential learning and therapy groups versus task groups). Tuckman (1965 in Bottom & Baloff, 1994) constructed a four-stage model of group development that includes forming, storming, norming and performing. This model provides a framework that corresponds with a number of other models (e.g. the stages in the development of a therapeutic model as described by Corey & Corey, 1997, and the stages in the integrative model of group development suggested by Wheelan, 1994). However, the

model has also been questioned because the developmental patterns of groups may vary widely and it may also be inappropriate in some cases to speak of group development, since this presupposes an orderly progression. Such an opposing point of view is briefly discussed at the end of this section. The model is nevertheless valuable in providing a framework for clarifying group functioning such as indicating the early period in a group's existence as fundamental, since this is the time when critical norms develop. It is also acknowledged that groups do not necessarily progress through each of these stages in a sequential manner (Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998). Each stage may occur many times during a group's existence. The group needs to be able to function in the most appropriate stage for the task. Tuckman and Jensen (1977 in Wheelan, 1994) added an additional stage for certain groups, namely the adjourning stage.

There are a number of issues related to the structure of the group that should be considered when composing a group, that is, before the first group meeting takes place (Corey & Corey, 1997) . In addition to issues that have already been mentioned in the previous section (such as composition of the group and group size), the frequency and duration of meetings, the length of the group life, the place for meetings (with a view to privacy), and whether it would be an open (implying changing membership) or a closed group are also important. An initial meeting between the group leader and potential members helps to clarify the expectations, responsibilities and rights of both parties.

The central activity during the forming or initial stage of a group is orientation and exploration. According to Burns (1995), the process that dominates this stage is one of inclusion, and in terms of behaviour, it is characterised by self-oriented behaviour. There is uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure and leadership. Members need direction and look to the leader for it. If the direction is not seen as sufficient, the ambiguity of the situation could result in high levels of uncertainty. A climate of trust has not yet been established and members are unsure about what type of behaviours are acceptable and might show resistance against, amongst other things, self-disclosure - hence the reliance on the leader for direction.

Some work is done during this stage to establish group and individual goals and also to establish norms (implicitly and explicitly stated) (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997; Corey & Corey,

1997). This refers to what is appropriate and inappropriate, that is, the shared beliefs about expected behaviours aimed at making the group function effectively. Members start thinking of themselves as part of a group and the foundations of a sense of cohesiveness are established (although this still needs to be developed as the group members deal with conflict, share with each other and are committed to taking risks). The amount and type of structuring provided by the group leader depend on his or her theoretical orientation and factors such as the type of group and the membership population. There should be a balance between a focus on the task (or topic) and attention to group process concerns. A framework should be provided for members to understand the experiences of individuals and the group processes. During the initial stage, leader direction that facilitates the establishment of goals and norms and the development of cohesion, helps members to deal with the initial confusion and uncertainty. There should nevertheless be sufficient opportunity for members to start accepting responsibility for the group processes, implying a less active role for the leader.

The storming stage (also referred to as the transition stage by Corey & Corey, 1997) is characterised by a struggle for control. Burns (1995) regards it as being dominated by control and to a large extent self-oriented behaviour. There are conflicts and differences of opinions about the group work, that is, about group functioning, goals and tactics (Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998), which reflect underlying issues on power. Members are reluctant to explore deeper issues and although they accept the existence of the group, they resist the constraints that this places on their individuality. Intragroup conflict and conflict over control of the group emerge as members do not want to have too much or too little responsibility. They give away their personal power by viewing the group leader as the expert who provides advice, direction and solutions, the leader who has the power to make members feel judged, inferior and intimidated, or as a superperson who is infallible. (The leader could also be regarded as a friend, which is unrealistic because this implies a social relationship.)

Not only shared beliefs and values should be explored during this stage, but the leader should also encourage exploration of individual beliefs and values. The group leader should manage conflict (not avoid it), confront members when necessary (there should be a balance between support and challenge), and deal with resistance and challenges to himself or herself in a nondefensive manner (Corey & Corey, 1997). At the end of this stage there is a relatively

clear hierarchy of leadership in the group. Members should nonetheless be aware of their own responsibility and power in terms of intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning in the group. In addition to the influence of the leader-member relationships on the group's functioning, the quality of interpersonal relationships between members is also important. The interaction is influenced by the leader through creation of interpersonal norms.

The foundations of the next stage, norming, have already been laid in the initial stage. The conflict and struggle in the storming stage, however, create a greater sense of trust and cohesiveness (provided that the conflict has been satisfactorily resolved). Members had to express conflict openly, establish ways to solve problems, and learn to work cooperatively. Wheelan (1994) refers to this third stage as one of trust and structure. Goals and norms are now explicitly stated and it should be understood and accepted by all. Norming refers to the establishment of standards of appropriate behaviour to provide order and meaning and reduce uncertainty in an otherwise threatening situation (Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998). Cohesiveness requires that members perceive the group as a means to helping them to also achieve their personal goals. Close relationships are formed and there is a sense of group togetherness. Affection characterises the norming stage as well as the next stage, namely the working stage, and maintenance behaviours are observed (Burns, 1995). The norming stage is complete when the group structure solidifies and the group has a shared set of expectations of what defines correct member behaviour. Once basic norms have been established, less structure is expected from the leader.

The performing or working stage of the group refers to a fully functioning group and represents behaviours directed at task accomplishment (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997; Corey & Corey, 1997). Members are more aware of the group processes. Regardless of the type of group, members trust one another more during this stage, communication is clear and direct, differences are discussed and resolved and diversity is encouraged. Group energy no longer needs to be focused on getting to know and understand each other. Goals are clear, there is a focus on the immediate and members are committed to performing the task at hand. Awareness of time and of utilisation of resources characterises this focus. Less structuring and intervention by the leader are required as members assume greater responsibility and even share leadership functions. Independence and confidence are encouraged.

The performing stage is the last stage for permanent work groups. If a group, however, disbands, the last stage is regarded as the adjourning stage (referred to as termination by Wheelan, 1994). The focus is no longer on the task but on integrating and evaluating experiences and giving feedback in this regard. Members have a sense of leaving and need to prepare for what is to follow. It should be noted that there is overlapping between the stages, that several stages can occur simultaneous and that the group might regress to an earlier stage.

Tuckman and Jensen (1977 in Shaw and Barrett-Power, 1998) define four key requirements of successful group activity based on these stages of group development. These are: the ability to form a cohesive social unit; the ability to manage the conflict that occurs during the storming phase; the ability to establish acceptable norms of behaviour and to set goals for the group based on successful conflict resolution; and the ability to solve problems, make decisions and take action that leads to successful performance. Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998) distinguish between group behavioural integration, which is the ability of the group to make decisions and engage in collaborative action (the first three phases), and performing which comprises activities oriented towards task achievement. Behavioural integration is a necessary but not sufficient condition for successful performance.

Given the idea that group development involves many interactive facets, the tenure of a group needs to be considered when studying groups. The study by Dirks (1999) on interpersonal trust is limited to temporary work groups while Earley (1999) refers to the difference between short- and long-term groups in terms of the importance that group members attach to status traits (probably more important in the early stages of the group). Watson et al. (1998) compared diverse and nondiverse groups at different stages of the groups' lives. Keck (1997) considered the effect of variation in team tenure and mean team tenure on financial performance in different environmental contexts, and according to Kim et al. (1999), team tenure resulted in a negative relationship with innovativeness in the case of the team builder leadership role. West and Anderson (1996), on the other hand, found no direct relationship between team tenure and innovation. These and other authors (e.g. Elron, 1997; Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998) emphasise the importance of the life period of the group and the phases of development. Interpersonal interaction and forming cohesion are vital in earlier phases

when group processes are related to issues such as team diversity and innovativeness. As the group develops, task-related issues become more significant and team diversity and conflict related to the tasks become more advantageous in terms of innovativeness and performance. An interpersonal focus and the greater cohesion associated with longer tenure have in fact been found by Keck (1997) to be negatively related to performance in turbulent environments. Niederman and DeSanctis (1995) emphasise the importance of studying groups that have an ongoing life. Harrison and Pietri (1997) focused on natural work teams which, by implication, have an ongoing life. In contrast, experimental studies usually involve teams that are formed for the sake of the study and interventions are conducted over short time periods (e.g. the three-day period used by Bottom & Baloff, 1994).

The punctuated-equilibrium model does not support the development of groups in a universal sequence of stages but states instead that the group's progress is triggered by members' awareness of time and deadlines (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997). According to this approach, the direction of the group is set during the first meeting and this remains unchallenged in the first half of the group's life which is characterised by inertia. The group stays on a fixed course of action during this phase. A transition takes place when the group has used up half of its time, at which stage there is a burst of change that results in a new direction followed by another period of inertia. During this phase, the group executes the plans set during the transition period. During the last meeting of the group all final issues are discussed and details resolved in another burst of activity aimed at finishing the work. Gersick (1988) reports support for this model based on a study of the complete life spans of eight naturally occurring teams.

4.3   GROUP PROCESSES

The functions of a group include distribution and management of work, problem solving and decision making, information collection, processing, exchange and dissemination, negotiation or conflict resolution and the overall completion of milestones and goals (Rwelamila, 1989). As indicated, there are a number of input variables (both at group and organisational level) that impact on the group's ability to perform these functions. Resultant success is, in turn, evaluated in terms of the output variables such as performance and satisfaction. The process variables, however, determine the actual behaviours of the group in performing its functions,

that is, the link between the inputs and the outputs (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999). These process variables can be divided into maintenance behaviours and task behaviours. This categorisation corresponds with the dimensions of leader behaviour identified by Bateman and Snell (1999), namely group maintenance behaviours and task performance behaviours. McLeod et al. (1992) refer to the need for a reasonable balance between socioemotional and task-oriented behaviours, although they feel that the latter should dominate.

4.3.1 Maintenance behaviours

Interpersonal relationships form the basis of the maintenance behaviours of the group (Bottom & Baloff, 1994). Methods for handling interpersonal and related issues are often dealt with in detail in a context that is more therapeutic (although the focus of therapeutic groups is not limited to interpersonal issues) (Corey & Corey, 1997). Although the cited literature on work groups refers to maintenance behaviours, the underlying processes involved are not always adequately explained. To provide a comprehensive explanation of maintenance behaviours, the following discussion is therefore not limited to literature on work groups. Care should, however, be taken in assuming that the processes would be identical in different contexts.

According to Gladstein's (in Bottom & Baloff, 1994) model, maintenance behaviours include open communication, supportiveness and dealing with conflict. West and Anderson (1996) refer to participation and conflict management which can be regarded as maintenance behaviours but they emphasise the task focus of these behaviours. The group process variable, participation, includes the sharing of perspectives and the variable, task orientation, refers to task-related team conflict and the management of competing perspectives. In their study, Kathuria and Partovi (1999) emphasise management practices. The relationship-oriented practices include team building which implies encouraging cooperation, open communication and discussion of disagreements and resolving disagreements constructively. Dirks (1999) regards coordination and helping as indicators of cooperation and McLeod et al. (1992) emphasise the importance of equal participation.

Shaw and Barret-Power (1998) refer to work groups when they emphasise the importance of

open communication, mutual supportiveness, the ability of members to coordinate flexibly and effective conflict management. These behaviours have been extensively studied in counselling groups. In a therapeutic group the purpose is to increase the group members' knowledge (of themselves, others or a topic), to help them identify the changes needed and provide them with some of the skills necessary to make these changes (Corey & Corey, 1997). The process through which this is achieved involves a cognitive level, an emotional level and behavioural dimensions. At a cognitive level, a group member should understand how certain belief systems influence the interpretation of events and be willing to change these systems, a member should identify and express feelings, and a member should focus on current behaviour and make decisions on how behaviours should be actively changed.

A range of personal and interpersonal problems are addressed in group counselling (Corey & Corey, 1997). Problems are consciously stated as they relate to the here and now and with the emphasis on specific short-term issues. Members are encouraged to establish personal goals that provide the group with direction. Information is supplied that helps the members see alternative modes of behaviour and encourages them to translate their insights into concrete action plans. The group process facilitates behaviour changes and the skills and behaviours learned in the group are transferred to other situations. Team building in an organisational context is similar in the sense that the activities and interventions are aimed at removing intra- and interpersonal obstacles so that energies are focused on the actual task (Bottom & Baloff, 1994) - hence, the concept of growth groups in organisations which resembles so-called "counselling" or "therapy groups" but with the outcome of doing the work more effectively.

An environment that also emphasises dealing with personal and interpersonal problems through awareness is that of experience-based groups. In these groups individuals learn about themselves and their impact on people and about group processes through personal discovery instead of through formal instruction (Cooper, 1979). These groups are usually small (between 5 and 15 members) to ensure that everyone can interact easily, of a relatively short duration, and with the designated leader assuming a relatively passive role expressing interest not in what the group does but in how it is done. The purpose of experience-based groups is to study group processes and these groups are not content-oriented. The focus is primarily but

not exclusively on the here and now (Smith, 1980). The aim is cognitive change although behavioural and/or attitudinal change also take place. Personal goals related to intra- and interpersonal change are not prominent, but the outcome is often a value structure that is more change and growth oriented, a self-image and ideal image that become closer, and an improvement in interpersonal relationships (Luft, 1984). However, according to Smith (1980), results with regard to the persistence of these changes are not always positive.

As in the case of counselling groups, members of experience-based groups learn about group and member interaction and become more aware of ways of thinking, feeling and behaving as these relate to the processes of the group (Cooper, 1979). Awareness of alternatives is often the beginning of change. There is recognition of the need for new procedures and norms (other than those which came to be expected through past experience) in a setting that requires a degree of openness and trust appropriate to the task of learning. Members are enabled to express differences and commonalities. Conflicts are resolved and differences integrated and this leads to greater cohesiveness - group development affects members and each individual member influences group development. The purpose of experience-based groups is therefore to learn about both individuals and groups. Transfer of training to other settings seems to require a combination of explicit knowledge of group processes and experiential learning.

A sense of cohesiveness starts to develop during the initial phase(s) of a group but learning to share with each other, take risks and deal with conflict constructively leads to a greater sense of trust and cohesiveness (Dirks, 1999). Trust can be regarded as a willingness to be vulnerable based on the expectation that the other (or others) will act in a certain manner (perform a particular action) irrespective of whether the trustor monitors or controls the other (or others). Insight into an individual's disposition and motives provides the basis for trust resulting in a belief about future behaviour. It can be operationalised in a number of ways, for example, as a believe that the other is dependable, cares for one's/the group's interests, is competent and will act with integrity.

Interpersonal trust increases the ability of people to work together and is thus expected to affect group performance (in terms of effectiveness and efficiency). Dirks (1999) suggested

that behavioural processes would carry the relationship between trust and group performance. The author proposed that the relationship between trust and work group performance would be mediated by three group processes, namely cooperation, decision making and effort. However, no direct relationship between trust and group processes or group performance was evident when hard measures of group performance were used and group processes were expressed in terms of a behavioural rating scale completed by external judges.

When using self-reports of task motivation as an independent variable, a moderator role for trust emerged in the sense that interpersonal trust facilitated the relationship between motivation and group processes and performance. With high levels of motivation, high trust groups showed high coordination and direction of effort towards group goals. The opposite was true of the low trust groups (with a tendency towards individual effort and goals). Motivation furthermore had significant positive effects on group performance in high trust groups with no effect in low trust groups. Dirks (1999) suggests that motivation provides energy for production and trust helps channel the energy towards collective goals. Of significance, however, is the fact that this study was limited to temporary work groups.

Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998) refer to the importance of social interaction and attraction to cohesiveness during the initial phases. (Note that Dirks, 1999, regards relational variables such as trust, cohesion, friendship and familiarity as distinct in the group context.) Elron (1997) also deals with factors that affect social cohesion during the early phases of a group, while Knight et al. (1999) acknowledge the interpersonal nature of cohesion by referring to it as the inverse of interpersonal conflict. Kim et al. (1999) refer to the importance of the team building leadership role in their work on innovation in teams. They state that cohesiveness and a positive climate should be facilitated to stimulate individual creativity which, in turn, leads to high performance. Schminke and Wells (1999) distinguish between two independent dimensions of ethical reasoning, namely the formalist approach (a set of rules or principles guides behaviour) and the utilitarian approach (the outcomes or consequences of actions, instead of the actions themselves, should be ethical). They found that belonging to a group influences the ethical frameworks of the individual members. More specifically, both group cohesiveness and group performance (measured by means of objective criteria) were positively related to changes in utilitarianism of team members. The relationship with

cohesiveness is explained in terms of ethical behaviour having a social consensus dimension and therefore being influenced by interpersonal influences and group norms. An increase in cohesiveness implies increased interaction and communication and could also lead to increased conformity. The authors suggest that the relationship with performance is probably interdependent.

McCauley (1998) suggests that there are multiple sources of cohesion. Although social cohesion has been shown to be positively related to perceived team performance (Elron, 1997), McCauley (1998) regards cohesion based on personal attraction as the primary source of groupthink. Groupthink refers to premature consensus that could lead to ineffective decision making and lowered decision quality. This is explained in terms of the social reality value of the group. McCauley (1998) describes cohesion (or attraction to the group) as the sum of the value of group goals and the social reality value of the group. Group pressure to achieve uniformity is partly based on the fact that some level of group consensus is necessary for a group to be effective in realising its goals. The group, however, is also a source of social reality. The social reality value of the group implies that agreement with others answers questions about values, including one's own value, and thus provides meaning and reduces uncertainty. This leads to internalisation of group influence towards uniformity rather than mere compliance (public acceptance thereof) which does not lessen the stress of uncertainty. However, compliance pressure could also be present.

McCauley (1998) regards uncertainty as central to explaining groupthink. Uncertainty causes anxiety and leads to pressure for forming and maintaining consensus which is then often premature. Decision uncertainty characterises the antecedents of groupthink (which combined with high cohesion make groupthink likely) and bolstered decision certainty is found in the symptoms of groupthink. A frank evaluation of decision alternatives could interfere with personal attractiveness. Avoidance of personal unpleasantness thus also leads to groupthink in addition to avoidance of uncertainty. A longer-term influence of cohesion based on personal attraction is suggested by the proposed negative relationship between group tenure and innovativeness (Keck, 1997; Kim et al., 1999; West & Anderson, 1996). Internal and external communication seems to lessen with an increase in team tenure, and groups also appear to become more homogeneous. (Note that the suggestions by McCauley, 1998, imply

a reconstruction of Janis's groupthink theory which regards self-esteem as the common denominator of both the antecedents and the symptoms of groupthink and which emphasises personal attraction as source of cohesion.)

At an interpersonal level, the group leader should ensure open communication and free flow of information in an environment that is caring and in which individuals assist others to solve problems and resolve conflict (Rohlander, 1999). There should be a focus on the quality of an idea and not on the individual sharing the idea and feedback on ideas, attitudes, activities and results should be honest and prompt. Although open communication is basic to group development, an appropriate structure is needed to channel and limit communication to meet relevant socioemotional and task needs. In task communication (task-related group processes) energy is directed towards task problems, assembling relevant information, and making decisions. The activity is primarily cognitive and relies on organisational structure and rules to help maintain focus. Although the structure frees members to get on with their work, it needs to be relevant to the feelings and attitudes of the people interacting. Communication at an interpersonal level refers to the here and now, it is emotional and less rational and involves listening to the content rather than focusing on interpretation. It is supplementary to the work of the group but is nevertheless present in all interactions. It contributes to feelings of cohesiveness while acknowledging each member's individuality and the value of individual contributions.

Supportiveness is another maintenance behaviour and Watson et al. (1998) regard it as essential to quality in group decision making that members understand and manage their interdependence. This implies a balance between dependence, independence and interdependence (Luft, 1984). This is achieved through the setting of procedures, standards and values appropriate to the group goals and the membership resources. Differences need to be resolved so that cooperation and collaboration are optimal while independence of judgement and of action is also maximised. Feedback on interpersonal processes and team performance forms part of this process.

Constructive resolution of conflict is based on the development of implicit rules and values regarding the expression of differences and dissent. Awareness of feelings (own feelings and

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those of others), opportunities to air real differences and acknowledgement and understanding of these differences are important. Value should also be given to sustaining relationships. To develop team membership and team work it is necessary to resolve conflict between members constructively and to foster an environment of mutual trust in which members are willing to share different ideas, information, experiences and perspectives (Kim et al., 1999).

Luft (1984) suggests a number of models that could serve as a theoretical base for understanding interpersonal relationships. The Johari window deals with awareness in interpersonal relationships and serves to illustrate both awareness of individual behaviour and feelings as well as intergroup relationships. The model is essentially content free and only describes states of awareness and consciousness. The Zucchini connection provides a model that illustrates how interpersonal perceptions (including one's self-image, another's image and reality) are built into relationships. Each person's perception of another consists of components organised into a coherent whole according to principles that are relatively constant and a psychological function of the individual's personality. Other examples include the circumplex model which emphasises psychological security and the reduction of anxiety, Bales's interaction process analysis, which deals with interaction categories grouped into task and socioemotional areas, and the bumblebee hypothesis which refers to multiple group membership and the internalisation by the individual of norms, values and role patterns from diverse groups that influence current behaviour.

Bottom and Baloff (1994) found that team-building interventions aimed at maintenance behaviours were successful in improving group satisfaction with team performance (i.e. perceived performance) through the improvement of various aspects of group processes. However, no significant relationship was evident with actual team performance. Bailey (2000) also reports variables internal to the team to be more predictive of satisfaction while external variables are found to be more predictive of productivity.

4.3.2   Task behaviours

Harrison and Pietri (1997) suggest a problem-solving/action-planning process for teams that involves the identification of a problem, analyses of the problem (including identification of

causes), development of solutions and consensus on preferred solutions, preparation of an action plan to address the problem, and consensus on scheduling and assignment of responsibilities to carry out the action plan. According to Gladstein's (in Bottom & Baloff, 1994) model, task behaviours include discussion of strategy, weighting of individual inputs and boundary management. Shaw and Barret-Power (1998) and West and Anderson (1996) also refer to clarity of and commitment to group goals to direct and motivate members.

McCauley (1998) emphasises that good decision making requires a full information search. In a systematic search, all possible courses of action are identified. Alternatives should then be evaluated in an unbiased manner with due consideration of all the relevant information. Keck (1997) refers to the problem-solving processes of environmental scanning, alternative generation and selection among choices. According to West and Anderson (1996), constructive controversy in groups improves the quality of decision making because it is characterised by full exploration of opposing opinions and comprehensive and open analysis of task-related issues. They regard it as important to constructive controversy that decision makers believe that they are in a cooperative group context with processes of mutual influence. According to Dirks (1999), cooperation is linked to task performance strategies and decision-making processes are related to the relevant knowledge being used for the task. Indicators of decision-making processes are diagnosing performance, expressing ideas and committing to a decision. Dirks (1999) also identifies a further group process, namely effort in terms of intensity and direction. Knicely (1996) refers to consensus and members taking ownership of team decisions. Niederman and DeSanctis (1995) use Cowan's model as the basis for identifying two complementary processes regarded as critical to decision making that results in successful problem formulation, namely information search and equivocality reduction (implying the formation of consensus). They found that, regardless of the technique used for structuring problem formulation (e.g. group process, problem decomposition, multiple models and argumentation), higher levels of information search and equivocality during problem formulation resulted in higher levels of coverage of critical issues in and consensus on the problem definition (both regarded as outcome measures). Premature consensus could, however, result in defective decision making the symptoms of which are poor information search, selective bias in processing information, incomplete survey of objectives, incomplete survey of alternatives, failure to re-examine preferred choice, failure

to re-examine rejected alternatives and failure to develop contingency plans.

Niederman and DeSanctis (1995) expected that a structured argument approach would be more effective for problem formulation in a group setting than a group process approach. A group process technique (such as brainstorming, nominal group technique or consensus approach) emphasises equal participation by group members, consideration of all ideas and preferences and thus the identification of multiple views of a problem. The creative benefits of a group should be utilised while trying to lessen the process losses associated with group interaction. Information search and equivocality reduction are achieved through private idea generation preceding public sharing and evaluation of ideas, that is, divergent thinking prior to convergence. However, this process is low in structure and it is not generally specified how individual ideas are generated and group ideas extracted.

They compared this approach with a procedure which adds an argumentation approach to the group process and is therefore relatively high in structure. In the structured argument approach, three strategies (involving casual reasoning, case-based reasoning and categorical reasoning) were specified according to which the problem should be analysed and ideas generated during the information search. Equivocality reduction involves private evaluation and discussion of the evaluations as they relate to each cause, case or categorical argument. The structured argument groups formed more information search and equivocality reduction statements during problem formulation but the differences between the two procedures were not significant. The combined score on the problem formulation outcomes, namely coverage of critical issues and consensus on the problem definition, were higher for the structured argument approach. Although the structured argument groups did not perceive their problem formulation to be of higher quality, they were more satisfied with the problem definition and also expressed a stronger intention to implement the problem formulation.

Underlying the process of making decisions in a group is the assumption that cohesion is important and will impact on the processes and the outcomes (although one should note that cohesion can also be defined as an outcome of group processes). For example, coming up with the best quality decision is only one of the possible goals of group decision making, and it also produces more satisfaction with and commitment to the decision for participating group

members. Harrison and Pietri (1997) see the process of team building as a participative process that requires the team leader to involve team members in problem solving and decision making and consensus is required in each step of the problem-solving/action-planning process. They define team building as a systematic effort by team members to assess the effectiveness of their interaction, identify mutual problems and work together to solve those problems. The emphasis is thus more on team issues (including leadership practices). West and Anderson (1996) also emphasise the importance of participation by group members to ensure commitment and thus group effectiveness. In their reference to work force management practices, Kathuria and Partovi (1999) include participative leadership and delegation practices (such as consulting and delegating) as a separate category in addition to relationship-oriented and work-oriented practices. Delegating implies that subordinates are allowed to assume responsibility and have the authority to make decisions and determine the best way to perform activities. They regard this type of leadership as especially important in the case of challenging tasks (a contingency variable) associated with a high emphasis on flexibility.

By using the team-building approach involving natural work teams and their supervisors/managers, Harrison and Pietri (1997) showed that repeated practice of this involvement approach leads to a change in leadership style (more participative), open and cohesive teams and a change in organisational culture with greater willingness to openly discuss management practices, communication that is perceived as more positive and an improvement in feedback, as well as increasing involvement of lower-level managers in decision making. Organisational culture has been defined as a pattern of beliefs and expectations (including philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, expectations, attitudes and norms) which is shared by members of an organisation and which determines what is appropriate and required behaviour.

Bottom and Baloff (1994) define team building as interventions targeting specific aspects of group process to improve the group's process. Team building is therefore only appropriate if problems are experienced at the process level, and in this case, specific process issues that are problematic need to be diagnosed in order to choose appropriate team-building interventions. In other words, interventions need to be tailored to the specific needs of teams (their study

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looked specifically at maintenance behaviours and thus more at the interpersonal component of cohesion). Bottom and Baloff (1994) state that team building will be ineffective in improving team effectiveness if problems are caused by the input variables rather than the group process, and if the information-processing demands of the task can be met effectively by group members acting independently (group process is less important to group performance). The input variables and the task thus serve as boundary conditions for team building. (West & Anderson, 1996, regard group task complexity as an input variable under group composition rather than as a mediator variable.) Differential diagnoses of input, process and output variables and providing for the group task as mediator, are necessary before deciding whether team building is appropriate, and in designing interventions.

Feedback on performance as a process intervention has been shown to increase group cohesiveness and members' satisfaction but not task performance. McLeod et al. (1992), however, found little support for the role of feedback and resultant goals on interpersonal behaviours, group member satisfaction or task performance when implementing interpersonal group process feedback. They suggest that personality and social norms could have placed some constraints on the goals being set. Locke and Latham (1992) suggest that process should be combined with content (i.e. group knowledge and skill and the utilisation thereof by the group.) Furthermore, one should not focus only on group goals but also consider personal goals, goal commitment and self-efficacy.

Whereas Harrison and Pietri (1997) used team building to change organisational culture, Koze and Masciale (1993) refer to organisational and individual factors that limit team performance, and Bottom and Baloff (1994) provide for the effect of input variables (at group and organisational level) on the group process (and thus indirectly on group effectiveness) and also for the direct effect on group effectiveness. Coppersmith and Grubbs (1998) emphasise the costs in terms of the time and money involved in developing high-performing teams, the changes required of workers and the management of the processes of team development. These authors identify factors at organisational and individual levels which affect performance negatively, whereas Kline, MacLeod and McGrath (1996) report that factors that most hinder team performance are outside the team while factors internal to the team are more predictive of satisfaction.

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Organisational barriers to team performance include information systems that are not easily accessible by the team, a lack of top management's commitment to the concept of teams and organisational alignment that fosters internal competition. Issues relating to individuals and teams that negatively affect team performance, include members' unwillingness to give up position and power as well as past practices, that is, workers might find it easier to continue working in their conventional manner, and creativity and empowerment might not be in line with the expectations workers have of their role in the organisation. Team membership could also clash with or challenge an individual's own personal beliefs. Other issues are team members who lack the ability, knowledge or skill to contribute to the group, and teams that do not have the experience and information required for a decision-making process. According to Coppersmith and Grubbs (1998), management should model the change in working structure and although they need to be involved in the paradigm shift (both in preparation and continued support), the process should also reflect the empowerment which is its aim through worker involvement. Koze and Masciale (1993) argue for an approach that includes commitment by top management to breaking down departmental and functional barriers and limiting internal competition and less emphasis on individual performance with rewards/compensations directed at team performance (thus providing an incentive to function as a team player). Diversity of opinion, experience and expertise are thus maximised and the information system should support independent achievement by teams.

McCauley (1998) provides for both an interpersonal component of cohesion and the value of group goals. Some level of group consensus is necessary for a group to be effective in achieving its goals, but cohesion that results from personal attraction could lead to groupthink or premature consensus and defective decision making. However, cohesion resulting from other sources such as task commitment and group pride, could possibly be linked to higher quality decisions (rather than to groupthink). Burns (1995) reports that effective teams tend to experience conflict related to tasks while ineffective teams experience more personal conflict. Schminke and Wells (1999) refer to the importance of high performance norms in the relationship between high cohesiveness and high performance (low performance norms might lead to lower performance if cohesiveness is high). Knight et al. (1999) found that when the group process of agreement seeking involved task related issues, it was positively related to the outcome of strategic consensus. West and Anderson (1996) indicated that the

group process variable of task orientation (involving divergent thinking and task-related conflict or constructive controversy) had a relationship with team effectiveness. Task orientation implies consideration and evaluation of alternative interpretations of the information available and constructive challenges to the group's objectives, strategies, processes and performance.

A possible discrepancy between a comprehensive evaluation of decision alternatives and personal attractiveness is indicated by McCauley (1998). Elron (1997) found support for this in a positive relationship between issue-based conflict and organisational performance, whereas issue-based conflict was negatively related to team performance as perceived by team members. Jehn and Chatman (2000), however, found both performance and satisfaction to be related to high levels of task-related conflict compared to relationship conflict. Conflict resolution should probably focus at both interpersonal and task levels as seen in Reynolds's (1998) suggestion of individual mediations as well as training of team members in collaborative conflict resolution. The value of social cohesion during the initial phases of the group has been referred to while a greater focus on task issues is seen as the group develops. For example, Shaw and Barrett-Power's (1998) emphasis on differences in cognitive structures and its effect on conflict management and the establishment of norms during the storming and norming phases. Kim et al. (1999) refer to the possible negative effect of team tenure in relation to performance by research and development teams when the leader assumes a role as team builder (implying the presence of group maintenance behaviours).

Group decision support systems (GDSS) (also referred to as group support systems [GSS], electronic meeting systems [EMS] or electronic brainstorming [EBS]) imply the use of networks to facilitate group processing. Hardware, software and network technology are combined in a variety of configurations and the system is either installed in a conference room or group members take part from different locations. These systems provide an automated means to gather, record and act on ideas during meetings. The way in which the group members interpret information or choose to reach convergence, however, is not prespecified (although Teegarden, 1995, comments on the use of such systems to provide structure when teams are confronted with complex unstructured decision tasks). GDSS, for example, were used in both the relatively unstructured group process approach and the structured argument

approach in the study by Niederman and DeSanctis (1995).

GDSS are used by teams to support rational problems solving but not so much to deal with emotional issues. These systems could nevertheless be used to overcome group process problems and to minimise undesirable characteristics of group processes such as decisions biased by the presence of influential members, lack of anonymity, miscommunication, interpersonal conflict and groupthink (Aiken, Hawley, Sloan & Min, 1994/95; Teegarden, 1995; Townsend, Whitman & Hendrickson, 1995.) The use of these systems is seen to lead to more extensive and more accurate information and to enable teams to gather and explore multiple viewpoints because they facilitate full participation and conflict management. Enhanced meeting efficiency (including more efficient communication) and group effectiveness (especially in terms of an increase in productivity) have been reported (Aiken et al. 1994/95; Jackson, Aiken, Vanjani & Hasan, 1995; Karan, Kerr, Murthy & Vinze, 1996; Niederman, Beise & Beranek, 1996; Reinig, Briggs, Shepherd, Yen & Nunamaker, 1995/96; Teegarden, 1995), while results on perceived satisfaction with the group process were mixed. Reinig et al. (1995/96) report a loss of the affective reward often associated with a challenging meeting that is dealt with successfully. Improved performance using GDSS appears to be contingent on factors such as task, group size and the manner in which the technology is used. Jackson et al. (1995) report success for meetings of more than seven people and Hwang and Guynes (1994) found an improvement in decision quality in large computer-supported groups when comparing groups of three versus groups of nine members. Kahai et al. (1997) refer to the role of the leader and the moderating role of the task in an EMS context. Productivity and satisfaction are increased during anonymous generation of ideas for a moderately structured problem with a participative style and for a fairly structured problem with a directive style. Support (in terms of the technology and group process facilitation) and training of users are also important. Facilitation of groups relates to group cohesion and interaction processes but in combination with GDSS some effects on performance are expected (Phillips & Phillips, 1993).

4.3.3   Diversity in teams and team innovation

Global business highlights the importance of multinational corporations (Elron, 1997).

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However, not only do companies extend their operations to new countries, but there is also an increase in what Watson et al. (1998) refer to as domestic multiculturalism. Diversity in companies also refers to cross-functional, interdepartmental and even interorganisational cooperation. In this complex environment, teams and teamwork are regarded as critical for problem solving and decision making. Group heterogeneity is also one of the factors that influences team innovation. Research and development activities and related technological innovations are needed to acquire and sustain a competitive advantage in the global market (Kim et al., 1999). West and Anderson (1996) refer to the influential role of top management in implementing or preventing innovation. The study by Kim et al. (1999) showed that the management systems and practices based on studies in advanced countries are (with some exceptions) applicable to developing countries where the limited resources for indigenous technology development activities mean that effective management of research and development activities is crucial.

4.3.3.1   Diversity in teams

Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998) combine the concepts of team and diversity in a model to explain the impact of within-group diversity on small work group processes and performance. They suggest that the mixed effect of diversity on team performance that has been reported can be explained by relating this effect to the phases of group development and the activities involved in each of these phases. The model suggests that diversity in terms of readily detectable attributes (such as age, gender and race) is strongly and negatively correlated with the group-forming process (and thus indirectly with the storming and norming phases). Overcoming and dealing with bias lead to higher cognitive costs of interaction and reduce the rewards of these interactions. This results in less social interaction and attraction and consequently less cohesiveness.

Underlying attributes such as cultural values and perspectives, attitudes, values and beliefs as well as conflict resolution styles are related to readily detectable attributes, while this relationship is less clear in the case of underlying attributes such as socioeconomic and personal status, education, past work experiences and personal expectations. According to Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998), these underlying attributes affect the group development

process through cognitive paradigm dissimilarity, that is, the different cognitive structures that individuals bring to the situation. So even if the group effectively forms a cohesive unit, conflict management during the storming phase may be affected by different perceptions of what conflict means and how it should be dealt with. Similarly, developing group norms may be difficult because of different perceptions of what acceptable behaviour in a group means.

Sohoran (1993) supported the differential effect of diversity over time and these hypotheses also formed the basis of the studies by Knight et al. (1999) and Elron (1997) on the effects of diversity in top management teams. Knight et al. (1999) refer to group cohesiveness as the inverse of interpersonal conflict. They found a positive relationship between diversity and the group process variable interpersonal conflict whereas diversity was negatively related to the group process variable, agreement seeking. Elron's (1997) study did not confirm a hypothesis of a negative relationship between cultural diversity and social cohesion, but it was suggested that this relationship would only be found in earlier phases of group formation and not in long-term groups. Diversity was positively related to issue-based conflict.

Psychological and cognitive characteristics underlie demographic variables with diversity thus resulting in cognitive paradigm dissimilarity. According to Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998), this, in turn, affects group processes. Knight et al. (1999) also considered the possible mediating effect of group process variables. The demographic diversity variables of functional diversity, age, education and employment tenure (readily detectable and underlying attributes), were found to be directly related to consensus in team members' mental models of the firm's strategic orientation. With the exception of employment tenure, these relationships were negative. (Strategic consensus is the first step in the strategy formation process and a performance variable.) A better fit was, however, found for a partially mediated model including the effect of diversity on group processes (interpersonal conflict and agreement seeking), the negative relationship between the two group processes, and the positive relationship between agreement seeking and strategic consensus. Keck (1997) considered the direct effect of the structure of top management teams on financial performance. Providing for environmental conditions, some support was found for a relationship between diversity (functional diversity and fluctuation in teams) and performance in a turbulent environment. Although variation in tenure was related to performance in both

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turbulent and stable environments, these findings were not consistent across different companies.

Elron (1997) focused specifically on cultural heterogeneity in terms of the dimensions individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-femininity. Interestingly, it was the dimension of uncertainty avoidance that was related to issue-based conflict which, in turn, was negatively related to perceived team performance, whereas the dimensions of individualism-collectivism and masculinity-femininity were positively related to team performance. (Team effectiveness and performance were measured in terms of variables such as decision quality and achievement of goals.) The complexity of the effect of diversity is further illustrated by a positive relationship between issue-based conflict and organisational performance. Social cohesion was positively related to team performance.

Power distance refers to the difference in the extent to which an individual and his or her subordinate can determine the behaviour of the other. Power distance is reflected by the relative acceptability for such differentials to exist in a social environment or culture. Status is partly determined by demographic traits associated with power in a given culture (including education, age and gender). Earley (1999) found a relationship between status (member characteristics) and group processes underlying decision making with regard to group efficacy (the group's beliefs about its own capability). Power distance, however, served as moderator variable. The study involved managers from the USA and the UK (countries with a low power distance) and France and Thailand (countries with a high power distance). In high power distance cultures, the high status member's personal estimates of group efficacy were more strongly related to the group's collective judgement than the low status members' efficacy estimates. High status members' efficacy expectations also had an impact on the group's performance. In low power distance cultures, group members' estimates were similarly related to collective efficacy but results for team performance were mixed. The implication is that diversity in high power distance cultures might not be as valuable in terms of the facilitation of creative problem solving as key team members will influence the team's decision making. However, Earley (1999) acknowledges that although the tasks performed by the teams were collective and interdependent, these were short-term groups. Long-term groups probably do

not maintain a focus on primary status traits but rather value traits such as task expertise.

Watson et al. (1998) (similar to Shaw and Barrett-Power, 1998) relate the impact of diversity (specifically cultural diversity) to the dynamic and cyclical nature of group processes. Differences between diverse and nondiverse groups in terms of self-oriented and team-oriented behaviour, as well as changes in these behaviours in the two types of groups over the life period of the group, were shown to affect team performance. There should be a balance between self-orientation and team orientation - that is, between individual and subgroup expectations. For groups to be effective, team-oriented behaviours should be enhanced and self-expectations (which may or may not be directly related to team performance) should not inhibit teamwork too much. It was found that, if the group process was managed, culturally diverse teams performed more effectively on complex tasks of a relatively long duration early on in the group's life, whereas nondiverse teams performed more effectively in the last stages. In both instances, team orientation was also positively related to performance. Comparatively higher self-orientation for the diverse teams and an increase in self-orientation for the nondiverse group could also have had a positive impact.

These studies indicate that various factors need to be considered when trying to understand the effect of team diversity. Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998) distinguish between readily detectable and underlying attributes and these are also included in the study by Knight et al. (1999), while Elron (1997) and Earley (1999) specifically studied dimensions of cultural heterogeneity. (Note that Salk & Brannen, 2000, found the role of culture to be less direct and deterministic than suggested in earlier research.) Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998), Elron (1997), Earley (1999) and Watson et al. (1998) indicate that the effect of diversity is related to the phase of team development and the life period of the group. Kim et al. (1999) emphasise the importance of leader role (specifically that of technical expert) in the case of research and development teams which are naturally more diverse.

The influence of the nature of the task should also be kept in mind. Although even moderate diversity could increase the complexity of group interactions and influence the effectiveness of the group, the complexity of the task influences this relationship. Luft (1984) refers to the value of an individual approach when group members' desire individual prominence and

distinction versus the positive influence on the functioning of the group and on productivity when goals are shared and decided upon by group discussion. Watson et al. (1998) regard a group as more productive than the individual, regardless of the diversity of the group, in the case of tasks consisting of multiple parts, being moderately complex and requiring diverse information. Bottom and Baloff (1994) refer to the mediating effect of task variables on the relationship between group process and effectiveness with group process having less effect if the task is low in terms of complexity, environmental uncertainty and interdependence, thus making it possible for group members acting independently to deal effectively with the task. Kim et al. (1999), on the other hand, found the team-building leader role to be important for team performance in the case of relatively low task uncertainty. (As uncertainty increased, strategic planning became more important and the gatekeeper and technical expert roles seemed crucial regardless of the type of task.) According to Shaw and Barrett-Power (1998), cognitive paradigm dissimilarity could have a positive impact on the quality of final group outcomes through resources such as increased creativity, flexibility and problem-solving skills, especially in the case of complex and nonroutine tasks. In work teams with complex tasks, issue-based conflict could have a positive effect on the team's performance.

The relationship between diversity and performance is affected by the relationship between interpersonal and task-related issues (Elron, 1997; Knight et al., 1999). Homogeneous teams are characterised by better team communication, higher innovation through better communication of new ideas and faster decision implementation. The advantages of heterogeneous teams include increasing environmental scanning capacity, greater diversity in ideas, creativity, innovation, greater variance in decision-making alternatives (i.e. an increasing range of potential actions that the group considers when making strategic decisions) and greater tolerance for uncertainty and change.

Diversity poses challenges with regard to managing group processes. Team members should be made aware of the value of issue-based conflict and effective group processes should be used to promote shared mental models. Watson et al. (1998) are more specific in their advice. The cyclical nature of self-orientation and team orientation should be managed through feedback on interpersonal processes and team performance. In their study, teams were made aware of the effect of self-orientation, team orientation and diversity on performance. Diverse

teams can use their self-orientation (e.g. through individual input, creativity and questioning of group processes) effectively but through feedback on interpersonal processes these teams can learn to overcome difficulties caused by diversity. Nondiverse teams, on the other hand, should be made aware of the value individual expectations have for team performance.

4.3.3.2   Team innovation

For the purpose of their study, West and Anderson (1996) accept the definition of team innovation as the introduction and application of processes, products or procedures that are new to the relevant unit of adoption and that are intended to benefit the individual, group, organisation or wider society. Kim et al. (1999) considered innovation to be a characteristic of research and development teams. These teams are distinguished by the specific nature of their tasks and the professionals forming the teams. Innovative tasks are intrinsically diverse, nonroutine and uncertain about the relationship between inputs and outputs, take a long time to accomplish, usually involve a high risk of failure and are characterised by interruptions. Research and development teams are furthermore diverse in terms of the interdisciplinary and cross-functional nature of these teams. Although the study of Kathuria and Partovi (1999) focused on manufacturing plants (implying less emphasis on innovation than research and development teams), a need for flexibility in this context implies the ability to handle varied, difficult, complex, unstructured and nonstandardised tasks and variability and uncertainty in terms of inputs, processes and outputs.

West and Anderson (1996) focused specifically on innovation in top management teams, emphasising the importance of leadership to innovation and organisational performance. Kim et al. (1999) emphasise the relationship between specific leader roles and team performance of research and development teams. More conventional leadership activities focus on task structuring and relationships with and between team members for task accomplishment and group maintenance whereas the nature of the tasks and the teams in a more innovative context imply different demands on leadership. The results of the study by Kim et al. (1999) indicated that the role of technical expert was the most important with positive relationships also evident for the roles of the leader as strategic planner, team builder and gatekeeper of information. No relationship was found for the role of champion of the team to the external

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environment.

Kim et al. (1999) considered possible moderator variables related to the leader, the team and the task. They found that leadership tenure moderated and strengthened the relationship in the case of technical expert, strategic planner and gatekeeper while team tenure resulted in a negative relationship in the case of the team builder role. An increase in team tenure has been shown to lead to less internal and external communication and information gathering. With regard to task characteristics as moderator variable, it was found that the gatekeeper and technical expert roles are crucial, regardless of the type of task, whereas strategic planning seems important as uncertainty increases and team building in the case of low task uncertainty.

Similar to Kim et al. (1999), Kathuria and Partovi (1999) were interested in the effect of management practices. The outcome was, however, defined as managerial performance and flexibility was regarded as a possible moderator variable. This differs from the studies by Kim et al. (1999) and West and Anderson (1996) in which innovation and performance in tasks that require innovation were the outcome variables. Kathuria and Partovi's (1999) results indicated that the positive relationship between relationship-oriented practices and managerial performance was stronger when the emphasis on flexibility was high than when it was low. For participative leadership and delegation, a positive relationship was found only in the case of the high flexibility group and for work-oriented practices the relationships were positive but not significant for either high or low flexibility. (Note that managerial performance was based on perceptual information provided by superiors rather than measured as the performance of the group assigned to manager as is often the case.) Practices that focus on cooperation, dealing with conflict and providing recognition and support are appropriate when dealing with the uncertainty caused by variability in inputs, process sequence, outputs and delivery schedule. Actively involving people in generating ideas, suggesting improvements and expressing concerns and doubts also make it easier to deal with tasks that are difficult and unstructured and that involve variety and uncertainty. Delegation furthermore implies empowerment in problem solving, setting objectives, monitoring and developing schedules. Consistent with delegation in an environment characterised by high flexibility, is the notion that the manager should not assume sole responsibility. Work-oriented management practices

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are of less importance than some of the other practices.

West and Anderson (1996) considered the relationship of input variables concerned with the group's composition and the organisational context to group outputs in terms of group-level innovations. In addition, the effect of group processes as independent variables was studied. Whereas Kim et al. (1999) found team tenure to be a moderator variable with regard to team performance in research and development teams, West and Anderson (1996) detected no direct relationship between team tenure and innovation. Neither were relationships with an overall score on innovation (as judged by domain relevant experts) evident for other input variables related to group composition (team size and characteristics of group members) or organisational context (size of organisation and resources available). Relationships with and prediction of aspects of innovation quality and effectiveness and team self-reports of innovation were reported.

Overall innovation and team self-reports of innovation were significantly and positively correlated with the group process variables specified by West and Anderson (1996). (Team members' perceptions of group processes were used.) Regression analysis, however, indicated that support for innovation was the only significant predictor of overall innovation (as well as of innovation novelty). Support for innovation refers to expectation, approval and practical support of attempts to introduce new and improved ways of doing things in the work environment. Participation leads to greater commitment and effectiveness, implies interaction and sharing of perspectives, as well as less resistance to change and thus support for the implementation of innovations. This variable was the best predictor of the number of innovations and of team self-reports of innovation. Task orientation (which implies divergent thinking, task-related team conflict and the management of competing perspectives) predicted the administrative effectiveness (and therefore the quality) of innovations introduced. Clarity of and commitment to objectives did not emerge as a predictor (possibly because of high levels of commitment and a lack of variance in the teams studied).

4.4 THE GROUP LEADER

Leadership, the way in which it is distinguished from management, as well as the

relationships between the leader and individual group members and the work group were discussed in chapters 2 and 3. In this context, the leader is assumed to be appointed although it is acknowledged that other members of the group might also at various stages and/or for various reasons take up the role of leader. This section deals with the group leader in a context in which the emphasis is on group work. This usually also refers to a formal or "appointed" leader. There is a difference between facilitating a group and leading a group (either as counsellor in a therapeutic group or as manager in an organisational setting) but there is nevertheless a certain amount of overlap in the characteristics and skills required for these roles. Whereas the facilitator focuses on process rather than becoming actively involved in content, the leader considers both content and process (Phillips & Phillips, 1993). The discussion is again not limited to work groups because the leader in an organisational context should consider the personal characteristics and skills relevant to other settings when appropriate. Group leadership from a psychodynamic point of view is covered in the next chapter.

The personal characteristics of someone leading a group are highlighted below (Corey & Corey, 1997). (Note that the authors refer to the role of the group counsellor but that these characteristics have relevance in other settings.) The leader should be willing to be open with the group and to share his or her shortcomings, fears and expectations. His or her role differs from that of the group members but participation through honest, appropriate and timely self-disclosure implies teaching by example which is a leadership function. Self-confidence is related to the leader's willingness to show his or her qualities (strengths and weaknesses). He or she thus helps members to be objective and realise that they also have personal power and responsibilities. He or she should be nondefensive in coping with attacks and criticism. Compassion and empathy are important as is an interest in the welfare of others (implying that the leader does not exploit others). The leader should further be aware of how one's own cultural values influence one's decisions and behaviours and be open to different lifestyles and values and new experiences. Self-awareness includes an awareness of one's identity, cultural perspective, goals, motivations, needs, limitations, strengths, values, feelings as well as awareness of why the leader chooses to lead.

In addition to the above personal characteristics, there are a number of vital professional skills

(Corey & Corey, 1997). Active listening can be improved by first clarifying what is preventing one from paying attention to others, and then focusing not only on what is being said but also how it is being said and if there is congruence in this. Reflecting requires active listening and implies the ability to convey the essence of what the group member has communicated so that he or she can hear it. If there are confusing or conflicting ideas and emotions in what is being said, the leader provides clarification by focusing on key underlying issues. Other skills that can be used include summarising (by the leader or members) of where the group is at the moment or evaluating where the group is going, accurate and well-timed interpretations (again by the leader or the member involved), questions directed at heightened awareness of the moment, providing appropriate support, linking where members have common concerns, confronting specific behaviour by sharing how the leader experiences it and blocking counterproductive behaviour, and suggesting alternatives or initiating by providing direction and structure and taking action. These behaviours should be used with care and when appropriate so as not to be counterproductive and, say, lead to dependence.

These skills correspond to three of the four core activities and leader functions seen by Luft (1984) as basic to most groups, namely caring (the leader offers support, affection, praise, warmth, genuineness and acceptance), meaning attribution (the leader clarifies, interprets or explains what is happening in the group), and emotional stimulation (the leader initiates activities that emphasise confrontation, releasing feelings, challenging and taking risks). The fourth refers to the executive function. Smith (1980) refers to a degree of research support for the effectiveness of these functions but cautions that the group culture and context nevertheless determine the balance between a supportive (the first function) and a more confrontational (the other three functions) behaviour.

Both the counsellor and the facilitator to some extent use himself or herself as an instrument in group work (Corey & Corey, 1997; Phillips & Phillips, 1993). However, the aim of a therapeutic group relates to intra- and interpersonal change whereas experience-based groups only indirectly lead to such change the main purpose being the study of group processes. A facilitator in an experience-based group therefore also requires the preceding characteristics and skills but probably plays a less active role. This is also true of facilitation in other

contexts such as learning groups where tutor support refers to resource suggestions and the facilitation of group learning with more active support provided only when required by individuals with certain learning styles or certain team types (McDougall & Beattie, 1995; Raelin & LeBien, 1993). Facilitation in an organisational context impacts on the effectiveness of both the maintenance and the task behaviours of the group. A person other than the manager of a group or team is often responsible for the facilitation of the group when the emphasis is on group work. Managerial functions nevertheless require some facilitation skills. Phillips and Phillips (1993) summarise the role of the facilitator as seeing and understanding the group life. This is done through observation, making inferences based on the overt and the symbolic content of the group's discussions, and by monitoring his or her own feelings to try to understand what the group is feeling. Intervention (excluding direct interpretation) requires the skills referred to earlier in this section.

The counsellor in a therapeutic group or the facilitator in an experience-based group is in many respects similar to the leader in an organisational setting, especially when a small group or team is involved. Cooper (1979) refers to the success or failure of experiential group training being strongly linked to the personality and style of the trainer (similar results were not found for group structure/processes and participants' personality). The importance of intra- and interpersonal characteristics is also emphasised in references to the leader as a role model (e.g. Bethel, 2000) and trait models of leadership which assume that there are some personality characteristics that predispose certain people to become leaders in many different situations (e.g. Brandstätter & Farthofer, 1997). According to Luft (1984), cognitive and affective skills of the group counsellor and the facilitator are also necessary in an organisational context because the group leader needs to consider both the task functions and the socioemotional needs of members. However, human relations skills are regarded as more important in the first two settings. In an organisational setting these skills are necessary, especially at middle management level, but not sufficient. Technical skills are required (e.g. at a supervisory level), and at top management level in particular, the conceptual ability is needed to conceive and initiate structural changes so that the structure supports the organisation's mission and objectives.

According to Burns (1995), the tasks of the facilitator and the team leader in a work team are

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similar and require the same skills but the latter applies his or her skills in a slightly different way. These tasks include the following: dealing with issues related to group development; stating and clarifying goals (in the case of the leader) and gaining commitment to common goals; ensuring that formal roles are assigned and understood and resolving role conflict (in the case of the leader also accepting and fulfilling this role); establishing norms for communication and ensuring open and clear communication; managing the meeting which refers to preparation, time management, etcetera; identifying an appropriate decision-making method and leading the team through the steps and processes; leading the team through a structured problem-solving approach that maximises involvement; tolerating and sustaining task-related conflict and managing conflict by consideration of opposing viewpoints and implementing appropriate methods to break deadlocks; and observing and accurately interpreting the group processes and dynamics throughout.

Management practices refer to the broader functions of the organisational leader although there is some overlap with the specific skills required for group work. These practices have also been shown to impact on the group and its effectiveness (e.g. the findings of Schminke & Wells, 1999, that a group's level of moral reasoning is affected by leadership style with a difference in the effect of the task-oriented versus the person-oriented leader). Luft (1984) identifies one of the core functions of the group leader as an executive function that refers to management of the group as a social system, setting limits, suggesting rules and procedures, stopping, questioning and pacing. In an organisational context, work-oriented management practices include planning, clarifying, problem solving, monitoring and informing (Kathuria & Partovi, 1999). Brandstätter and Farthofer (1997) define leadership performance in a group as effectively initiating, coordinating and directing group activities in a variety of different situations. Bethel (2000) refers to the function of directing that includes the process of formulating an overall mission.

Kathuria and Partovi (1999) define the relationship-oriented practices in terms of Yukl's work as networking, team building, supporting, mentoring, inspiring, recognising and rewarding, and participative leadership practices as consulting and delegating. Charismatic, authoritarian personalities with leadership styles that emphasise aggressive, intrusive interventions encourage high emotional stimulation, but Luft (1984) regards leader behaviour that

recognises individual differences and that emphasises caring and meaning attribution as more effective. The leader should adhere to certain principles related to relationships with and between team members in developing a productive team. In a discussion on leadership functions that form the basis of team building, Bethel (2000) refers to the importance of a team mission and of challenging members in their efforts to achieve the team goals while providing autonomy in this process thus developing personal and team potential. Transactional activities might also be needed to encourage members by compiling clear job descriptions and putting an effective performance evaluation system in place. Education and training in a manner that stresses the personal benefits for members are furthermore needed. Rohlander (1999) emphasises that members' personal needs and goals should be acknowledged and there should be a balance between these and the team goals with participation by members in setting and working towards a common goal. Team standards and rewards are again included as part of the process. Kim et al. (1999) state that team work implies transcendental effort and transformational leadership is therefore important in creating a positive attitude among team members towards the project and in empowering them to realise the project and organisational goals. Support of high performance teams therefore seem to include building shared responsibility, developing vision alignment, providing individual development, encouraging mutual influence and building task autonomy versus taking or maintaining all responsibility, monopolising the vision and controlling and coordinating all activities. Note that the role of participation has been shown to be complex. Tosi (1970), for example, found that participation correlated significantly with satisfaction, regardless of the personality of followers with no relationship with effectiveness. What was expected (based on Vroom's work) was that participation would correlate significantly with effectiveness and with job satisfaction when the need for independence in followers is high and authoritarian is low.

4.5   SUMMARY

Certain principles determine the functioning of a group, regardless of its nature. The study of counselling groups in particular forms a basis for understanding these principles and a humanistic approach is thus implied in the discussion on group processes. In task or work groups, often referred to as teams, these principles relate to the maintenance of relationships

and the accomplishment of goals. The practice of experience-based learning can also be implemented in work groups to create a greater awareness of group processes in the here and now. An awareness which, in turn, impacts on maintenance and task behaviours in other settings. The discussion of the group composition focused on diversity in groups, group size, group tenure and the nature of the task. Structural variables included roles, norms and cohesiveness. A framework for studying group development and the related group processes and leader behaviours was provided. It was acknowledged that groups do not necessarily progress through each of these stages in a sequential manner and that the group needs to be able to function in the most appropriate stage for the task at hand. A distinction was made between group processes related to the interpersonal relationships in the group (maintenance behaviours) and those related to the tasks and goals of the team (task behaviours). Research on the manifestation and impact of these processes in an organisational context was discussed and mediator and moderator variables considered. Specific reference was made to diversity in teams and team innovation. The chapter concluded with an overview of the personal characteristics, skills and tasks of the group leader. Similarities between the roles of the counsellor, facilitator and group leader in an organisational context were indicated and reference was made to the additional functions required in the case of the latter.

Leadership in the group context is further explored in chapter 5, but from a psychodynamic perspective.

CHAPTER 5

GROUP DYNAMICS FROM A SYSTEMS PSYCHODYNAMIC PERSPECTIVE

There is a tradition of viewing organisational processes from within the behavioural and humanistic paradigms and therefore regarding these processes as conscious and easy to understand. This approach, however, does not allow for an understanding of the unconscious behaviour of individuals, groups and the organisation and the relationships between these systems, in other words, the organisational dynamics (Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000; Kersten, 2001).

The systems psychodynamic perspective is based on the theory and concepts of psychoanalysis, group relations and open systems theory (Gould, 2001). The term "systems" refers to the open systems theory that provides for an understanding of the organisation, the group and the individual as open systems involved in continuous transactions with an environment (Miller, 1993; Miller & Rice, 1967, 1975, 1990). The organisation is regarded as a sociotechnical system, and not only are the structural aspects of the organisational system explored, but relationships with individuals and groups are also implied by regarding the latter as open systems in interaction with their environment. The term "psychodynamics" refers to a psychoanalytic perspective on individual experiences, group functioning and the way these relate to organisational functioning and organisational difficulties in particular. Psychodynamics are regarded as the unconscious elements that influence the individual as a micro-system, the group as a meso-system and the organisation as a macro-system (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997). These systems are in constant conscious and unconscious interaction, each system reflecting the dynamic behaviour of the others. Object relations theory and the concepts of the paranoid-schizoid and depressive positions in particular (Czander, 1993; De Board, 1978; Klein, 1959, 1985) explain individual functioning and the use of individual defences. These concepts were applied to groups (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Rioch 1970, 1975) thus forming the basis for group relations theory. Interaction between individual members and the group stimulates and reflects the individual as well as the group dynamics. The extension of these dynamics to an organisational level is explained in terms of the formation of social defence mechanisms (De Board, 1978; Stokes, 1994). According to Cilliers, Rothmann and Struwig (2004), the latter could impact negatively or facilitate task

performance and responses to and readiness for change. Note that although the concepts discussed here had an earlier origin, the term "systems psychodynamics" was mentioned in print for the first time by Eric Miller in 1992/1993 (Fraher, 2004).

5.1 THE PSYCHODYNAMICS OF THE GROUP

The psychodynamics of the group implies a psychoanalytic perspective, not so much on individual experiences, but rather on social or group experiences as well as on organisational life. Hidden aspects of the individual's mental life influence conscious processes. A similar dynamic can be proposed for the unconscious group and the group's manifest behaviours (Gould, 2001). Studying these dynamics implies a position on the boundary between conscious and unconscious meaning of ideas and behaviours.

5.1.1 Theoretical perspective

The theoretical perspective involves the theory of group behaviour based on a psychoanalytic perspective, developed from Wilfred Bion's work on groups, which, in turn, is based on the concepts underlying Melanie Klein's general theory of development (Gould, 2001). Bion (1961, 1975) hypothesises that the group responds in a manner similar to that of the individual to psychotic anxiety. Objective anxiety implies the feelings caused by an external source of danger that result in automatic physical reactions. Neurotic anxiety, however, is the result of internal danger resulting from subjective and frequently unconscious feelings. Klein (1959, 1985) explains how ego defences are used to turn an internal into an external threat. Central to her theory are the concepts of the paranoid-schizoid and depressive positions typical of the earliest phases of mental life.

The paranoid anxiety experienced by an infant is dealt with by the mechanisms of splitting and projective identification. Internal persecutory anxiety is projected onto the mother who is then experienced as both an external and internal threatening bad object, resulting in splitting of both the ego and the object. The infantile depressive position develops with the realisation that good and bad objects are in fact aspects of the same thing (the mother or the self). This leads to an experience of guilt and despair (depressive anxiety) at the apparent

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destruction of the loved object. A paranoid attitude and denial could be adopted to avoid the depressive anxiety. On the other hand, the complexity of the internal and external reality could be faced resulting in work and creativity and often a desire to repair previous injuries.

According to Klein (1959, 1985), adults can regress to the infantile mechanisms characteristic of the paranoid-schizoid and depressive positions. Seel (2001) states that Klein's theory on individual analysis can also be used to interpret the behaviour that occurs when individuals are assembled in small (less than 12 members) or large (more than 20 members) groups. (Ettin, 2003, in a discussion on group-analytic practice refers to large groups starting with 20 members, typically consisting of 30 or more members, and mention is made of groups consisting of more than a 100 members.) Bion (1961, 1975) explains how these phenomena manifest not only as individual but also as group phenomena. According to his theory, the group is a collective entity. The concept of the group-as-a-whole implies an entity that is greater than the sum of its parts (Miller, 1993), and Colman (1975) refers to the notion of a shared group consciousness.

The primary task of the group is survival and it uses its members to this end (Bion, 1961, 1975). The members of a group experience psychotic anxiety and persecutory fear when faced with the reality of their own behaviour. To deal with this, the group regresses and resorts to mechanisms such as splitting of the ego and the object, projective identification and denial. Group life is thus based on the fantasies and projections of its members and a member's behaviour reflects both his or her own needs and that of the group. The superego versus the demands of primitive impulses are both basic motivations and sources of conflict. The development and capabilities of the ego of members determine how well unconscious conflicts are dealt with which, in turn, implies that the members apply their energy and abilities to the realities of the group situation. From a psychoanalytic perspective, groups are regarded as modifications of family life and leaders viewed in terms of the dynamics of the parent-child relationship. According to Czander (1993), the organisation resembles the family structure and struggles between superiors and subordinates in terms of oedipal struggles. The concept of valency (as used by Bion) describes the innate tendency of individuals to relate and respond to groups according to one's predispositioned psychological make-up (Obholzer, 1994a).

Bion's theory of group behaviours includes what he calls the basic assumption groups which are manifestations of the experiences and unconscious fantasies originating in infancy (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b; Rioch, 1970, 1975). A distinction can be made between the manifest, overt aspects and the latent, covert aspects of a group. The manifest aspect is referred to as the work group and this implies behaviours that are geared towards rational task performance. Members agree on an objective and consciously work towards the completion of a task and realising their objective. Groups, however, do not always function rationally or productively. The basic assumption group refers to those behaviours that are geared towards emotional needs and anxieties, that is, towards its survival. This group represents the latent aspects of group life including the combined unconscious fears, defences, fantasies, wishes, impulses and projections of the group members. The group behaves as if a certain assumption is true, held common by all members, and if certain behaviours are therefore necessary for the group to survive. The group as a whole is involved in a central conflict or concern (referred to as a focal conflict), at any given time, which is based on the wishes and fears of the members. This conflict usually centres around questions of leadership, authority and interpersonal relationships. The conflict is active in the immediate presence but members are not aware of it. The three basic assumption positions identified by Bion (1961) are dependency, pairing and fight/flight. There are internal and external controls (of which the group is not always aware) used to maintain the boundary between the task and the basic assumption groups. These controls prevent that which is hidden from emerging and interfering with the announced group task. Carr (2001) refers to the fact that the unconscious emotional existence as reflected by the basic assumption group may occasionally be used to achieve a task but that it usually hinders performance, especially if left unaddressed. Rioch (1975) mentions the fact that, although basic assumptions represent an interference with the work task, a more positive side to the assumptions is the work group's use of the proper basic assumption.

When the group is working on the basic assumption of dependency, the aim is to obtain security and protection from one individual (this could be the designated leader or a member who assumes the role) who is expected to instruct and direct the group towards task completion (Bion, 1961, 1975). The group as a system experiences anxiety because of the demands made, which leads to dependency on the leader. The members behave as if they are

inadequate, incompetent and immature, with no knowledge and nothing to contribute, and they act as if the leader is omnipotent and omniscient and can solve all problems (De Board, 1978). Although Kets de Vries and Miller (1984b) identify the primary defence as idealisation, mechanisms such as splitting and projection are also implied. Furthermore, there is denial in the sense that the good parts of members are projected onto the leader and the bad parts denied. Feelings of depression, envy, guilt and reverence occur. The leader must defend group members against reality, carry their pain and do the work. However, he or she will not do this because it is not his or her job (although this basic assumption could attract a charismatic leader who exerts authority through powerful personal characteristics). If the leader fails to live up to the group's expectations and fails to meet these (impossible) demands, group members will show disappointment and hostility and even rejection (De Board, 1978; Rioch, 1970,1975). Dependency is avoided through mechanisms such as denial, and a state of counter-dependency develops - "we will do it ourselves". Through consulting to the group, it moves towards interdependence characterised by independent thought, cooperative work and using authority when needed in a mature manner.

According to Lyndon (1994), feelings of hostility against the leader could cause too much anxiety resulting in these feelings being projected onto another group member, referred to as the scapegoat. He or she is placed on the boundary with the leader and becomes the recipient of the frustration and anger caused by the experience of dependency (although the discomfort of dependency is only artificially relieved). There is a danger that the group could become fixated at the split caused by the opposition between the idealised leader and the scapegoat. This happens if the leader allows the group to exploit the scapegoat, thus sustaining the power and authority of his or her position without taking responsibility for this position. A dependency group that becomes an extension of the leader is especially common in times of change and transition.

If the basic assumption is one of fight/flight, the group perceives its survival to be dependent on either fighting (hostility, active aggression, scapegoating and physical attack) or fleeing from the task (withdrawal, passivity, avoidance, talking about past history or the future and even leaving the group) (Bion, 1961, 1975). The group experiences feelings of anger, hate, fear and suspicion (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b) and regards these as the only two

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techniques of self-preservation and ignore, suppress or flee from other possible activities. In the first position, mechanisms of splitting and projection are used to create an enemy (inside or outside). This is a paranoid position and as long as there is no communication with the enemy in order to create mutual understanding, reality cannot be tested - that is, the group does not come to realise that the enemy is within. Action is essential to preserve the group and the leader is the person who is able to lead against a common enemy or to create an enemy (De Board, 1978). (Note that the aggression against authority as well as the scapegoating phenomenon in the dependency group also imply fight behaviour.) Flight implies nontask and antitask activities and the leader is someone who minimises the importance of the task and moves the group from the here and now. In both the positions, the leader is mobilised by the group but, his or her leadership could be short-lived (Rioch, 1970, 1975).

With the basic assumption pairing, the survival of the group relies on creation and on a more unconscious level, even reproduction (Bion, 1961, 1975). Members have met so that a pair can form and create a new leader. There is bonding between two individuals and intellectual activity resides with them. From this union it is hoped that a leader will be created to save the group by delivering it from anxieties and fears and by helping it to complete its task. Bion (1961, 1975) emphasises that the focus is not on the supposed future event, but that the feeling of hope itself in the immediate present characterises this group. The hope can only be kept alive as long as the leader remains unborn and disappointment is unavoidable. Anticipation and fantasy support "utopian ideals" (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b), while the mechanisms of denial and repression are used to remain a closed system and to prevent the group from coming into contact with reality (De Board, 1978). According to Kets de Vries and Miller (1984b), the group experiences feelings of hope, meaning, faith, utopianism, enthusiasm and also despair and disillusionment when hopes are not met.

In addition to these three types of groups, two additional basic assumption groups were added. The basic assumption of "me-ness" represents the individual's escape into the safety of his or her inner world which is regarded as good versus the group that is regarded as bad (Turquet, 1974). "We-ness", on the other hand, implies that group members join into a powerful union with an omnipotent force to experience wholeness (Lawrence, Bain & Gould, 1996). This surrender of the self suggests a passive stance. Members commit to a cause

outside of themselves as a way of survival. The leader is someone who offers a philosophy of life or methods to achieve higher levels of consciousness.

Only one basic assumption is prominent at any one time, although fairly regular changes in assumptions are possible (Bion, 1961, 1975). Common to the basic assumption groups is the issue of leadership (Obholzer, 2001). The leader, for example, is created by the splitting off of part of the ego of each member and projecting this onto a leader. This personality of this person makes him or her susceptible to taking on the basic assumption group's leadership requirements at the cost of individuality. The members of basic assumption groups use their energy to defend against internal anxieties and fears, and the group does not develop or achieve any effective outputs. The basic assumption group acts as a closed system, ignoring external reality and defending itself against it. Once the group recognises and deals with the fact that the rational working of the group is affected by the (often irrational) emotions of its members, it releases its potential. From a group development perspective, the initial phase of group life centres on struggles with authority resulting in the basic assumptions (Wheelan, 1994). Through expression of feelings and improved communication, the group reaches the second phase of greater understanding of its own functioning and a willingness to assume responsibility for work (although groups may regress temporarily after having made progress). Members of the group have to learn and develop personal and interpersonal skills. Cooperation in the group is needed and the group should also be an open system that maintains a balance between what is in and what is outside the group. Note that although Bion's theoretical contribution in terms of group life is regarded as valuable, criticism has been expressed against his method of group "therapy" (Eisold, 1985).

5.1.2   Defence mechanisms in work groups

In organisational life, task or work groups use defence mechanisms to deal with difficult experiences and emotions which are too threatening or too painful to acknowledge (Halton, 1994). Thoughts, feelings and experiences that provoke anxiety are dealt with by means of denial (the threatening aspects are repressed and pushed out of conscious awareness) or avoidance. Envy results in the case of a group that sees itself as the loser in a competitive situation, and this group experiences anxiety because of the need for survival and tries to

prevent others from being successful (withholding cooperation and actively preventing others from achieving their goals). Halton (1994) also refers to regression to a paranoid-schizoid way of functioning in which members of a group rely on splitting, projection and projective identification as defences against these aspects. This implies that bad internal behaviours and impulses are split off and projected onto another individual, group or organisation. Since anxieties are also created by trying to contain conflicting needs and emotions, these can be split off and projected onto different individuals, groups or organisations. Projective identification implies that the recipients of a projection react to it in such a way that their own feelings are affected. They unconsciously identify with the projected feelings and often behave accordingly, thus "becoming the projection". Moylan (1994) refers to the value of projective identification if it is understood as communication, but also the difficulty in dealing with what is projected onto another if it is not understood and worked with. In projection, the source of anxiety is not dealt with and the anxiety is not resolved but is continuously experienced as an external threat. Projections thus blur the boundary between what is inside the group and what is in the environment and distort reality.

A group could project onto one or more of its own members, onto individuals and other groups in the organisation or the projection may be outside of the organisation. This implies that an individual could be used to carry and express (and even export) something for the group or the situation could arise in which a group acts on behalf of the system in carrying emotional energy related to a certain aspect for that system (Cilliers, 2000). By projecting outside of the group, the natural boundary between insiders and outsiders is exploited (Halton, 1994). Fragmentation occurs because contact is lost with parts that should remain inside the boundary. Using these defence mechanisms implies that an external threat is created and the group maintains its illusionary goodness (self-idealisation). Less contact with the perceived threat also allows greater scope for projection (Erlich, 2001). The process simplifies complex issues and may produce a rigid culture in which growth is inhibited.

A shift from the paranoid-schizoid to the depressive position takes place when members of the group are able to tolerate previously unbearable feelings long enough to reflect on them, thus resulting in re-owning those feelings and a decrease in splitting (Erlich, 2001; Halton, 1994). It is painful to take back less acceptable aspects of the self, and another person is at

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times required to temporarily contain these feelings. If a group functions in the depressive position, the emotional complexity of the work is shared and a fuller range of emotional responses is available. This leads to integration and cooperation in and between groups although clear boundaries still need to be maintained to contain anxiety and for the system to survive (Cilliers, 2000; Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000). Whenever the survival of the group is threatened, the group might return to a more paranoid-schizoid way of functioning (Halton, 1994).

Roberts (1994) discusses the intergroup conflicts due to dual membership that arise when members from different departments work together because of task overlap. Successful collaboration in this instance requires a clear task to which members can relate; a task of sufficient importance to ensure commitment by the members and by the home-groups; a task that is not in conflict with the aims of the home-group; and a group that has sufficient authority to establish its own management system.

The basic assumptions (and related defences) at group level in organisations result from the interaction of individual dynamics with task-related or situational variables that create anxiety (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b). Cilliers and Koortzen (2000) refer to the manifestation of basic assumption groups in organisational contexts. The dependency group is seen when more structure is required from management and this could result in manipulation of the leader out of his or her role. Fight reactions are seen in the envy and rivalry in and between units, while flight reaction is physical (illness, resignation, etc.) or psychological (intellectualisation, rationalisation, etc.). Intra- and intergroup conflict can also be the result of pairing. According to Kets de Vries and Miller (1984b), if these assumptions occur in a group that is central to strategic decision making, it has an impact at organisational level. Basic assumptions in intergroup relationships also contribute to organisational dynamics. The influence is caused by the fact that group processes and dynamics often lead to a conformity of perception, belief and behaviour (related to the basic assumption). Specific assumptions manifest in certain organisational modes and are related to organisational dimensions and consequences (positive and negative). Obholzer and Miller (2004) refer to the connection between the competent functioning of the individual in the depressive position and an organisation in work group mode as well as between the functioning of the individual in the paranoid-schizoid position

and an organisation in a basic assumption state. (According to the above authors, Bion does not make such a direct link.)

5.1.3 Leadership, power and the exercise of authority

According to Miller (1993), power involves the maintenance and enhancement of status and refers to control over others. Obholzer (1994a, p. 42) defines it as "the ability to act upon others or upon organizational structure". External sources of power refer to the resources that the person controls both for his or her own use or in terms of what can be imposed on, given or denied to others. Internal power implies an individual's own perception of how powerful he or she is and conveying this to others. Czander (1993) contends that the definition of power cannot be limited to one person's ability to influence another. Power should be seen as a function of perception - in other words, one attributes power to another based on a number of characteristics related to the person or the role occupied by the person. According to Carr (2001), power could be projected onto others, which implies that an individual surrenders his or her personal authority and regresses to a state of dependency in which work is hampered. A group could also regress to a state of childlike denial of responsibility in which group members seek gratification by creating a leader (designated or not). The basic assumption of dependency is held by such a group. Shapiro (2001) relates power to the availability and deployment of resources but cautions that this should be connected to a task in order to prevent the power from being seen as abuse.

A wish to be independent contains the potential for dependency or "immature dependence" (Carr, 2001). Instead, it should be acknowledged that despite any autonomy achieved, the individual or group remains interdependent with the environment. This interdependence finds expression in the group, the organisation or in society and needs to be acknowledged and managed for the welfare of all concerned. Carr (2001) also refers to dependency and power as related concepts while interdependence is seen to imply successful collaboration. The term "dependence" as opposed to "dependency" can be used when referring to the more mature mutual reliance on others, but the term "interdependence" seems to have less potential for creating confusion. Acknowledging this interdependence is in itself an exercise in personal authority because the latter is a function of managing oneself in relation to role and task

performance (Miller, 1993). Trying to move directly from dependency to autonomy, could lead to a fear of collaboration with others - a denial of interdependence.

According to Shapiro (2001), authority derives from a shared task. If members are in agreement about the task, a shared reality develops. Authority is a negotiated concept and Carr (2001) suggests that the term "empowerment" should be avoided because it implies giving others power rather than helping them to become more powerful themselves by gaining greater influence over their environment. Power is needed to be able to exercise authority and there should also be a balance with regard to responsibility. Obholzer (1994a) distinguishes between different types of authority. There is authority derived from an individual's role in the system, that is, delegated authority. The membership furthermore needs to sanction the authority of this role although this does not always imply that the authority of the person in the role is acknowledged and even when it is acknowledged, certain limitations are implied. Of primary importance, however, is the confirmation of authority from within individuals by the individual himself or herself. Personal authority is influenced by relationships with authority figures in a person's inner world. Without a realistic perception of personal authority, authority cannot be exercised competently (either because of self-doubt or feelings of omnipotence). Note that Czander (1993) limits authority by defining it as being contained in a role - that is, someone occupies a position of authority. This definition of power seems related to sanctioned authority.

Leadership implies a relationship with followers that enables them to appreciate the concept of interdependence (Carr, 2001). Shapiro (2001) regards roles, including the leadership role, as functions of the task and therefore of the system. If there is role confusion, delegation is hampered because responsibilities are not assigned on the basis of differential abilities and training. Obholzer (1994a) refers to management as a focus on the functioning of the organisation, while leadership implies a more futuristic outlook. Obholzer (2001) advocates a model of leadership and management that requires working at understanding one's experience and the experience of others in relation to management and management competence. Obholzer (2001) emphasises the importance of members taking up their role and authority by acknowledging that effective leadership requires active followership. There is an inherent tension between leadership and followership.

Obholzer (2001) and Obholzer and Miller (2004) list the core functions of leadership. Firstly, there is a need for creating a vision as well as an awareness of the organisation's primary task with a regular review in this regard and a change in functioning, structure and staffing when needed. The leader has to guard against falling into a state of "domesticity" or concern about matters irrelevant to his or her role, but should also not concentrate on a vision at the expense of implementing the necessary organisational changes. This implies a second function, namely the management of change, both in and outside the organisation. Change requires ways for the different systems to cooperate and should also be at a pace that is emotionally possible and realistic in terms of the needs of those involved. The third function relates to the leadership position on the boundary and the way it deals with the practical issues related to this boundary-keeping function. Fourthly, leadership implies both power (having the resources to implement one's decisions) and authority (given by the organisation and taken up by the leader). Authority, however, needs to be exercised with the sanctioning of the followership. If this is withheld, it is the function of leadership to consider the dynamics involved. Lastly, leadership should address organisational dynamics by dealing with antitask behaviour that results from the organisation serving as an extension of individual defence mechanisms.

Followership is regarded as an active and participative process in which the members of the organisation acknowledge and take responsibility for personal and group tasks as well as for the overall venture (Obholzer, 2001; Obholzer & Miller, 2004). Splitting and projection occur in a passive dependent state, and at a conscious and unconscious level this responsibility is attributed to the leadership. The process of consultation and involvement, however, does not imply consensus management since this is contrary to decision making that involves weighing up consequences and risks resulting in contentious decisions when needed. Dealing with differences between leadership and membership requires bounded structures, designated tasks and a clear system of authority. Splitting, projection and projective identification are realities of the leader/member dichotomy. Opportunities for the leader to take up membership roles and for members to develop their managerial skills and accept leadership roles alleviate this process.

5.2   THE PSYCHODYNAMICS OF THE ORGANISATION

Organisational dynamics are qualitatively different from the dynamics at individual or group level, although mutual influences, processes and dynamics at all three levels contribute to the organisational culture (the organisation's view of itself, its members and its environment) which, in turn, impacts on strategic behaviour (Schneider & Shrivastava, 1988). The open systems perspective explains the dynamic balance between the forces and counterforces which determines the organisation's culture.

5.2.1   Basic assumptions at organisational level

According to Schneider and Shrivastava (1988), basic assumptions at an organisational level of analysis are interdependent with but different from the assumptions at individual and group level. Each level is in part influenced by the previous level but the level-specific context determines the resulting basic assumptions. Basic assumptions "represent a system of shared meaning that governs collective perceptions, thoughts, feelings, and actions" (Schneider & Shrivastava, 1988, p. 494). Assumptions at all three levels contribute to the organisational culture and thus to organisational strategy, although Stapley (1996) cautions that basic assumptions are temporary and should not be referred to as "cultures". By being made aware of these assumptions, managers can test their validity (implying a self-reflective organisation).

Miller and Friesen (1978) identified models of organisational functioning that aid in the understanding of the strategy-making process (including decision-making behaviour). They considered the simultaneous relationships between a number of environmental, organisational and strategy-making variables and concluded that there are 10 so-called "archetypes" or frequently occurring modes of organisational failure and success (defined in terms of the coping methods used). These models correspond with Schneider and Shrivastava's (1988) view of organisational culture, and according to them, basic assumptions at various levels will result in a specific mode of functioning.

Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) regard the dysfunctional archetypes identified by Miller and Friesen (1978) as pathological types of organisations and indicate how individual psychodynamics determine the nature of the dysfunctions in these organisations. According

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to Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a), characteristics of the climate, structure and strategy of these organisations are probably caused by the neurotic styles of the leaders in the organisations. The authors refer specifically to the impact of the fantasies and neurotic styles of the top executive in centralised organisations. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984b) also explain how assumptions at group level are related to organisational dimensions with certain positive and negative consequences for the organisation. For example, when the fight/flight culture is associated with paranoia, it leads (among other things) to diversification (positive) and suspicion between departments (negative). A dependency culture associated with centralised power leads to cohesiveness and focus (positive) or passivity and lack of critical judgement (negative). If it is associated with a bureaucratic mode that is rule and procedure oriented, it results in clarity of roles (positive) or lack of adaptation (negative).

Kersten (2001) cautions against the psychoanalytic approach resulting in individuals and their relationships being seen as the primary source (and therefore solution) of dysfunctional organisations without sufficiently acknowledging the role of underlying structural relationships of power and domination. Dynamics at a leadership and group level contribute to neurotic organisations, although many organisations have a fundamentally neurotic structure and culture based on the organisational and social context. The organisational structures develop to maintain unequal power and control relationships implying, inter alia, dependency. Dealing with this requires an awareness of the existing conditions and a willingness to address these through structural, cultural and leadership changes.

Schneider and Shrivastava (1988) expand the ideas on individual and group levels of functioning into models of organisational functioning. Their emphasis is on the dynamics underlying each model and the resultant view of the environment, organisation and its members which, in turn, results in specific strategic actions. The context in which a model is likely to emerge is also specified. For example, the fight/flight assumption is developed into basic assumption themes of persecution and exorcism. In the persecution theme, the organisation behaves as if there is a conspiracy against it. This may be caused by the paranoid character of the top executive. Group level dynamics include the fight/flight assumption. Exorcism occurs when some part of the organisation is blamed for its problems and it has to get rid of this part. Whereas the first theme refers to an external enemy, the paranoia of the

leader and fight/flight assumptions in the group are now internally focused. The leader might also be obsessively concerned with control and accountability. These cultures are not necessarily uniform across an organisation as specific sections might manifest subcultures. The open systems perspective explains the development of these cultures.

5.2.2   Open systems theory as a basis for a systems psychodynamic perspective

The structural aspects of an organisational system include its design, division of labour, levels of authority and reporting, its mission and primary task as well as the nature of work tasks, processes and activities (Gould, 2001). To understand these elements from an open systems perspective, it is necessary to consider the nature and patterning of the organisation's task and sentient boundaries and the transactions across them (Miller & Rice, 1967, 1975, 1990). Sentience refers to the emotional connection between people, and sentient group therefore implies a feeling of belonging (Singer, Astrachan, Gould & Klein, 1999). Organisations are created not only to accomplish required tasks but also to satisfy individual needs. However, at the same time, organisations become external realities, comparatively independent of individuals, that affect individuals in significant emotional and psychological ways (Cilliers et al., 2004). Furthermore, in considering the psychodynamics of work groups, the unconscious group can be regarded as both a source and a consequence of unresolved (even unrecognised) organisational difficulties. Carr (2001) refers to the internal and external worlds of organisations being dynamically complementary.

Functional processes such as communication, influence patterns, decision making and collaboration are affected by the kind of formal and informal structures that exist in organisations (Luft, 1984). Open systems theory refers to the structural features of the organisation in relation to sentient groups and the individual members of these groups (Miller & Rice, 1967, 1975, 1990). Interactions take place across individual, group and organisational boundaries. Systems psychodynamics refers to the interaction between the structural features of the organisation with its members, which stimulates patterns of individual and group dynamic processes, which, in turn, result in the organisation's culture, role definitions, boundary definitions and the management and regulation of these roles and boundaries (Czander, 1993; De Board, 1978; Stokes, 1994).

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Organisations serve as a container for individual anxieties (of a persecutory and depressive nature) and are used to reinforce individual defence mechanisms (De Board, 1978). Obholzer (1999) refers to various levels of anxiety, namely primitive anxiety, anxiety arising from the nature of the work and personal anxiety. According to French and Vince (1999, p. 9), containers "absorb, filter, or manage difficult or threatening emotions or ideas", the latter being the contained. The individual joins an organisation to try to fulfil unconscious needs and to resolve unconscious conflicts but as these needs and conflicts do not fit the reality of the work situation, anxiety results (Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000). This anxiety is related to the task itself (which is experienced as painful but which can also be a source of pleasure) and to relationships with management and colleagues. Obholzer (2001) also associates the anxieties the members of an organisation experience to the tasks and responsibilities of the job and to the relationships with others. Containment of anxiety is an unconscious reason why organisations are formed and why individuals join an organisation. Individuals externalise those aspects that would otherwise cause psychotic anxiety and these are combined in the life of the organisation with which they associate. The structure of an organisation is thus formed and modified by individual defence systems and, in turn, serves as a defence mechanism or social defence system. According to Czander (1993) the collective experience of anxiety is a precondition for the development of social defences. The individual externalises an unconscious defence and if this defence is perceived as effective in reducing anxiety, the other members unconsciously internalise the potential of the associated behaviour to reduce anxiety.

The result is a collective organisation in the mind (referred to as a state of relatedness by Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000) shared by all members and combined from different views for the different parts of the organisation (Stokes, 1994). These are partly unconscious and influence feelings and behaviours. Not only are people (e.g. management) expected to contain feelings for the members, but the system also relies on structures to serve this function. Institutional defences are healthy because they enable the staff to cope with stress and develop through their work in the organisation. It facilitates task performance and the response to and readiness for change and learning. These defences, however, also obstruct contact with reality and prevent the organisation from fulfilling its task and adapting to changing circumstances. Czander (1993) refers to the possibility that organisational structures are created for reasons

that are not rational and goal oriented, but develop instead as a result of psychodynamic issues and, as such, affect the organisation's efficiency and effectiveness negatively. In this regard, French and Vince (1999) refer to the container (the organisation) enabling the working through of that which is contained or becoming a rigid restrictive frame. Obholzer (2001) sees it as a leadership function to return the focus back to the organisation's primary task.

Through splitting and projection, individuals and groups place their problem aspects elsewhere in the organisation (Halton, 1994). Others are blamed for the frustrations and conflicts inherent in working in the organisation and competition, envy and hostility are denied or projected. Through projective identification, the recipients accept these projections and individuals and groups unconsciously assume certain roles. (According to Erlich, 2001, both splitting and projection, as well as a wish for submersion in the whole take place, implying that enmity fluctuates.) In multidisciplinary teams, intergroup or interdepartmental relationships are duplicated in the team (Roberts, 1994). Interdisciplinary rivalry or failure to coordinate activities resembles the situation before the boundary was enlarged and the primary task redefined. Conflicting membership demands and dual management with questions about where the authority is located create additional problems. In a clearly structured and relatively unchanging organisation, both the conscious and unconscious elements of roles help people to perform the primary task of the organisation (Stokes, 1994). A stable management not only provides a clear definition of the organisation's primary task but also serves as a reliable container for ambivalent feelings towards authority. Interdepartmental tension serves the same purpose as the tension between workers and managers. The structure of the organisation thus supports an appropriate struggle with the task of the organisation.

In an environment where the structures (including authority structures) of organisations are more flexible and where interdependency in organisations and between organisations is becoming the norm, it is increasingly difficult to identify a target for projections - an outgroup to "fight" against (Stokes, 1994). This results in an increase in personal stress and interpersonal tension in groups. The organisation no longer serves as a container for people to work out and work through the ambivalent feelings surrounding work, and organisational conflicts are forced down to the individual and interpersonal levels. The paranoid-schizoid

position implies fragmentation and splitting of systems which, in turn, make it easier for managers to make the decisions, give them power and promote a top-down management style. To resolve this situation, the organisation has to understand, interpret and work through collective defences. This will enlarge the organisation's capacity to adapt in a manner appropriate to the task in terms of a rational distribution of authority, clear role and boundary definitions and the management and regulation of these roles and boundaries (Gould, 2001). Collaboration between systems is needed and the different systems (individuals, groups and the organisation) should function as open systems with the awareness that transactions with the environment are important for survival and growth (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). Boundary permeability should be optimised.

Each of the subsystems of an organisation has its own primary task and a unique character while also being related to the organisation as a whole. "Boundaries define what is in and out of any system ..." (Klein, 1999, p. 97). Although boundaries exist to contain anxiety (Cilliers, 2000; Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000), the subsystems are also regarded as open systems and transactions related to the organisation's task occur across the boundaries between systems. Continuous interchange with the environment (materials, people, information, ideas, values or fantasies) is necessary for existence and survival (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001; Stacey, 2001). Relationships thus exist between the social and technical and between the part and the whole (i.e. between the individual and the group and between the group and the organisation). The boundaries both separate and link, and as the relationships between systems are continuously renegotiated and redefined, boundaries should be regarded as regions rather than lines (Miller, 1993). Mediating activities in this region protect a system from disruption due to external changes (insulation) and also help the system to adapt to these changes (permeability). Roles and activities associated with mediating relationships between the inside and outside are a function of the ego or as is often the case, a leadership function. In this regard, Obholzer (2001) states that a core function of leadership is to create a vision and strategy for the future and to maintain an awareness of the organisation's primary task. At the same time "individual" contributions to the overall task have to be held within group and organisational norms and boundaries. Cilliers and Koortzen (2000) refer to the process of negotiation across boundaries as representation, but caution that representatives are disempowered if authority boundaries are not clearly specified.

5.2.3   The organisation and society

In terms of containing systems thinking (as opposed to purposive systems thinking), organisations, especially public institutions, also serve as containers on a broader level for social anxieties (e.g. sickness and disorder) (De Board, 1978; Obholzer, 1994b; Stokes, 1994). Large social systems such as the health-care system, churches and the educational system could provide reliable and stable containers for anxieties for society as a whole. However, if the container functions in the paranoid-schizoid mode, there will be denial of reality and fragmentation in the system. In a depressive mode, the parts of the system communicate, there is agreement about the primary task, and the nature of the anxieties projected into the system is also acknowledged. An appropriate response to reality is therefore possible. Examples of systems psychodynamics at societal level are the church as a social institution which has been designed to deal structurally with basic interdependence (Carr, 2001) and regression to a paranoid position with the creation of a common enemy (regressive enmity), common in the case of large groups and also occurring at a national level (Erlich, 2001).

The task of the church is to manage dependency (reliance on others) and transform this to the healthier state of interdependence (taking up personal authority but acknowledging the relationship with the environment). This view of the church and its role as container, however, reflects a specific cultural orientation, and Carr (2001) refers to the need for considering cultural differences when studying the dynamics of organisational and group life. Regressive enmity implies that groups, organisations or social and political processes push commonly held opinions and positions to extreme limits to create and sustain the belief in an enemy. Anxiety thus leads to the development of the prototype of the internal psychic enemy into a social reality. This process is co-influenced and co-determined by various factors, such as paranoid elements in the leader's personality which are perceived to contribute most to a paranoid culture in an organisation. Erlich (2001) regards the boundary as nonbinding, the place where significant living takes place and where play and creativity are allowed. Because of its link between internal and external reality and between self and otherness, however, it is also the region in which the enemy is created. Normal rivalry and competitiveness result in creative conflict as long as there is an adequate assessment and judgement of reality. The enemy needs to be experienced as part of the self while also recognising the separate and

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independent existence of the other. This results in mature object relations and admiration and positive relatedness develop in addition to conflict. However, communication is required to be able to retrieve projections making small groups (which implies more negotiations and greater clarity and firmness in terms of boundaries) less inclined towards regressive enmity. This process also leads to realisation of one's own limitations and realistic self-definition implying a need for the anxiety caused by the enemy.

5.3   GROUP   RELATIONS   TRAINING   AND   ORGANISATIONAL CONSULTATION: THE TAVISTOCK MODEL

The Tavistock approach is used in group relations training where the dynamics in interpersonal, intergroup and institutional relationships are studied. This approach is also used in organisational consultation where the interrelationships between the systems in an organisation are analysed and the covert and dynamic aspects of these systems interpreted.

5.3.1   Experiential learning

The systems psychodynamic perspective is applied in what is known as the Tavistock approach to group relations training (Gould, 2001; Luft, 1984; Smith, 1980). Bion's (1961, 1975) theory underlies the work at the Tavistock Institute in London where the concept of a group relations conference as a teaching modality (known as the Leicester Conference) developed under the guidance of A. Kenneth Rice (Fraher, 2004). The work has been carried on by others, prominent amongst them Eric J Miller, both at Tavistock and other institutions including the A.K. Rice Institute in the USA (Miller, 1993). The conference serves as a temporary educational institution consisting of members and staff, and the dynamics of leadership and authority relationships in groups are studied experientially as the conference is formed, evolves and ends (i.e. dynamic aspects are studied both structurally and as an emergent culture). The task is to study the nature of authority, the exercise of authority and problems encountered in exercising authority in the context of interpersonal, intergroup and institutional relationships in the institution (Fraher, 2004; Lawrence, 1999a; Miller, 1993; Rice, 1965, 1975). The conference is organised around study group sessions, intergroup sessions, institutional events, review and application groups, orientation groups, role analysis

groups and conference plenaries. These sessions allow for work on different aspects of group behaviour (the assumption being that individuals cannot be understood or changed outside the context of the groups in which they operate). The nature of the sessions varies, for example, individuals' feelings of loss of identity in large groups make the study group seem comfortable. Each element in the training design has a primary task and categorisation of behaviour is only done in relation to the specified task.

The focus is on the here and now (Cilliers, 2001) and members of the conference learn about their own involvement in the dynamics of the institution. Learning is thus experience based. Members study the nature of authority, leadership, followership, roles and group and organisational processes (Cilliers, 2000). Implicit assumptions that reinforce the way in which members relate to one another individually, in and between groups, are examined (Rice, 1965, 1975). The aim is to develop more effective ways of relating, with relatedness referring to the mutual influence between the individual and the group, between a group and another group, between a group and an organisation, and between the organisation and social systems. It is assumed that each member is involved in the common group tensions and that only by proper interpretation of the group processes and dynamics and its unconscious nature can progress be made by individual members. "Central to the learning process is the repeated discovery of the presence of irrational and unconscious processes that interfere with attempts to manage oneself, the group, task and roles in a conscious and rational way" (Obholzer, 1994a, p. 46). Through understanding, the individual member learns to manage the boundary between the inner world and external reality. This, in turn, enables him or her to take up his or her own authority and accept the responsibility associated with such authority (this does not occur without some pain). Members are then able to manage themselves in a role or roles rather than merely acting in response to the group processes (Miller, 1993). The primary focus of the conference is not on the individual (although individuals gain insight into their own functioning) but rather on how individual behaviour reflects and represents the unconscious emotional life of the group.

The consultant provides task, territory and time boundaries. He or she is actively involved in the learning taking place (Cilliers, 2000) because the relatedness between the consultant and the group is one of the aspects studied (Lawrence, 1999a). The consultant needs to accept his

or her role for the group members in taking on and dealing with their projections onto the consultancy staff of fantasies and fears related to authority (transference and countertransference refer). A function of the consultant is to focus the group's attention on authority relationships and the fantasies in this regard. The consultant furthermore uses himself or herself as instrument and he or she needs to be aware of subjective experiences and own valence. McCormick and White (2000) refer to a number of methods that enable the consultant to use the self as a diagnostic tool. The consultant interprets what is actually happening in the group by means of description, process observation and thematic development. Working hypotheses are provided that may be tested and verified or falsified by the group. The aim is to create an awareness with the members of what is happening in the here and now. Acting in role is important since the primary task of the consultant is to show by example an adherence to the idea of work rather than emotionality. Since the consultant is seen as an expert, idealisation is possible (Pogue White, 2001). According to Smith (1980), group members regard the consultant as distant, less emotional, less friendly, less gratifying and more authoritarian than facilitators in other types of experiential groups. Smith (1980) comments on insufficient empirical work, the lack of evaluation studies and the need for more substantial research on the benefits to be derived from this approach.

5.3.2   Structural intervention

The Tavistock approach is also used in organisational consultation as initially explored by Rice and Miller in their 1967 publication on the systems of organisations (Gould, 2001). Luft (1984) refers to this as structural intervention, and Czander (1993) to consultation in terms of the organisation's psychic structure. The consultant analyses the interrelationships of boundaries, roles and role configurations, structure and organisational design, and work culture and group processes (Gould, 2001). This is done through the selective interpretation of and feedback on the covert and dynamic aspects of the systems in the organisation, focusing on relatedness, the psychological distribution and exercise of authority versus formal authority, beliefs, fantasies, anxieties, social defences and patterns of relationships and collaboration. Czander (1993) identifies aspects of the system that need to be addressed as boundary maintenance and regulation, task analysis, authority and leadership, role definition, interorganisational relations and subsystem dependency and autonomy. One needs to

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differentiate between the content, that is, the particular task, and the different levels of processes occurring simultaneously in the organisation as a whole, in subsystems and in individuals. The organisational structure is considered in terms of its social defence functions (Cilliers et al., 2004).

5.3.2.1 Stages in the consultation process

In certain contexts, consultation focuses on the organisation as a whole and consists of a large group intervention or consultation with the different systems (or groups) of the organisation. The focus can also be on a specific system or group only. Consultation is done over a series of meetings that are time limited and the intervention leads to understanding communication patterns and enabling the system (or group) to further explore these when needed. Seel (2001) refers to a number of structures and processes appropriate to facilitating large groups (but also relevant to other types of groups) and these refer, inter alia, to a safe environment for the sessions and boundaries in terms of time and task. Considering different applications, consultation seems to follow a similar pattern. Haslebo (2000b) lists the stages in the consultation as referral, learning about the organisation and forming hypotheses, designing the consultation and agreeing on the contract, interviewing to gather data, presenting ideas, planning and incorporation into the organisational life and the exit of the consultant. According to Neumann (1997), the organisational development cycle includes scouting, entry and contracting, diagnosis, planning and negotiating the intervention, taking action and evaluating the action. The examples below illustrate the progression of structural interventions.

Bar-Lev Elieli (2001) suggests a process for facilitating organisational transition by working with a large group. This includes initial and follow-up meetings with management, a review period with the relevant group and ongoing consultation at different levels, as needed. The breaks between sessions during the review are also important because they serve as boundaries containing something for the group. Seel (2001) also emphasises awareness of the time before and between sessions and the impact that interaction during these times could have on participants.

In addition to large group intervention, intervention aimed at changing organisational culture also focuses on different groups representing the organisation (Stapley, 2001). As suggested by Bar-Lev Elieli (2001), Stapley (2001) also believes that the process should start with discussions with management. Organisational issues are then identified in a session with a group consisting of management and staff representatives. This is followed by exploration of these issues in an event held with a number of small and large groups from a representative sample of members of the organisation. An intergroup event including all participants in the intervention process is also necessary, and ongoing work includes review meetings and workshops with different combinations of role players. The aim is to work with the issues related to the external holding environment (the organisational culture) as well as the internal psychological holding environment of the different groups. Cilliers (2000) suggests a more structured version of the above approach in which the whole intervention process resembles the group relations conference with large group, small group and intergroup events as well as review and application groups to ensure continuation of here-and-now learning in other contexts. The aim is to explore unconscious needs and anxieties that result in resistance to development and change.

Both the initial contact with management (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001; Stapley, 2001) and the suggested intergroup event following small group events (Stapley, 2001) were included by Erlich-Ginor and Erlich (1999) in their work with a health service experiencing trauma. Information was collected, inter alia, by speaking to the director. (Further contact with the director was by means of personal consultation.) A meeting was held with the entire staff to form a diagnosis and to do the contracting. The staff group was split and three parallel work sessions were held with two groups, followed by a plenary, three work sessions with each of the initial two groups split into smaller groups, and a final plenary. Follow-up work focused on the leadership.

Nielson (2000) followed a more detailed programme which included the stages suggested thus far. A request was received from a personnel department concerning management and cooperation in one of the departments in the company. During contact with the manager of the relevant department background information on the department was obtained, the possibility of a climate survey was discussed, and an initial contract was formulated.

Thereafter a meeting was held with the manager, the assistant manager and the staff to discuss the consultation. A climate survey was completed and analysed and a theme day was held to discuss the results during which staff worked in small and combined groups. Individual interviews were held with all the staff members after which a three-day seminar and team-building session was held that dealt with cooperation and performance goals. Afterwards the supervision of the manager by the consultant continued for approximately two months. This intervention also illustrates the integration of different methods and tools (such as a personality questionnaire and the climate survey) as part of systemic consultation.

5.3.2.2   *The consultant's role*

The role of the consultant is similar to that in group relations training and as such the active involvement of the consultant needs to be emphasised (Cilliers, 2000). The relatedness between the consultant and the group, his or her role as an object of authority and the projections implied, feelings experienced by the consultant, interpretation and hypothesis formulation, and helping the members of the system to develop insight are relevant aspects of the consultant's role. Phillips and Phillips (1993) caution that the consultant should be aware that there are times when intervention is inappropriate. Miller (1993, p. 213) also states that despite increased insight on the part of the client, "what we cannot do is to predetermine what use they will make of these opportunities. Perhaps one of our more important functions, as they set about their task of managing themselves, is simply to be available." The code of professional conduct drawn up by the Institute of Management Consultants (IMC) emphasises the client's requirements and interests while also referring to the integrity, independence and objectivity of the consultant, and his or her professional responsibility (Lynch, 1999).

The consultant provides some interpretation of what is happening in the group, helps the group to focus on the future and draws some conclusion (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). Cilliers and Koortzen (2000) refer to specific individual and group behaviours on which the consultant focuses, namely the management of anxiety through defence mechanisms, exercising authority, the nature of relationships, leadership practices, the management of boundaries and intergroup relationships. Cilliers et al. (2004) also refer to the importance of roles (both process and formally sanctioned roles) and organisational features such as its structure, design

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and the work culture. Sometimes interpretations develop from transitive ideas or blind intuition on the part of the consultant. The consultant suggests hypotheses to the client and a negotiated understanding of the unconscious is then reached and verbalised (Cilliers, 2000; Stacey, 2001). This interpretive stance creates a holding environment that provides for the development of clarity of task, roles and boundaries. (This follows the intersystemic perspective rather than the complexity perspective referred to by Stacey, 2001, with its emphasis on the quality of personal relationships.) According to Haslebo and Nielson (2000), hypotheses draw on information gained during the interaction with the system, previous experiences in consultation and theoretical understanding.

According to Stapley (2001), transference and countertransference in the relationship with the consultant should also be explored and used because the consultant could be used by the group. The feelings experienced by the consultant offer evidence of underlying and unstated feelings in the client system. Seel (2001) refers to the consultant's awareness of own experiences to identify possible projections and introjections as well as to intervene in terms of the here and now to break patterns of noncontribution to the group's task. The consultant uses himself or herself to give meaning to information that can then be tested, redefined and applied in exploring issues. By accepting the projections and working with these consciously, the consultant acts as a container until the members are ready to take back their feelings (Stapley, 1996). The feelings that have been projected are conveyed back to members appropriately thus contributing to insight and the ability to bear anxiety. It is especially in times of change when the organisational culture (and therefore its holding environment) is disrupted that the consultant acts as a substitute holding environment to help members bear the uncertainty of change until the culture has reintegrated. Krantz (2001) also refers to the containment function of the consultant during the transition phase between the old and the new social defence system where the containment is provided by the organisation.

5.3.2.3   Role consultation

In general, participants in the consultation process are required to deal with issues from the perspective of their own roles. Lawrence (1999b) states that intervention with a view to change should start with the roles of the individual in relation to the system and the

management of oneself in role. Miller (1985) refers to the management of the boundary between person and role, of activities within the role and of interaction with other role-holders. The authority of the individual to manage external boundaries is also mentioned. Individuals are helped to reflect on what they are doing and this understanding is applied in work roles and in managing themselves in these roles, in their relationships and in terms of their organisational contributions (Miller, 1993). Role profiling involves mapping the tasks, responsibility, accountability and skill requirements associated with an organisational role.

According to Gould (2001, p. 9), organisational consultation "can be especially useful in situations in which a key executive or manager in the client system has either taken up a new role, needs to reassess the role performance in light of changing organizational circumstances, or is experiencing chronic difficulties in functioning effectively". Role consultation to such a key person is based on the assumption that insight leads to better self-management and it is regarded as developmental and psychoeducational (rather than seeing it as counselling or psychotherapy). Hutton, Bazalgette and Reed (1997) describe the procedure of organisational role analysis (ORA) as an individual method of reflective consultation for senior executives. During the consultation, the internal objects that form the client's organisation in the mind are explored in terms of external reality. The transitional object is the organisation in the mind, and a transitional relationship exists between the consultant and the client.

Pogue White (2001) explores this relationship but cautions against resorting to psychotherapy when the aim is organisational role consultation with an individual client. In the latter, both personal and organisational issues are dealt with. The individual needs to connect the self (his or her thoughts, behaviours and feelings) to the system (the problems encountered in the organisational role). It thus incorporates psychoanalytical as well as systems theory. In role consultation, inner models of experience are made conscious, personal development takes place through changing these models and systems develop by changing shared reality in an interpersonal context. The experiences of the client in the roles in consultancy are linked to organisational roles.

5.3.2.4   Consulting to organisational change

Organisational change includes changes in structures, policies, procedures, technologies, roles and cultural patterns in an effort to adapt to accelerating rates of change in markets, technologies and competitive procedures (Krantz, 2001). Czander (1993) refers to trends to make structures more horizontal, thus promoting autonomous functioning. Change requires, among other things, diagnosis, conceptualisation, planning and implementation. During organisational transition, the changes taking place refer to the outside reality and setting goals and being productive are implied. Bar-Lev Elieli (2001) refers to this as a condition of doing. However, it is important for the organisation and groups in it to also pause to reflect on the internal reality implying a state of being. The question of how a group got to the current point and where it is heading, needs to be considered. During consultation, the group is helped to understand the processes in the group and on its boundaries that are taking place during a time of change. The group needs to move past the state of being (a "tragic position") and to regain a sense of destination. In this regard, Haslebo (2000a) comments on the difficulty that managers have in accepting the fact that change is determined from the inside to a greater extent than being controlled from the outside. According to Seel (2001), organisational change is the result of changes in the relationships between people, implying that if the latter get stuck, change is also not possible. For change to be successful, conscious as well as unconscious motivations need to be considered (Czander, 1993). This implies psychoanalytic consultation which, through interpretation and insight, leads to structural change in terms of the psychic structure of the organisation. Holti (1997) suggests that a single framework for diagnosis and intervention is insufficient when consulting to complex technical and organisational changes. Different phenomena make up the psychosocial world, namely political and economic, logistical and cognitive, cultural, and psychodynamic components. Each conceptual level implies its own framework for diagnosis and intervention with interdependence between the levels suggesting relationships in terms of the interventions. Lawrence (1999c) suggests that a result of the changing work environment, say, as this relates to the field of information technology, is a reverse situation with the work becoming the container and the organisation the contained.

Krantz (2001) refers to the paradox implied by organisational change in the sense that this change affects the very feature of the organisation, namely the defence system, required to make change succeed as it disrupts established attitudes, behaviours and relationships. James

and Huffington (2004) mention disruption at the organisation's boundaries affecting its capacity to provide suitable containment for the emotional life associated with membership of the organisation and with the organisation's tasks. The loss of the containing function of the familiar and the view of an uncertain future requiring new adaptions lead to anxiety, which, in turn, fosters resistance to change. Appropriate containment needs to be provided for the transitional period between the existing defence system and before another has been developed. Structural or procedural strategies can be implemented, but the containment function is also often provided by the consultants (Krantz, 2001). James and Huffington (2004) furthermore suggest transitional spaces for reflection and working through the emotions associated with the change occurring.

The following is an example of the processes and dynamics involved in a group during organisational transition (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). The change in conditions was experienced as a crisis and there seemed to be a lack of clarity about what was happening at the various levels both inside and outside of the group. The members of the group expressed insecurity, inter alia, regarding their place and value in the organisation. They did not feel in control and seemed paralysed and depressed. There was anger in the group and it was deemed important for them to express these feelings and deal with the anger. As expected, projection onto the larger organisation ("they") and onto to those with power both inside and outside of the group took place. There was also flight behaviour in talk about the past and the future, the first being associated with better times and the latter being a source of concern. The members dealt with their fears and their need for protection by creating safety in the group - the group was seen as a family with all members being the same. This was, however, a fantasy and the group became increasingly aware they were no longer a family as symbolised by the loss of informal spaces in their work environment. They became aware of the loss of the old sense of the group's self.

The consultation focused on trying to help the group make sense of the transition and to change the internal organisation (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). The group had to support and facilitate the transition which they had to undergo in order to survive. Group members had to take responsibility for the present situation and also had to relate differently to the future. This implied taking up authority and acknowledging their own autonomy. Once issues of

belonging were dealt with a sense of cohesion could be restored. Awareness and exploration of both overt and covert aspects of reality would enable the members to generate ideas and decide together what needed to change. Constructive steps could be taken in working towards the future. One aspect that could enable them to regain their focus is that the "product" remained unchanged despite the change in working and economic conditions. In addition to this greater awareness of the processes occurring in the group, leadership issues and mediation, in terms of relationships with the rest of the organisation and the outside environment, were also emphasised during consultation.

Through the creation of greater awareness, a psychodynamic intervention facilitates the change needed in a group or team which, in turn, enables successful transition at organisational level. Cilliers (2000) found that this approach resulted in an increase in understanding of cognitive, affective, conative, interpersonal and group behaviour. At individual level, members gained knowledge about and understanding of team behaviour as well as their own behaviour, were more in touch with their own feelings and defences in this regard, and were also able to take up personal authority and act in a more empowered manner. Interpersonally, the members were more inclined to experiment with behaviour and across boundaries. Team awareness of group dynamics and its manifestations increased and there was greater acceptance thereof. Team boundaries were strengthened, resulting in a strong team identity.

Different members, however, react differently in terms of the above, resulting in dynamics associated with the intervention context. Projection onto the group itself takes place which implies a split into a "competent" and an "incompetent" section of the group with the behaviour of group members being adjusted to fit these projections. According to Cilliers (2001), psychological wellbeing influences members' ability to deal with the anxiety caused by a group relations training event, with members with a high sense of coherence being better able to understand, manage and attach meaning to the event than a low scoring group. This split in the system implies projection and projective identification in terms of a competent and an incompetent group preventing synergy in the system (and probably implying restricted learning for the high and low groups as opposed to the middle group). Seel (2001) also refers to splitting taking place in large group events with individuals denying, splitting off and

projecting their competence onto particular individuals, a section of the group or on "the group" as a vague, nonpersonal creation. Introjection affects the behaviour of those onto whom the projections take place. Competence and incompetence are thus observed as being part of different sections of the same group.

5.3.2.5   Boundary functions

Because of the group's fantasy of "family" and sameness in the study by Bar-Lev Elieli (2001), leadership in the group was not allowed to emerge. Management members experienced depression and had difficulty taking up their role. They were swallowed by the system and not allowed to function on the boundary as representing inside and outside reality. As such they could not fulfil the group's dependency needs, and it is possible that the consultant had to contain some of the anxiety caused by the changing situation for the group. Cilliers (2001) also refers to the leader becoming immobilised and disempowered by the fact that his or her authority boundaries are unclear. The group has to learn to empower its leaders to make effective representation of the group possible. Obholzer (2001) emphasises the function of leadership in managing change in accordance with adjustments in the organisation's vision and primary task. Since this involves both internal and external factors, the leaders have to be allowed (and allow themselves) to take up boundary roles. Leadership also needs to take up authority in working towards change that supports the organisation's primary task. If the exercise of this authority is not sanctioned, leadership needs to work with the underlying anxieties leading to resistance to change.

Neumann (1999) refers to the containment role of managers involved in change (a role they might share with a consultant). Similarly, Obholzer (1999, p. 89) regards the management of change as "the management of anxiety and of resistance arising from the anxiety". According to Stapley (2001), intervention should focus on senior management members in relation to the kind of holding environment they are creating. Senior management members need to create a qualitatively different holding environment that will result in other cultural changes in the organisation. Krantz (2001) describes the change efforts employed by managers as leaders as falling on a continuum from "primitive" to "sophisticated" and related to the paranoid-schizoid and the depressive positions respectively. In the paranoid-schizoid mode,

primitive defences are used to deal with anxiety and the result is either a persecutory frame of mind with cynicism and despair about the future or diminished capacity for reality testing resulting in grandiose efforts and an idealised conception of the changes to take place. In the first instance, the leaders feel change is imposed and they could react with emotional withdrawal and also project their feelings of despair onto the staff. Otherwise there might be self-idealisation of the leaders. Features of primitive change efforts include extreme expectation in short time frames, inconsistent leadership, superficial ideologies to avoid painful aspects of change, denial of human consequences and impact of change, and absence of structure to contain change processes or artificial structures. In the depressive mode there is contact with inner and outer reality, an integrated frame of mind and a sense of responsibility. This results in a hopeful attitude towards the future. Features of this mode are realistic assessment of the time needed for significant change, recognition of anxiety and opportunities to acknowledge feelings, toleration of mistakes and the ability to adjust, a realistic picture of the future that is shared, and carefully planned and executed efforts considering the human, economic and technical factors needed for successful outcomes. Krantz (2001) emphasises that this is not a rigid conceptualisation but that there is movement between the positions on the continuum.

The internal changes in a system are needed to bring about change in the system's relatedness to its environment but these internal changes can only be sustained if there is also continuous change in terms of said relatedness (Miller, 1999). A group facing change not only has to analyse the current reality in terms of what is happening in the group but also in terms of systemic relationships. The aim of an intervention is partly to facilitate understanding of systemic relationships, and through understanding, develop self-managing systems. Group members have to realise that the transition involves the whole system and that they have to link up with the whole organisation and the outside environment to ensure the success of their own transition (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). Managing change depends on "helping the individual to develop greater maturity in controlling the boundary between his own inner world and the realities of his external environment" (Miller & Rice, 1967, p. 269). In so doing, the consultant needs to understand the organisational culture and not work against it when affecting change. According to Stapley (1996, 2001), organisational culture develops out of the interrelatedness of the members of the organisation and the organisational holding

environment (thus being a process). Based on the way in which this organisational holding environment is viewed ("the organisation in the mind"), members of the organisation adopt appropriate forms of behaviour which, in turn, affect the organisational culture (which needs to fit the task of the organisation for effective task performance). The concept of a holding environment also suggests interdependence between the individual (and the group) and the environment. Consultation should be relevant in terms of this culture. For example, if the interrelatedness between the group and the holding environment results in a dependency culture, structure prevents anxiety because of a fear of being alone without support.

The regulatory function at the boundary region can be viewed from an intersystemic or from a complexity perspective (Stacey, 2001). The first implies a need to find equilibrium, and clarity with regard to task, roles and authority relationships is needed, leadership has to take up a regulatory position on the boundary, individuals need to take up their own authority, and procedures and structures as social defences against anxiety should be in place. Stacey (2001) observes that when a stable work group is seen as the desired outcome, the processes and dynamics during the intervention often have little relationship with what subsequently happens. Complexity theory is suggested as an alternative. This theory holds that the system has a spontaneously reorganising capacity with implications of creative potential of disorder. The latter, however, is not the same as the system disintegration implied by the basic assumption group but refers instead to bounded instability where new patterns of relationships develop and the future is unpredictable.

5.4   SUMMARY

The conscious and unconscious interactions between the individual, the group and the organisation can be explored by means of the systems psychodynamic approach. A psychoanalytic perspective on the individual's reaction to anxiety (including the concepts of the paranoid-schizoid and depressive positions) was expanded to include group phenomena such as basic assumptions groups which reflect the group's response to unconscious feelings, fantasies and fears. This theory is applied in organisational contexts in which work or task groups are seen to resort to defence mechanisms such as envy, denial, avoidance and splitting and projection, whereas the depressive position implies greater awareness and acceptance of

reality by the group members. Leadership in the group, the sanctioning of leadership by followers and active followership were also discussed. The open systems perspective allows for consideration of the organisation's structure, the nature and patterning of its task, and its boundaries and the transactions across them. Interaction between these organisational features and its members influences individual and group dynamics which, in turn, contribute to the development of an organisational culture (which impacts on strategic decisions and behaviour). It was indicated how the systems psychodynamic perspective has been applied in group relations training according to the Tavistock model with an emphasis on interpersonal, intergroup and institutional relationships. The chapter concluded with a discussion on how this approach is also used in consultation to groups in an organisational context especially where the intervention is aimed at effecting change. Stages in the consultation process, the consultant's role, role consultation, consulting to organisational change and boundary functions were covered. It was indicated how consultation contributes to greater awareness and understanding of group dynamics, the dynamics of leadership and authority relationships and of systemic relationships.

The ensuing chapters deal with the empirical investigation into the processes and dynamics in a management team and how these relate to the leadership style being exercised, specifically in a context of organisational change. The research method is discussed in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6
RESEARCH METHOD

The research problem refers to the relationship between leadership style and group processes and dynamics with due consideration of the role of related systems in a context of organisational change. The functioning of a management team was studied at a specific plant of an organisation experiencing change. This formed part of an intervention directed at this team. During the first stage of the intervention, insight into the issues and possible problems at the plant was gained. Individual interviews were held with some of the directors of the organisation and with the members of the management team. Preliminary hypotheses were based on the individual interviews and feedback on these was obtained from group interviews held with the management team and staff representatives. Based on the information gained during this stage, themes for a climate survey were identified and the survey was subsequently completed by all personnel at the plant. The second stage ran concurrently with the first stage and involved the management team. The general manager and the other members of his team were measured in terms of their leadership styles and personality characteristics. Individual feedback on these aspects was given. Further sensitisation of the team with regard to their functioning took place in the form of a consultation to the processes and dynamics in the team. The management team took responsibility for further developments by setting behavioural and operational goals related to the team's functioning, possible interventions in the plant and the involvement of other role players. The consultants were available whenever the team thought their help was needed. The research participants and data collection and analysis are discussed in the following sections together with a detailed layout of the actual procedures followed. Ethical concerns and the way these were addressed are also included.

6.1   RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The organisation is a South African production organisation and the respondents from the organisation were directors, members of the management team, representatives of the staff and staff members. The positions of the respondents are represented in figure 6.1. The directors and the members of the management team were primarily white, Afrikaans-speaking males. Tenure varied, with some of them having been with the organisation only a few years

and others for more than 10 years. The technical staff members were also primarily white males whereas the workers were primarily black, Tswana-speaking males. Almost half of the staff had been with the organisation for more than 12 years, but about one-third of them had been there for only a few years (De Beer & Marais, 2003). To ensure confidentiality, details of the primary task of the organisation and biographical data on individual respondents cannot be given. Note that a manager as well as a technical manager were involved for each of the two phases of production. The technical expert was the previous general manager, and the human resources manager had retired during the intervention after which the person replacing him had become involved. The members of the management team furthermore varied to some extent during the different phases of data gathering. Continuous consideration of the experiences of the researcher and the co-workers (i.e. the consultancy team) during the intervention implied that part of the consultants' role was that of respondents. These experiences were evaluated on how they reflected the processes and dynamics in the team and in the organisation.

Corporate management

(represented by the director: manufacturing and the director: human resources)

Plant   Plant   Plant

(being studied)

General manager

Management team

technical expert | production phase 1 | production phase 2 | planning & logistics | quality control | engineering | human resources | finances | marketing

Staff (with their representatives)
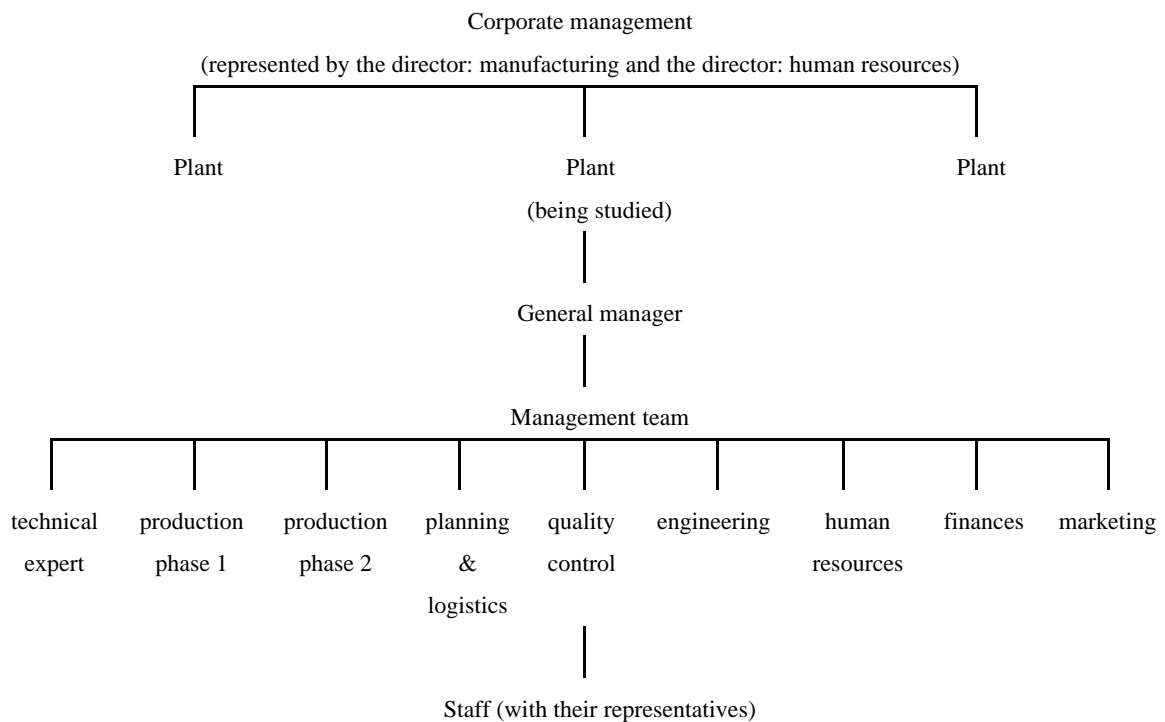
Figure 6.1: Respondents from the organisation

6.2   DATA COLLECTION

Quantitative measuring instruments, specifically leadership and personality questionnaires, were used to obtain data on the traits and behaviours associated with the different leadership styles of the members of the management team. Qualitative methods, namely interviews and observation, were used to identify the issues and possible problems at the plant and to obtain information on the processes and dynamics of the management team and related systems.

The quantitative instruments were as follows:

- the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)
- the Occupational Personality Questionnaire version 32 (OPQ32)
- the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, SA 1992 version (16PF, SA92)

The qualitative methods were as follows:

- individual interviews with some of the directors and the members of the management team
- group interviews with the management team and with staff representatives
- observation of the management team during a group consultation

6.2.1   Quantitative instruments

The MLQ was administered to determine the leadership styles of the general manager and other members of the management team. The development of this questionnaire was based on the full range model of leadership and the questionnaire also represents the operationalisation of the leadership styles included in this model. Research involving this questionnaire furthermore adds to the theoretical understanding of the model. The development of and research on the questionnaire are therefore discussed in detail.

Personality traits are associated with the leadership styles identified in the full range model, and using a personality questionnaire as part of the assessment of leadership styles seemed advisable considering the research in this regard (discussed in ch. 2). The OPQ is a measure

of personality designed specifically for the workplace. Performance on the questionnaire is used to distinguish between a task versus people orientation and has also been linked to leadership styles. The 16PF was also administered because it measures somewhat different traits in a number of contexts. These questionnaires are relevant to this study in terms of their aims and psychometric properties but they do not relate directly to the full range model of leadership and the same amount of detail on their development as given for the MLQ is therefore not appropriate here.

6.2.1.1 *The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)*

The development of the MLQ is described by Bass (1997) and Avolio et al. (1999). In 1980, a group of South African senior executives were asked to identify someone who could be described according to the criteria for a transforming leader. These transforming leaders were described as follows: they motivated followers to extend themselves, develop themselves and become more innovative; they served as role models and followers believed in them and exerted extra effort for them; and this resulted in the followers' commitment to the organisation. A total of 142 statements were based on these descriptions by the executives and on descriptions from the literature on charisma and contingent reinforcement. These were sorted by 11 trained judges into transactional and transformational leadership. The final set comprised 73 items.

The MLQ Form 1 (Bass, 1997) was administered to senior army officers in the USA who were asked to rate how often the behaviour in each statement is observed in the case of their superior officers on a range from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). Factor analysis indicated that the transformational statements could be assigned to four interrelated components, namely idealised influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Transactional leadership contained the components, contingent reward and management by exception. Laissez-faire leadership was regarded as a passive component. Based on the relatedness between some of these factors as well as subsequent factor analysis, six scales were identified. Three scales were defined as characteristics of transformational leadership, namely charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. (Although charismatic and inspirational leadership seem to form

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a single factor one should bear in mind that different behaviours are implied by these two dimensions with the first requiring identification with the leader.) Two scales were defined as being characteristic of transactional leadership, namely contingent reward and management by exception. A laissez-faire factor was also identified although items for this scale are often not included in studies with the MLQ. Based on a meta-analysis of the MLQ literature, Lowe et al. (1996) report mean Cronbach alpha values of 0.92 for charisma, 0.88 for individualised consideration, 0.86 for intellectual stimulation, 0.82 for contingent reward and 0.65 for management by exception. The internal consistency for four of the five scales met the normally accepted criterion of 0.70. Deluga (1988) reports an alpha coefficient of 0.46 for management by exception when using the MLQ (Form 5).

The number of items, the specific content and the target user population of different forms of the MLQ differ. Research with these forms indicates problems with the empirical distinction of the transformational scales, and a question about whether these scales should be considered independent of contingent reward. Management by exception furthermore seems to consist of active and passive components and when including laissez-faire items, these correlate with the passive component. Tepper and Percy (1994) also refer to subdimensions of contingent reward, namely promises and rewards. Bass (1997) mentions the intercorrelations between the transformational scales and the fact that the boundaries between contingent reward and individualised consideration may blur. Higher-order factor analysis furthermore showed that the scales can be ordered in terms of activity. It is interesting to note that a team MLQ has been developed to assess teams in terms of the components of transformational and transactional team mores, and Bass (1997) also refers to the Organizational Description Questionnaire which is used in the assessment of companies.

Den Hartog et al. (1997) supported a composite transformational scale and a distinction between active and passive components when working with the Dutch translation of the MLQ-8Y. Exploratory factor analysis indicated a solution that consists of inspirational leadership (the four transformational scales), rational-objective leadership (contingent reward and active management by exception) and a passive leadership factor (passive management by exception and laissez-fair leadership). Although the separate dimensions of transformational leadership were not found, the authors concluded that distinguishing

between these components is useful, say, for training purposes. Ackermann, Schepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2000) used the original form of the MLQ (Form 5R) to determine the factor structure of the questionnaire in the South African context. Three factors were identified, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership and avoidance of leadership. An overlap was found between contingent reward and individualised consideration and between management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire leadership. Singer (1985) measured five of the six factors originally identified (excluding laissez-faire) using the MLQ (Form 4). Tepper and Percy (1994) did a confirmatory factor analysis with the MLQ, Form X. They suggested a four-trait model with charismatic and inspirational leadership items loading on one factor and the contingent reward, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation items loading on three separate factors. Ross and Offermann (1997) also refer to only three transformational scales (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) with high intercorrelations between the three scales. Carless (1998) concludes that the MLQ-5X scales of charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation measure a single higher-order construct of transformational leadership. Bycio et al. (1995) used confirmatory factor analysis to examine the underlying structure of the MLQ-1. The results provided some support for the five leadership components but a simple two-factor active-passive model seemed to reflect the data best with the transformational scales and contingent reward being an active factor and management by exception representing a passive factor. Lowe et al. (1996) also found high intercorrelations between the three transformational scales and between the transformational scales and contingent reward.

Some studies report the measurement of four rather than three transformational components, distinguishing between charismatic and inspirational leadership. Using the MLQ (Form 5), Deluga (1988) worked with combined indices. The four transformational scales were combined in a global transformational leadership variable and the two transactional scales on a global transactional leadership variable. Howell and Higgens (1990) administered the MLQ (Form 5-Self) and also combined the four transformational scales into a single index. Using the MLQ-5X, Kuchinke (1999) found strong positive correlations between the four dimensions of transformational leadership and between these dimensions and contingent reward. Management by exception had low to moderate negative correlations with the other

dimensions. Sosik and Godshalk (2000) used items from the MLQ-5X and formed scales for transformational leadership, transactional contingent reward leadership and laissez-faire leadership (reflecting the active-passive distinction referred to earlier). Based on the results of an exploratory factor analysis done with the MLQ-5X, Wofford et al. (1998) actually combined the four transformational scales and contingent reward in a transformational factor while active and passive management by exception were used to form a transactional factor. Tracey and Hinkin (1998) tested the hypothesis that the MLQ (Form 5X) measures four related, but distinct, dimensions of transformational leadership. Results, however, indicated that the relevant MLQ scales are best represented by a single, transformational leadership scale.

According to Avolio et al. (1999), the MLQ (Form 5X) was developed to address concerns with earlier versions. For example, it includes behavioural items for all scales with the exception of the charismatic scale (which includes behavioural and attributional items). They used a database consisting of 14 separate studies with results based on subordinate ratings to find support for the six-factor model of the MLQ. In this model, attributed charisma, charismatic behaviour and inspirational leadership are merged into the factor, charisma. The other two transformational factors are individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Transactional leadership consists of the factors, contingent reward and active management by exception, while they proposed that the sixth factor is a passive-avoidant leadership factor that contains the items from the laissez-faire and passive management by exception scales. Avolio et al. (1999) mention that it was not possible to determine how long raters had worked with their respective leaders, a factor that could influence results obtained with the frequency scale anchors included in the MLQ.

During analysis, the original 80 items were trimmed down to a revised 36-item version. The reliability coefficients (coefficient alpha) of the six scales ranged from 0.63 to 0.92 and 0.64 to 0.92 for two different samples respectively. These values were regarded as adequate except for active management by exception. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the six-factor model provided an adequate fit (nine alternative models were tested), but the scales comprising the model seemed to lack discriminant validity with high correlations between transformational scales and between these scales and contingent reward, the latter correlations

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being lower. Avolio et al. (1999) stated that these positive correlations can be expected because both transactional and transformational leadership represent active and constructive forms of leadership, effective leaders display varying amounts of both types of leadership, and the consistent honouring of agreements in an exchange relationship builds the trust and dependability of the transformational relationship. Hierarchical factors were also identified which accounted for the high intercorrelations between the factor scales. Transformational and transactional contingent reward scales loaded on two higher-order correlated factors, namely transformational leadership (charisma and intellectual stimulation) and developmental/transactional leadership (individualised consideration and contingent reward). Active management by exception showed a moderate positive correlation with passive-avoidant (both correlating negatively with the other scales) and these two scales combined in a third higher-order factor that was regarded as a corrective avoidant factor. This factor was not correlated to the other two higher-order factors.

The MLQ (5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1995) was used in this study to measure the leadership styles associated with the full range model of leadership for the members of the management team. The rationale for the MLQ is that a questionnaire based on behaviours and attributes associated with leadership styles as described in the theory on charisma and contingent reinforcement should be able to provide a valid and reliable measurement of the leadership styles included in the full range model. The aim of the questionnaire is to compile a description of the leadership styles used by a manager based on ratings by that manager and others to items/statements referring to the behaviour of the manager. The MLQ (5X) consists of 36 items that measure transformational leadership (idealised attributes, idealised behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration), transactional leadership (contingent reward, management by exception [active], and management by exception [passive]) and laissez-faire leadership. The remaining nine items measure outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction).

Each of the 45 items contributes to only one factor and the score for that factor is the average of the relevant items. Each manager completes a self-assessment form on which he or she has to rate how often the leadership behaviour in each statement is practised on a range from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). A rater form containing similar statements is

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completed by one superior, one peer and four subordinates indicating how often the behaviour is observed in the case of the manager. A score is given for each of the nine leadership factors and the three outcome measures and average scores are also given for transformational and transactional leadership. An effective leader is expected to obtain a rating of 3 (fairly often) on average for transformational leadership as well as on each of the five scales, a rating of 2 (sometimes) for contingent reward, between 1 (once in a while) and 2 (sometimes) for active management by exception and between 0 (not at all) and 1 (once in a while) for passive management by exception and laissez-faire behaviour.

From the discussion on the development of and research with the MLQ and specifically with Form 5X, one may conclude that the reliability and validity of the questionnaire are adequate. The Western capitalist culture of the management team included in this study furthermore made the questionnaire suitable despite comparatively limited research in the South African context.

6.2.1.2   *The Occupational Personality Questionnaire version 32 (OPQ32)*

The OPQ32 is an updated version of the original OPQ Concept Model developed between 1981 and 1984 in the UK (SHL, 1999). Both a normative and an ipsative form of the OPQ32 were developed and standardised for various populations in the UK, namely a general population sample and a managerial and professional sample for the normative version and a standardisation sample, a managerial and professional sample, and an undergraduate sample for the ipsative version. The normative version was used in this study.

The rationale of the OPQ is that an individual's responses to statements based on behavioural preferences in terms of an occupational model of personality should be able to provide a reliable and valid measure of an individual's personality traits given the work context. The aim of the questionnaire is to describe people's preferred or typical style of behaviour at work. It was designed for the workplace and is used in a range of assessment and development applications involving the individual, the team and the organisation. These applications include selection, assessment and development centres, training and development, performance management, team building, counselling, organisational change and research.

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The 32 dimensions measured by the OPQ32 are grouped into four domains as follows: the domain, relationships with people consists of Persuasive, Controlling, Outspoken, Independent Minded, Outgoing, Affiliative, Socially Confident, Modest, Democratic and Caring; the thinking style domain consists of Data Rational, Evaluative, Behavioural, Conventional, Conceptual, Innovative, Variety Seeking, Adaptable, Forward Thinking, Detail Conscious, Conscientious and Rule Following; the domain of feelings and emotions consists of Relaxed, Worrying, Tough Minded, Optimistic, Trusting and Emotionally Controlled; and the dynamism domain consists of Vigorous, Competitive, Achieving and Decisive. The normative version also has a Social Desirability scale and the ipsative version a Consistency scale.

The normative version consists of 230 statements. Respondents are asked to rate each statement on a scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The ipsative version consists of 104 blocks of four statements each. For each block, respondents have to choose the statement that is most like them and the statement that is least like them. Raw scores are transformed into scores on a sten scale for each of the 32 dimensions (in this study the norms for the general population sample referred to were used). The sten scores are interpreted in terms of the description on each bipolar scale of a low score, an average score and a high score. (The mean of 5.5 and standard deviation of 2 are considered in determining these categories.) Scores on related scales are also considered to provide an integrated interpretation.

Internal consistency reliability coefficients ranging from 0.63 to 0.87 and from 0.67 to 0.88 are reported for the normative and the ipsative versions respectively (SHL, 1999). Factor analysis with the normative version resulted in a five-factor structure corresponding with the dimensions of the Big 5 model, namely extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience. Relationships between various versions of the OPQ and other measures of personality such as the 16PF5, the NEO PI-R and the MBTI are also reported on in the manual. Matthews and Stanton (1994) did item and scale factor analyses with the Concept 5.2 version of the OPQ. They distinguished 21 factors that relate to the original 31 Concept Model scales (some of the Concept Model dimensions merged in the 21 factor solution but the developers did not claim the scales to be factorially pure because the

aim was comprehensiveness). They also found support for a higher-order factor solution consisting of five factors similar to the Big 5 conceptualisation and an activity factor. In a similar study by Barrett, Kline, Paltiel and Eysenck (1996) only 22 out of the 31 scales emerged clearly. Swanevelder (2003) reports structural equivalence for black and white subgroups in South Africa when using the OPQ32n. Proof for the criterion-related validity of the different versions of the OPQ is based on studies done in various countries and over a range of criterion areas. This includes a meta-analysis by Robertson and Kinder (1993).

The traits measured by the OPQ can be categorised as thinking styles and problem solving patterns, relationships and interpersonal interaction and general adjustment. These traits can furthermore be linked to the descriptions of the leadership styles in the full range model. For example, a problem-solving style that allows for innovation corresponds with the transformational functions of inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation. Interpersonal interaction characterised by extroversion and affiliation indicates the people orientation associated with the transformational function of individualised consideration, less emphasis on people can be linked to the task orientation of the transactional leader and a lack of concern for others possibly implies laissez-faire behaviour. These traits relate specifically to the workplace. An overseas sample was used as basis for the interpretation of the scores, but ongoing research indicates the OPQ as a valuable tool for local use. Its suitability in this study was also supported by the cultural composition of the management team.

6.2.1.3   The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, SA 1992 version (16PF, SA92)

The 16PF is based on the work by Cattell on the measurement of personality traits. Prinsloo (1992) describes the development of the 16PF, SA92. The SA92 version comprises 160 items/questions from an original pool of more than 850 items taken from the South African A and B forms of the 16PF, as well as from the American versions of these two forms, the American C and D forms, the South African E form and the American E and F forms. During the standardisation of the questionnaire, item bias was investigated for different gender, test language and population groups. Group differences were also examined to determine whether separate norms should be reported for various subgroups and it was found that only the differences between gender groups justified separate norms.

The rationale of the 16PF is that a questionnaire based on exposed personality traits (originally based on a large number of personality descriptions) should be able to provide a reliable and valid measure of an individual's personality traits. The aim is to use the set of items to compile a personality description of an individual based on his or her responses to these items and also to be able to predict the behaviour of the individual, given this description. The personality profile obtained can be used for vocational guidance, assessment in industry, marriage and family therapy and research. Although it focuses on normal rather than pathological personality traits, it has also proved to be valuable in clinical applications. The items of the 16PF are combined into 16 primary personality traits named in the manual of the fifth edition of the American version of the 16PF (Russell & Karol, 1994) as Warmth, Reasoning, Emotional Stability, Dominance, Liveliness, Rule-consciousness, Social Boldness, Sensitivity, Vigilance, Abstractedness, Privateness, Apprehension, Openness to Change, Self-reliance, Perfectionism and Tension. (A list of descriptive terms rather than factor "names" is used for the other forms of the questionnaire.) These traits are combined in groups to obtain scores on second-order factors, which in the case of the SA92, are defined as Extroversion, Anxiety, Emotional Sensitivity, Independence and Compulsivity (Prinsloo, 1992). A score is also obtained on the Motivational Distortion Scale (MD Scale) which indicates a person's attempts to influence his or her personality description in a socially acceptable or desirable fashion.

Each item consists of a statement with three response options scored as 0, 1 or 2. The items are combined into 16 bipolar scales and raw scores are transformed to a sten scale with a mean of 5.5 and a standard deviation of 2. According to Prinsloo (1992), the 16PF, SA92 can be used for persons who are at least 18 years old, understand Afrikaans or English well and have a level of formal education of at least grade 12. The norm population meets these criteria and consists of samples from the academic environment and industry. Demographic variables that were considered included, gender, test language, home language, population group, age group, qualification levels and study or career field. Norms are available for the total group and for males and females separately (the latter tables were used in this study). The sten scores are interpreted in terms of the description on each bipolar scale of a low score (range of 1 to 3), an average score (range of 4 to 7) and a high score (range of 8 to 10). Scores on related scales are also considered to provide an integrated interpretation.

Factor analysis during the standardisation of the 16PF, SA92 yielded approximately the same structure as found in existing forms providing support for the validity of the questionnaire (Prinsloo, 1992). The Kuder-Richardson (K-R 8) coefficients for the primary factors ranged from 0.51 to 0.82 for the total sample (similar values were found for the gender groups), while the reliability coefficients calculated by means of Mosier's formula for the second-order factors ranged from 0.74 to 0.90. Subgroup comparisons in terms of the reliability and validity of the questionnaire furthermore showed no significant differences, and Prinsloo (1992, p. 26) concluded that "the questionnaire measures the same constructs, structured in the same way, in a reliable, valid and unbiased fashion among testees from any relevant subgroup". Certain population groups were, however, under-represented in the normative sample and research has been stimulated by the question of the use of the 16PF, SA92 with the multicultural workforce in South Africa (Abrahams, 1994). Van Eeden and Prinsloo (1997) report acceptable results regarding the reliability of the questionnaire for different population groups and similar second-order factor structures were also found (although some culture-specific trends were noted). Abrahams and Mauer (1999a, 1999b), however, recommend that this questionnaire should not be used cross-culturally, inter alia, because the reliability coefficients were not acceptable for all the groups included in their study. Differences in the profiles of means were found between white and black samples in both the study by Van Eeden and Prinsloo (1997) and that by Abrahams and Mauer (1999a, 1999b). It is important to consider not only statistically significant differences but also the magnitude of these differences and their impact in practical terms. Given the cultural influences on test performance, differences in mean profiles are expected. However, one should examine these differences to determine if the definition of the construct and the items measuring it take cognisance of cultural differences in the manifestation of the construct, especially if the differences reflect negatively on a specific group or could lead to discrimination. Owing to market developments, inter alia, interest shifted to the feasibility of standardising the fifth edition of the 16PF for South African use (Van Eeden, Taylor & Du Toit, 1996). A distinguishing feature of this and similar local research is the efforts to control for language proficiency (Prinsloo, 1998). Although this is an essential first step in developing or adapting questionnaires for multicultural use, more attention needs to be focused on the validity and manifestation of constructs across cultures.

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There are similarities and differences in the traits measured by the OPQ and the 16PF, and the two instruments complement each other. The 16PF is furthermore not limited to the work context but provides a personality description across various contexts, thus adding to the information obtained with the OPQ. The same categorisation of traits as for the OPQ can be used, namely thinking styles and problem-solving patterns, relationships and interpersonal interaction and general adjustment. As in the case of the OPQ, the traits in each of these categories can be linked to the descriptions of the leadership styles in the full range model. It is an advantage that the 16PF, SA92 was standardised locally, and given the cultural composition of the management team included in this study, problems were not foreseen with the use of the questionnaire.

6.2.2   Qualitative methods

The aim of the individual interviews with the directors was to obtain background information to form a general impression of the context and also to identify behavioural and operational issues at the plant. This aim directed the interviews which can therefore be regarded as semistructured one-to-one interviews. The information obtained was also used to guide the individual interviews with the members of the management team. These interviews can also be described as semistructured with a view to further exploring the issues identified.

One of the aims of the group interviews held with the management team and with a group consisting of staff representatives was to obtain feedback on the preliminary interpretation of behavioural and operational issues at the plant. This implied a structured task while allowing some flexibility in the conversation between participants. Some ideas on the processes and dynamics in different systems were also formed.

Observation during a group consultation session with the management team led to further hypotheses on the processes and dynamics in the management team and in the plant and organisation. Although structure was introduced in terms of time, task and role boundaries, it was the day-long group session in particular that provided an opportunity for exploring the natural functioning of the management team.

6.2.2.1   Individual interviews

According to Greeff (2002), the interview is the predominant mode of data or information collection in qualitative research because it enables the researcher to understand experiences from the participant's point of view. Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999) also regard the interview as a more natural form of interacting than, say, questionnaires and therefore as suitable for the interpretive approach where the aim is to understand how the participant thinks and feels. By using individual interviews, the researcher formed an impression of the research context as seen by corporate management and by the management team at the plant as well as allowing for individual experiences of this context. Identifying and exploring behavioural and operational issues by means of this method furthermore allowed for a variety of perspectives and associated feelings. It also enabled the researcher to form preliminary ideas about the processes and dynamics in the management team, the plant and the organisation.

The one-to-one interview is furthermore divided into unstructured interviews, semistructured interviews and structured interviews, the latter not being as suitable for qualitative research as the other two types of interviews (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). In the case of the unstructured interview, the individual is allowed to talk in depth about his or her feelings and experiences while being broadly guided by the researcher's purpose. A semistructured interview is organised around a particular area of interest and requires an interview schedule or list of key topics and subtopics. It nevertheless allows for flexibility, scope and depth.

The interview procedure starts with the planning for the interview which includes decisions about the broad purpose (in the case of unstructured interviews) or the interview schedule (in the case of a semistructured interview). With regard to the environment, issues such as disturbance and privacy need to be considered. The actual interview starts with a summary of the purpose and reference to the time it will take as well as the confidentiality of what is being said. Efforts are made to establish rapport by, say, starting with an open-ended question and avoiding sensitive topics. The flow should not be interrupted during the interview. Interview skills include listening, using truly open-ended questions, following up on what the participant says, asking for clarity, exploring, focusing the participant, tolerating silence and avoiding leading or sensitive questions, interruptions and teaching or counselling. The

interview concludes with a general question on anything that the participant would like to add. According to Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999), one-to-one interviews lasts from 20 minutes to an hour and a half.

Everything that is recorded during an interview needs to be transcribed to form an idea of the context in which statements are made, feelings expressed, etcetera (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). Notes (referring, inter alia, to the researcher's own feelings and expectations) should also be taken during the interview and as soon as the interview is over. Greeff (2002) states that the researcher's personal reactions are a vital source of information. If tape recording is not possible, detailed notes must be taken and clarified and elaborated on as soon as possible after completion of the interview.

According to De Vos (2002), data analysis starts at the research site during the collection of the data, is continued away from the site following periods of data collection, and is concluded once all the data have been collected. The process of recording and organising the data as well as analytical notes written during this process imply analysis. Janesick (2000) supports this ongoing analysis of the data. The researcher has to be immersed in immediate actions and statements of participants while keeping in mind the substantative focus and his or her own presuppositions. Concepts are reassessed and refined, hypotheses generated and tested and working models and theories developed that explain the behaviour being studied. Data gathering and analysis thus occur simultaneously. Familiarisation with and immersion in the data enable the researcher to develop ideas and hypotheses about the phenomenon being studied (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). This is followed by a preliminary identification of themes or categories, coding or labelling sections of the data as relevant to one or more themes and refinement of the themes as internally consistent but distinct from one another. De Vos (2002) suggests that the main themes should be limited to five or six categories that are internally consistent and distinct from each other. These themes are developed from the patterns in the data over the entire time frame of the study (Janesick, 2000; Stake, 2000). Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999) refer to this phase as breaking the data down while elaboration and interpretation involve building it up again in a meaningful and integrated manner. Themes and subthemes need to be linked and interpreted in order to define a core issue at an abstract level. This should be done in a critical manner being aware of, among

other things, contradictions and overinterpretation, and considering other plausible explanations. Using the self as instrument is a valuable characteristic of qualitative research, but also implies that the manner in which the researcher's own perspective shapes the data collection and interpretation needs to be reflected on in reporting the findings. In writing up the findings, the principles of congruence and plenitude should be adhered to (Kelly, 1999c). The first refers to the internal consistency and coherence of the narrative and the latter to its comprehensiveness. A balance between contextual detail and generality should also be maintained.

6.2.2.2   *Group interviews*

In the case of group interviews, individual experiences as well as the processes and dynamics of the group as a whole are explored (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). Group interviews are structured in terms of the task, but the goal is still to understand participants' thinking on experiences. This implies some guidance and facilitation (questions on specific topics are usually developed) but also a degree of flexibility in the conversation between participants (Morgan, 2002). Preliminary hypotheses on behavioural and operational issues at the plant were formulated and the group interviews afforded participants an opportunity to reflect on these hypotheses, thus guiding the rest of the investigation. The preliminary ideas about the processes and dynamics in the management team and related systems were also explored.

During the planning phase of the group interview, questions on specific topics or issues need to be developed. Sufficiency (reflecting the population) and saturation (repetition of information) play a role in decisions on the participants. Greeff (2002) suggests that a group of 6 to 10 participants allows everyone to participate while also resulting in a range of responses. As in the case of the one-to-one interview, the environment should be suitable, the purpose, time frame and issues of confidentiality need to be discussed (indicating the possibility of more than one session) and rapport has to be established. Conducting the interview requires interview skills and the group facilitator or facilitation team should also be skilled in group processes. The interview concludes with a general question on anything that participants would like to add. According to Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999), an hour and a half is the maximum time that participants in a group interview can be expected to

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concentrate. Greeff (2002) refers to group sessions lasting from one to three hours.

Recording what is being said and note taking are similar to the one-to-one interview (Greeff, 2002; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). Kelly (1999a) comments that note taking (as opposed to recording) is more practical in the case of groups. As in the one-to-one interview, simultaneous data gathering and analysis and ongoing analysis of the data as well as development of themes over the entire time frame of the study also apply in the case of group interviews (De Vos, 2002; Janesick, 2000; Stake, 2000; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). The principles of congruence and plenitude in writing up the findings are also relevant (Kelly, 1999c).

6.2.2.3   *Observation*

According to Strydom (2002b), participant observation is a research procedure that is typical of the qualitative paradigm. What makes it a popular form of data collection in interpretive research is the fact that it is naturalistic and takes place while things are actually happening (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999). The researcher's role varies from total involvement, on the one hand, to total observation, on the other, depending, among other things, on the objectives of the study and available resources. The term "participant observation" seems to emphasise the involvement of the researcher in the setting being studied (as in an ethnographic study), therefore referring more to one side of this continuum. The term "observation", however, is preferred in the present study indicating a more structured (although not positivist) approach with less active involvement by the researcher. All forms of observation nevertheless depend to a greater or lesser extent on participation and on direct contact with the participants. Observing the functioning of the management team during a group consultation was the primary source of information on the processes and dynamics, especially in this team, but also in related systems. Note that the consultation session included feedback to the team.

In preparation, the researcher needs to determine a clear focus in terms of the research problem, the research questions and the specific objectives of the study. Developing a comprehensive view of a particular group is time-consuming (Strydom, 2002b, refers to months or even years) and for practical reasons, the researcher has to compromise in terms

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of the limits of his or her commitment. Although the research setting should maximise the opportunity for studying the problem, Strydom (2002b) also lists a number of practical considerations, namely it should be easily accessible, cooperation should be easily achieved, the researcher needs to be able to move freely and the required information needs to be easily obtainable. Access is often gained through formal or informal gatekeepers (Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999) but the researcher also needs to decide on the degree of openness with participants in terms of the aim of the observations and advantages for them (with due consideration of ethical implications). The researcher establishes a relationship with the participants which includes negotiations on his or her role, establishing confidentiality, gaining trust and cooperation and establishing boundaries in terms of, inter alia, the duration of the relationship. The researcher should be alert to the possibility of getting too close and losing perspective versus staying distant and having no empathy. Although he or she needs to remain focused in terms of the research problem, openness to unexpected information is essential.

According to Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999), record keeping implies taking comprehensive field notes on the research setting and on what people say and do (rather than using a tape recorder). For practical reasons, notes might have to be written up or expanded after an observation session. Field notes include an account of the participants, of events that took place, of the actual discussions and communications and of the researcher's attitudes, perceptions and feelings (Strydom, 2002b). Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999) also include methodological issues. Guidelines to be kept in mind in the description of a session or sessions are as follows: an episode can be classified as a sequence of group interaction focusing on the same theme for a number of minutes; a transition is a shift in focus or content, a shift in level of feeling, silence or a leader intervention; and interludes refer to interactions not classifiable as episodes. The data analysis and report writing in the case of observations are similar to those described in the previous sections for interviews. Strydom (2002b), however, emphasises the problem of subjectivity in the case of observations because this not only influences the data collection and interpretation but the mere presence of the researcher changes the natural situation (which is in fact the object of study).

6.3 THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The whole organisational intervention lasted approximately six months and consisted of two stages that ran concurrently. During the first stage, behavioural and operational issues were identified, while the second stage focused on the sensitisation of the members of the management team in terms of individual and group functioning. The procedures followed during these stages are set out below. At the end of the intervention, a brief report on leadership, the functioning of the team, and the processes and dynamics in the plant was handed to the general manager. The content was also summarised during feedback to representatives from corporate management. The general manager, with the help of the human resources manager, took responsibility for further developments. Some involvement by the consultants was foreseen, for example, the presence of a consultant in management meetings, evaluation and selection of new team members, implementing an assessment centre and the readministration of the climate survey.

6.3.1 First stage: Identifying behavioural and operational issues

During the first stage of the intervention, insight into the behavioural and operational issues at the plant was gained and some ideas were formed on the processes and dynamics in the different systems. This stage included the following procedures in the order that they were carried out: individual interviews with some of the directors; individual interviews with the members of the management team; a group interview with the management team; and a group interview with staff representatives. Based on the preceding information, a climate survey was constructed and subsequently completed by all personnel at the plant. This survey did not form a part of the present study and is therefore not reported on in any detail. However, some corroborating results are used in chapter 8.

6.3.1.1 Individual interviews with some of the directors

The aim of these interviews was to form a general impression of the context in which the intervention was to take place and also to identify more specific behavioural and operational issues. Since corporate management had requested the intervention, interviews were planned and conducted with the directors involved. The consultants interviewed the director: manufacturing to discuss the issues at the plant as he saw them and to make initial suggestions

about a possible intervention. These suggestions were adapted during an interview with the director: human resources.

Although a great deal of flexibility was allowed with little input from the consultants, the general aim nevertheless directed the interviews which could therefore be regarded as semistructured interviews. The researcher kept detailed notes at each of these meetings. These notes were transcribed as a description of what took place and what was said during the meetings, and a preliminary identification was made of the issues covered as well as the dynamics underlying these issues. Reflective notes on personal experiences and a critique on the procedure were also kept for each interview and for the relevant period. An example of the data obtained during this procedure is given in appendix A.

6.3.1.2   *Individual interviews with the members of the management team*

The aim of the interviews with the members of the management team was to convey to them their ownership of the intervention and to obtain their opinions on behavioural and operational issues. The opportunity for discussion of their viewpoints was already regarded as part of the intervention because this started the sensitisation with regard to individual experiences, team functioning and interrelationships in the broader context. An interview was held with the general manager to elicit his opinion on the proposed intervention and to point out to him that the intervention process should "belong" to the management at the plant.

The general manager consequently arranged a day-long visit by the consultants at the plant, including lunch with the management team, a tour of the production processes and individual interviews with the members of the management team. The first interview at the plant was held with the general manager and subsequent interviews held with the managers for the two phases of production, the human resources manager, the financial manager, the planning and logistics manager, the technical expert, the quality control manager and the engineering manager. For practical reasons, this order differed somewhat from the original schedule presented by the general manager.

At each interview, a brief introduction on the aim of the interview was given and

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confidentiality established. The interviews were semistructured with occasional prompting by the consultants in terms of the issues identified during earlier interviews. (Probing occasionally resulting in more leading or sensitive questions but these were limited.) When necessary, the consultants also asked for clarification of issues, opinions, behaviours, experiences and feelings. The tour of the production processes implied more time spent with these managers, whereas the other interviews varied between 15 and 30 minutes. Issues relating to trust were expected (based on background information) and it was decided that the respondents would be more comfortable without a tape recorder. This had implications for the accuracy of the data recorded, especially in terms of the time period between the interviews and typing the interview notes. A degree of interpretation also took place in the recording and typing of the data. However, this was not seen as problematic because qualitative research implies an inseparable relationship between data collection and data analysis (De Vos, 2002).

The researcher kept detailed notes during each interview (covering aspects such as seating and whether the door was open or closed). These notes were transcribed as a description of what took place and what was said during the interviews, and a preliminary identification was made of the issues covered as well as the dynamics underlying these issues. Reflective notes on personal experiences and critique on the procedure were also kept for each interview, for the total interview procedure, and in general for the period during which this procedure took place. An example of the data obtained during this procedure is given in appendix B.

A thematic analysis of the data gathered during the individual interviews was conducted to identify themes on operational and behavioural issues at the plant. Themes and subthemes were explored and reference was made to the dynamics observed. Appendix C provides an example of one such theme as explored by the researcher.

6.3.1.3   *Group interviews with the management team and staff representatives*

The trust developed during the previous interviews provided the basis for further communication and for effective use of group techniques. Feedback on the preliminary interpretations was obtained during a group interview with the members of the management

team as well as a group interview with staff representatives. The aim was threefold, namely to obtain validation for preliminary hypotheses from both the management team and other role players, to start exploring the functioning of the management team in a group situation and to continue their sensitisation in this regard (thus continuing with the actual intervention) and to include other role players in the intervention.

A group interview of limited time (approximately two and a half hours) was arranged with the management team and a separate group interview (approximately one hour) with staff representatives. During the first interview, the themes and subthemes were presented for discussion with little intervention by the consultants. There were differences in the degree of participation of the managers reflecting on the processes and dynamics in the group. The second interview included representatives from all levels including some members of the management team and this was a relatively large group requiring more structure to ensure participation by all. The themes were presented to them asking for questions on each theme that they would like to see included in a climate survey.

The researcher took detailed notes during the interviews. These notes were transcribed as a description of what took place and what was said during the interviews and a preliminary interpretation, specifically in terms of the processes and dynamics observed in each group. Reflective notes on personal experiences and a critique on the process were also kept for each interview and in general for the relevant period. Appendix D contains an example of the data obtained during this procedure.

6.3.2 Second stage: Sensitisation of the members of the management team in terms of individual and group functioning

This stage included measurement of the leadership styles and personality characteristics of the members of the management team and individual feedback in this regard (sensitisation in terms of individual functioning). The processes and dynamics in the team as well as in related systems were also explored in depth during this stage (sensitisation in terms of group functioning). This stage included the following procedures in the order that these procedures were carried out: administration, scoring, interpretation and feedback on the MLQ, OPQ and

16PF; and a group consultation with the management team. Based on the insights gained during this stage, the management team formed behavioural and operational goals related to the team's functioning, possible interventions in the plant and the involvement of other role players. The aim was continuation of the work started during the intervention. These objectives did not form part of the present study and are therefore not reported on in any detail. The information does, however, to some extent reflect the degree of sensitisation that occurred during the intervention, and is used as such in chapter 8.

6.3.2.1   Administration, scoring, interpretation and feedback on the MLQ, OPQ and 16PF

The aim of administering the questionnaires was to obtain data on the traits and behaviours associated with different leadership styles as part of the exploration and description of the functioning of the managers. The individual feedback provided also helped managers to understand their preferences and behaviours in various contexts including the work situation, and thus formed part of the intervention process. The human resources manager arranged a session with the management team during which the rationale of the administration was explained and the personality questionnaires were completed. The manager who was qualified to do so conducted the administration. The leadership questionnaire implies self-rating and ratings by others, and the questionnaire was distributed with instructions for completion to the relevant individuals. Paper-and-pencil versions of the questionnaires were used, and all the questionnaires were completed in English. The researcher provided guidelines for the human resources manager. The researcher also did the scoring and interpretation and together with one of the other consultants gave individual feedback. The test results and the reports based on these results were treated as confidential.

6.3.2.2   Group consultation with the management team

A day-long group consultation session was held with the management team. The aim was to explore the processes and dynamics in the team and also in relation to other systems in the broader context. This session was central to the intervention process in terms of the sensitisation of team members regarding their experiences as individuals and as a team and how this related to their behaviour in various contexts. Preliminary hypotheses concerning

the dynamics in the team were discussed by the consultants beforehand and they planned the day in terms of time, task and role boundaries. Four time periods were planned (the first being one hour and the others one and a half hours) with lunch and two tea breaks in between (each lasting 30 minutes). The stated task was to resemble a team building exercise, starting with a discussion of a matrix of the managers' preferences as obtained from the leadership and personality questionnaires. This provided an opportunity for studying the group processes and dynamics. The consultancy team included a primary and secondary consultant and an observer/recorder (the researcher). A time schedule was given to the general manager who, with the help of the human resources manager, made arrangements in terms of the venue, lunch and tea breaks and the availability of the other members of the management team.

The group session resembled what Smith (1980) refers to as a team development design where an intact work group meets as before, but the agenda is limited to the improvement of working relationships between those present. There is no task-related goal; nor is the idea to develop skills (interpersonal or otherwise), but instead to create an awareness of current working relationships and possible desired change in this regard. The limits are reasonably firm but the process still relies on trust and openness. Time, role and task boundaries were stated at the beginning of the session but the session itself was unstructured to allow observation of the processes and dynamics in the team. The roles of the consultants were kept clear at all times as well as the role of the observer/recorder. In the group session the consultants' inputs could be described as oscillating between active and less active, according to the systems psychodynamic approach. According to this approach, the consultant analyses the relatedness in the team and with other systems in the organisation (Gould, 2001). This involves the selective interpretation of and feedback on covert and dynamic aspects of the systems in the organisation (Haslebo & Nielson, 2000). Czander (1993) identifies factors that need to be addressed as boundary maintenance and regulation, task analysis, authority and leadership, role definition, interorganisational relations and subsystem dependency and autonomy. It is also necessary to differentiate between the content (the task), and the different levels of processes taking place simultaneously in the organisation as a whole, in subsystems and in individuals. Participation by the researcher was implied (especially given the broader context or earlier interaction with the management team) but to a lesser extent than that indicated by the term "participant observer".

As suggested by Greeff (2002), notes were taken not only on what was being said but also on the order of speaking, nonverbal communication, seating and casual conversation in the here and now. These notes were transcribed as a description of what took place and what was said during the sessions and the breaks and a preliminary interpretation, specifically in terms of the processes and dynamics observed. Reflective notes on personal experiences and a critique on the process were also kept in terms of the day's proceedings and in general for the relevant period. Appendix E provides an example of the data obtained during this procedure.

6.4 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Although data gathering and data analysis occurred simultaneously, the analysis to some extent followed the same order as in the previous section. Analysis of the information gained during the first stage included a thematic analysis based on the individual interviews and validation of the preliminary hypotheses based on the group interviews. The second stage resulted in leadership and personality profiles and comprehensive hypotheses on the processes and dynamics in all the related systems, based on observation during the group consultation. The analyses and interpretations based on the various steps were integrated in concluding hypotheses together with theoretical explanations of the findings.

6.4.1 First stage: Identifying behavioural and operational issues

A thematic analysis was done of the individual interviews with the directors and the members of the management team. Themes and subthemes on behavioural and operational issues at the plant were identified. Implications for the processes and dynamics in the management team and in related systems were also analysed. These preliminary hypotheses were further explored on the basis of the group interviews with the management team and the staff representatives.

6.4.1.1 Thematic analysis based on the individual interviews

Detailed notes were kept during the individual interviews. These notes contained memos on themes, processes and dynamics. In typing up these notes, impressions and hypotheses were

used to organise the data. Some editing was done to clean up the data and to make the data more manageable. Analytical notes were made on issues and dynamics from the interviews. As suggested by various authors (e.g. Kelly, 1999c; Warren, 2002) reflective notes were made throughout in terms of personal experience and critique on the procedure. The latter contained methodological and theoretical notes. These initial stages of data analysis and interpretation implied immersion in the detail to obtain a sense of the whole.

Interpretive research implies that the researcher needs not only to describe the understanding of participants with regard to the phenomena being studied, but to also actively interpret these descriptions. Kelly (1999b) refers to this as the balance between insider and outsider accounts. Although theory was used in the interpretation, it was kept in mind that theoretical understanding should not be imposed on a specific situation. The case study approach followed here implied content analysis with subsequent identification and interpretation of recurrent themes. Information was analysed with a view to identifying main and subthemes and the relationships between them. Themes and subthemes were identified that related to operational and behavioural issues in the management team and in the plant and the organisation. These were refined and produced five main themes that were internally consistent and distinct from each other. These are discussed in chapter 8 together with an indication of the processes and dynamics in the team and related systems as revealed by these themes. Personal reflections were considered throughout the interpretation process to support or clarify arguments. These reflections were valuable in the interpretation of the dynamics.

6.4.1.2   *Validation of preliminary hypotheses based on the group interviews*

The researcher made detailed notes during the group interviews with the management team and staff representatives. Similar to the notes on the individual interviews, these notes contained memos on processes and dynamics as well as personal experiences. The data were organised and analytical notes made on the processes and dynamics observed, while reflective notes contained personal experiences and comments on methodological issues.

De Vos (2002) refers to an openness in the interpretation to subtle and tacit undercurrents of social life, salient themes, recurring ideas or language and patterns of belief that link people

and the setting. The processes and dynamics observed during the group interviews are described in chapter 8. Theory on the systems psychodynamic approach was constantly kept in mind without being imposed on the specific findings. As in the thematic analysis, personal reflections were valuable both in interpreting the data and supporting hypotheses.

6.4.2 Second stage: Sensitisation of the members of the management team in terms of individual and group functioning

Leadership and personality profiles were constructed for each member of the management team and for the entire team, and on the basis of this information, individual feedback sessions were held. The profiles were also used to further explore the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership and in the consideration of the processes and dynamics in the various systems as these related to leadership. Observation during the group consultation session with the management team led to the testing and expansion of the hypotheses concerning the processes and dynamics in the team and in related systems.

6.4.2.1 Analysis and interpretation of leadership and personality questionnaires

The MLQ, OPQ and 16PF were scored and the raw scores for the personality questionnaires transformed into scaled scores. A qualitative interpretation was done of the leadership and personality profiles of each of the members of the management team who completed the questionnaires (or for whom they were completed in the case of the MLQ rater form). The results of the OPQ and of the 16PF were interpreted separately under the headings, problem-solving patterns and thinking styles, interpersonal interactions and relationships with people and general adjustment including feelings and emotions. The results of all three questionnaires were integrated for the individual feedback sessions. The aspects covered were creativity and innovation, problem solving and analysis, planning, organising and quality orientation, interaction and sensitivity, flexibility, leadership, resilience and personal motivation. The team was also described in terms of similar traits, namely analytical and innovative, conscientious, objective, socially confident, socially perceptive, people oriented, caring, trusting, influencing, assertive, consultative and participative, resilience, motivation, transformational leadership behaviours, transactional leadership behaviours and passive

behaviours.

A comparison was made of the ratings provided by the manager and by raters for the dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership and for passive behaviours on the MLQ. Two groups were formed, namely managers who used both transformational and transactional leadership and managers who did not indicate a preference in terms of leadership style. These groups were each described in the terms of their thinking styles and problem-solving patterns, relationships and interpersonal interaction and general adjustment. These descriptions were used to gain further understanding of the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership (see ch. 7). The leadership and personality profiles of the general manager and the management team (as reported on in ch. 7) were furthermore used in exploring the processes and dynamics in the management team in relation to leadership and the leadership style(s) being exercised (see ch. 8).

6.4.2.2   *Hypotheses based on observation during the group consultation session*

Detailed notes were again kept and these observational or field notes also contained memos on processes and dynamics as well as personal experiences. The information was organised and analytical notes were made on the processes and dynamics observed. Personal experiences and methodological issues were also noted.

Chapter 8 contains a detailed description of the group session together with hypotheses on the processes and dynamics in the management team and in relation to the broader context. The systems psychodynamic approach was used to form these hypotheses (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997; Cilliers et al., 2004; Czander, 1993; De Board, 1978; Gould, 2001; Miller, 1993; Miller & Rice, 1967, 1975, 1990; Stokes, 1994). As in previous analyses, personal reflections were used to interpret the data and support hypotheses. These stages of data interpretation were experienced as difficult because of the complexity and ambiguity involved but formed the basis for the interpretation of the research situation in its totality.

6.4.3   **Concluding hypotheses**

Based on recurring themes in the preceding analyses, the information was interpreted and conclusions drawn. This led to the formulation of hypotheses on the processes in and the dynamics of the organisation and management team. Leadership theory, group theory and theory on the systems psychodynamic approach were used to understand the findings. The results of the climate survey and the strategic objectives formed by the management team, are not presented in detail. However, at this stage, this information was used to support hypotheses and to form some idea of the sensitisation that took place.

Repetition in the information obtained, implied that a saturation point had been reached - that is, the point at which sufficient interaction with the context has occurred to ensure the checking and exploration of interpretations (Johnson, 2002). According to Kelly (1999a, p. 380), the saturation point is reached "... when new information no longer challenges or adds to the emerging interpretative account; when no relevant new information emerges; when category development is dense and rich; when relations among categories are well established and validated ...". Using different sources and techniques to obtain information enabled the researcher to verify the interpretations and explore (plausible) alternative explanations. These are essential processes to ensure the validity of qualitative research (De Vos, 2002; Greeff, 2002).

A saturation point also had to be reached in drawing conclusions. Although at least a degree of generalisation in terms of the conclusions is required in all research (Stake, 2000), because of its contextual nature, there are limits to the transferability of the findings of an interpretive case study (Kelly, 1999c). The aim is the generation (rather than the testing) of hypotheses and the focus is thus on the validity rather than the generalisability of interpretations (Schneider & Shrivastava, 1988). A description of the research situation and context and detailed information on the procedures followed were provided to help determine the extent to which findings can be generalised to other settings.

6.5   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations refer to issues such as informed consent, right to privacy and confidentiality, deception and debriefing, cooperation and competence and accuracy in all

aspects of the study, including its publication. An encompassing consideration is therefore protection from harm, referring to everyone involved in the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Strydom, 2002a).

Although the focus of this study was the description and interpretation of certain phenomena, this was done in the context of an intervention. The intervention was requested by corporate management and approval was obtained from the directors and the general manager at the plant for the proposed project plan and for the use of the results for a thesis. According to Kelly (1999a), this could have resulted in the consultants being associated with the vested interest of these "gatekeepers". The study was presented only as an intervention to the members of the management team and other staff because it was deemed that they would be more motivated if they saw the intervention as beneficial to them. The consultants endeavoured to give the participants ownership of the work, and throughout the intervention discussions were held between the consultants and the general manager and between the general manager and his team on what the current status was and what the next step would be. The intervention was to some extent voluntary and not all team members participated in all the procedures.

The consultants and participants agreed that all information, be it from an individual or obtained in a group context, would be treated as confidential by both the consultants and the participants. In reporting on this information, privacy is ensured by not referring to the organisation by name, by using a description of their posts when referring to individuals from the plant and by referring to co-workers as consultants. Recognition by those who participated in the study is still possible and the individual reports based on the psychological questionnaires are therefore not provided as part of the study.

Efforts were made to keep everyone who participated in the study informed as it developed. However, because of the flexibility implied by a qualitative study, participants experienced some confusion about the inputs and their aims, especially in relation to the group consultation session. An open approach probably does not always make sense to people who are used to working in a structured environment. The main outcome of the intervention was the sensitisation of the management team in terms of the functioning in this team and in the

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plant and organisation. There were indications that the approach followed could have impacted negatively on the long-term value of this awareness. Continuation of observation and feedback by the consultants would probably have led to greater success.

There was furthermore potential for conflict in the outcomes visualised by the directors, the general manager and the consultants - for example, the dual aim of this study as research for a thesis and as an intervention. The consultants dealt with this issue by ensuring that at all times the implication of an action for a participant (or participants) was the main determinant of whether and how this action should be implemented. Janesick (2000) refers to this as a willingness by researchers following a flexible procedure to deal with ethical issues as they present themselves. Multiple sources and techniques were also used to ensure that the interpretation was reflective of the participants' experiences and not merely a presentation of the researcher's own biases. Existing theory was used as a frame of reference during interpretation. Subjectivity is nevertheless part of qualitative interpretation and one of the advantages of this approach is that the researcher uses himself or herself as instrument.

6.6   SUMMARY

Research on the relationship between leadership style and group processes and dynamics in a context of organisational change was conducted at a plant of a South African production organisation. An intervention aimed at the management team of this plant provided the opportunity for the research. One of the objectives of the intervention was to gather information on behavioural and operational issues that could be problematic and that might need to change. Not only was the researcher interested in recurring themes in this regard, but also processes and dynamics related to individual experiences, the functioning of the management team and the interrelationships in a broader context, were studied. A further objective of the intervention was to sensitise the members of the management team to behavioural processes and dynamics. Respondents in this study included various people in the organisation and at the plant (with the primary respondents being the plant's management team), while the consultants also played a role as respondents. The methods of data gathering (quantitative as well as qualitative) were discussed and the actual procedures followed in using these methods to obtain information as well as the steps in the analysis of this

information were set out in detail. The research procedures included individual interviews with some of the directors and members of the management team, group interviews with the management team and staff representatives, the use of leadership and personality questionnaires and a group consultation session with the management team. The steps in the data analysis and interpretation included a thematic analysis based on the individual interviews, validation of the preliminary hypotheses based on the group interviews, analysis and interpretation of the leadership and personality questionnaires, expansion of hypotheses based on observation during the group consultation session and formulating concluding hypotheses. Ethical considerations and the way in which these were dealt with were also discussed.

The information gained from the leadership and personality questionnaires on transactional and transformational leadership is explored in detail in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: TRAITS AND BEHAVIOURS ASSOCIATED WITH TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The full range model of leadership emphasises both the interpersonal and visionary aspects underlying leadership. The leader's behaviour is described in terms of how this behaviour manifests and impacts on the interactive process as well as the effect of the behaviour in terms of follower outcomes (Avolio, 1997; Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Den Hartog et al., 1997). The importance of followers' perception of the leader's behaviour is also acknowledged (Avolio et al., 1999).

Conceptualisation of this model is primarily qualitative and is based on various theories. However, the concepts are operationalised as questionnaire results (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1997), and research in terms of the different theories is often quantitative (e.g. Church & Waclawski 1998; Howell & Higgens 1990; Miller et al., 1982). Although the assessment of personality relies on a qualitative description in which the manifestations of various traits are interpreted in an integrated fashion, leadership studies based on the trait approach are mostly quantitative with comparisons of the personality traits of groups that differ in terms of leadership style. Quantitative results, such as mean scores for a group on specific traits, provide a limited representation of the group members' leadership styles, traits and behaviours. Firstly, such results do not provide for the effect that variation between members as well as the preferences of the majority versus that of the exceptions, have on processes and dynamics. Secondly, the same result on a specific trait has different interpretations depending on the way in which it is combined with other traits. Instead of relying on descriptive statistics, a qualitative description of group results based on the integrated profiles of its members was used.

This chapter focuses on the following aim as stated in chapter 1: to gain an understanding of transactional and transformational leadership through a description of the traits and behaviours of managers exercising these styles. Although questionnaires were used to measure leadership (the MLQ) and personality (the OPQ and the 16PF) quantitatively, a qualitative and integrated description of the traits and behaviours of the managers exercising

different leadership styles was used to contribute to the understanding of the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership. (Note that the relatively small sample is appropriate given the qualitative nature of this study and despite the limited numbers, clear trends were observed.) Based on this understanding, profiles of the general manager and the management team as a whole were constructed. These profiles were used to explore the role of leadership when considering the processes and dynamics in the management team and in related systems (see ch. 8). The results on the MLQ are followed by the results on the OPQ and the 16PF. An integrated discussion of these results is given next and the chapter concludes with the mentioned profiles.

7.1 ATTRIBUTES AND BEHAVIOURS AS MEASURED ON THE MLQ

In this section, the leadership styles measured on the MLQ are described, followed by the MLQ results for the managers in the study.

7.1.1 Description of the leadership styles measured on the MLQ

Bass and Avolio (1994, 1995) provide generic descriptions of the leadership styles as measured on the MLQ. These descriptions are given here as basis for further exploration of the traits and behaviours of the managers in this study in relation to their leadership styles. Note that these authors use the term "associates" to refer to superiors, peers and subordinates in line with the ratings by these associates of the leadership behaviour practised by a manager. In the present study the terms "follower" is used more often in describing the relationship between the manager and others.

7.1.1.1 Transformational leadership

The transformational leader increases associates' awareness of what is right and important, emphasises development, and raises the motivational maturity of associates to move them to go beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group or organisation. He or she provides them with a sense of purpose that goes beyond an exchange of rewards for effort provided. This is done through idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and

individualised consideration.

Idealised influence includes idealised attributes and behaviours. Associates trust the leader, emulate his or her behaviour, assume his or her values and are committed to achieving his or her vision and making sacrifices in this regard. They identify with the leader, and he or she uses this identification in the constructive development of associates. Associates are challenged in a positive and reassuring manner, their achievements are celebrated and they feel a sense of empowerment and ownership. The leader needs to exhibit the behaviours that encourage this trust and identification and the sharing of a vision and of goals. He or she expresses his or her values and beliefs and ensures that others are clear on the purpose of the group or organisation and on their role in accomplishing goals. The leader shows dedication, a strong sense of purpose and perseverance despite the personal cost and confidence in the purpose and the actions of the group that helps to ensure the success of the group. He or she has an inner direction, a high activity and energy level, awareness of possibilities and future trends and behaves morally and ethically. The leader is a role model and associates show pride, respect and faith in him or her. He or she is seen as consistently doing the right thing.

Inspirational motivation refers to the leader's ability, enthusiasm and optimism in creating a vision of the future as well as the use of challenging but simple words, symbols and metaphors to convey this vision. A different and more challenging future is presented in a meaningful manner that emphasises the mutual attractiveness of this future, thus moving associates to achieve extraordinary levels of accomplishment in terms of performance and their own development. Individual and group or organisational goals are aligned, opportunities utilised, controversial issues dealt with and the leader is seen to commit to the vision. Specific goals and expectations are clearly communicated, high standards are set and confidence is expressed in associates' ability to achieve these levels of performance.

The intellectually stimulating leader approaches a problem by questioning assumptions previously used to address this problem. He or she also values the intellectual ability of associates and endeavours to develop their creativity. Others are encouraged to reframe problems, use a holistic perspective in understanding problems, question the status quo and approach problems from different angles perhaps not previously considered, thus creating

readiness for change and developing the ability to solve current and future problems. Mistakes are regarded as a constructive part of the learning process and the leader does not criticise others publicly. When there is no time constraint, the leader involves associates in the problem-solving process, soliciting new ideas and differing perspectives. This leads to commitment by associates. He or she encourages a broad range of interests, the use of imagination and intuition, the identification and implementation of quality solutions but also the generation of simpler solutions.

Individualised consideration implies that the leader considers the ability of associates and their level of maturity to determine their need for further development. He or she also has empathy with associates' needs and aspirations and responds timeously to their requests. He or she is prepared to take care of the group's needs, giving personal attention, listening to others' concerns and providing feedback, advice, support and encouragement. The leader furthermore designs appropriate strategies to develop associates to achieve higher levels of motivation, potential and performance. This includes teaching and coaching by the leader, delegation of tasks and responsibilities that provide appropriate challenges and learning opportunities and the assignment of projects based on individual ability and needs. Each associate is treated as an individual and this lessens frustrations and competition and leads to greater readiness for cooperation. Although the leader values the group's successes, he or she also shows appreciation for each associate's potential to contribute to these successes.

7.1.1.2   *Transactional leadership*

Transactional leadership implies explicit or implicit contracts between the leader and associates. The leader clarifies expectations and exchanges promises of reward or disciplinary threats for the desired effort and performance levels. The transactional leader uses a task-oriented or a relations-oriented style, depending on what is most appropriate in a given situation.

Using the contingent reward strategy, the leader sets goals and clarifies what is expected of associates while also indicating what associates will receive for accomplishing these goals. Successful completion of the task meets the leader's needs while the reward meets the

followers' needs. The leader is specific in terms of who is responsible for achieving performance targets, provides resources and assistance through suggestions, consultation, monitoring and feedback, expresses satisfaction with targets that have been met and delivers as promised. This entails a proactive facilitation of what associates do and how hard they try and the result is that associates achieve goals at expected levels of performance. This exchange can be participative or directive, depending on the level of development of associates. The exchange should also include reference to factors not under the control of the leader or associates that could affect performance.

The active leader who practices management by exception, looks for mistakes, irregularities, exceptions, deviations from standards, complaints, infractions of rules and regulations and failures. He or she takes corrective action before or when these occur. The leader makes arrangements to monitor subordinates' performance and takes appropriate steps to correct problems when detected. He or she sets certain standards and regularly monitors the extent to which followers meet these standards. Subordinates are consequently afraid of making mistakes and tend to avoid taking risks, relying on more traditional methods in the performance of their duties and therefore not performing at high levels. A more hands-off style could also imply that subordinates develop their own missions.

The passive-reactive leader who practices management by exception only takes action when things go wrong. He or she is reactive and only takes corrective action when complaints are received, mistakes are brought to his or her attention, things go wrong and problems arise and become chronic. Subordinates react by maintaining the status quo.

7.1.1.3   *Nontransactional leadership*

Laissez-faire leadership or inactive leadership implies that the leader does not seem interested in what is going on and does not take responsibility for the projects he or she controls. The leader avoids setting goals, organising priorities, becoming involved when important issues arise, taking a stand on issues and making decisions. Associates do not perceive the leader as involved, caring about their work, managing them appropriately and having an effect on their performance. He or she is absent when needed, fails to clarify expectations, does not address

conflicts, avoids dealing with chronic problems and fails to follow-up requests for assistance. This almost always has a negative impact on effectiveness and satisfaction.

7.1.2 Ratings of the management team in this study on the MLQ

In terms of the MLQ, a transformational leader is expected to obtain a rating of 3 (fairly often) on average for transformational leadership as well as on each of the five scales. Note that these scores are based on the average over higher-level raters, same-level raters and lower-level raters, and exclude the ratings by the leader of his or her own behaviour. In this study the number of raters varied between three and eight with five to six being most common. According to the full range model of leadership, more effective leaders also display the other styles to some degree. A rating of 2 (sometimes) is expected for contingent reward, between 1 (once in a while) and 2 (sometimes) for active management by exception and between 0 (not at all) and 1 (once in a while) for passive management by exception and laissez-faire behaviour.

The general manager and three members of the management team from the production side of the plant could be described as transformational in terms of their average for transformational leadership and the ratings for idealised attributes, idealised behaviours, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation (the general manager obtained the highest ratings on these scales). Two of the managers also showed a high degree of individualised consideration, while the other two (including the general manager) were rated somewhat lower than expected for a transformational leader. Interestingly, all four managers used the transactional style (specifically contingent reward and active management by exception) to the same extent as they used the transformational style. These managers seldom used passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. There was some discrepancy between the ratings by others and the self-ratings, especially in the case of individualised consideration with the managers' ratings of themselves being higher. This corresponds with the findings of Church and Waclawski (1998, 1999) and Singer and Beardsley (1990) that managers rate themselves as more transformational and as more transactional compared with the ratings of co-workers. The discrepancy between the raters' scores for each manager was moderate.

Three managers from servicing departments and one from the production side of the plant used transformational, transactional and nontransactional behaviours to the same extent. They did not meet the ideal ratings for transformational leaders in terms of their average for transformational leadership and the ratings on the subscales. Exceptions were the higher ratings on inspirational motivation for two of the managers and on inspirational motivation and idealised influence for one of them. The managers used transactional behaviour (specifically contingent reward and active management by exception) to an acceptable degree (i.e. a rating of 2) with a higher rating on contingent reward for one of the managers. Their use of passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership could, however, have impacted negatively on their effectiveness. The managers rated themselves higher on the transformational and the active transactional scales than their raters, and also as seldom using laissez-faire leadership (again this is in line with earlier research on supervisor and subordinate ratings of leadership style). The discrepancy between the raters for each manager was moderate to high.

To summarise: an effective leader is expected to use transformational behaviours fairly often, to sometimes use the transactional behaviours associated with contingent reward and active management by exception, while hardly ever relying on passive management by exception and laissez-faire behaviour. Two groups were identified in this study. The one group of managers met the criteria for an effective leader in terms of their reliance on transformational behaviours as well as the absence of behaviours associated with passive management by exception and laissez-faire behaviour. However, they fairly often also used contingent reward and active management by exception as part of their leadership style. The second group sometimes used behaviours associated with all the styles, that is, transformational leadership, contingent reward and active management by exception, as well as passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. In the next two subsections, the traits and behaviours associated with each of these groups of managers are described, followed by a discussion of the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership in terms of these traits and behaviours.

7.2 TRAITS AND BEHAVIOURS AS MEASURED ON THE OPQ AND THE 16PF

The managers were evaluated on the personality questionnaires in terms of their cognitive styles, the way they deal with relationships and their personal adjustment and coping skills. A description of each group is given in terms of these categories, and in the next section the traits and behaviours are related to the functions of the different leadership styles.

7.2.1   Managers who used both transformational and transactional leadership

This section contains the descriptions of the four managers who used transformational leadership as part of their management style. The high occurrence of transactional behaviours was also considered.

7.2.1.1   Thinking styles and problem-solving patterns

The different managers' styles varied from a focus on the medium term (giving some consideration to longer-term and to more immediate issues) to a focus on the longer term (adapting a strategic view when planning and setting goals). In general, the managers were organised in their planning without becoming preoccupied with detail. They preferred the structure provided by guidelines and adhered to standards, rules and regulations in the work context. Three of the managers indicated that they were responsible and persevering, seeing tasks through to completion and meeting deadlines (although in the case of one of them, adherence to rules and standards was at times at the cost of completing a task or meeting deadlines, especially if this implied repetitive or routine actions). In a broader context, these managers also took their moral and social obligations seriously and indicated that they were disciplined individuals who strived to behave in a considerate and socially approved manner. The fourth manager was somewhat less dependent both in a work and social context.

Three of the managers were intellectually adaptable and scored average to high in terms of their interest in theoretical concepts and generating new ideas. In the case of the high scorers, there were indications of individualism and somewhat unconventional ideas with strong (even radical) support for change. A preference for working at an abstract level and dealing with theoretical concepts, as well as being creative and innovative, were also noted. In producing inventive ideas, the managers would have considered the theory and complexity of issues and

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were probably creative across a wide range of different fields. They were furthermore questioning and willing to critically evaluate information and experiment with change, preferring new ways of approaching the issues facing the organisation. Their initiatives, however, did not necessarily oppose recognised requirements because they were also more conforming. The fourth manager was moderately interested in generating ideas, but at the same time was grounded in his approach, and preferred working with practical material.

The managers scored average to high-average in terms of critically evaluating information and plans. The interest in analysing either facts and figures or people issues was mostly average with tendencies or stronger preferences in either noted for some of the managers. However, all the managers were objective in their approach, implying that they dealt with problems in a logical and matter-of-fact manner, not allowing emotions to influence their decision making.

7.2.1.2 *Relationships and interpersonal styles*

The managers indicated that they were socially perceptive with insight into themselves and others. This implied that they behaved appropriately in social situations. However, with one exception, they were somewhat consistent in their behaviour rather than adapting to the situation or to people. Three of the managers scored high in terms of extroversion and average to high in terms of affiliation (being outgoing and interested in people and enjoying the company of others). They indicated trust in and tolerance towards others, and scored average to high in terms of the concern and support showed towards others. However, being objective and outspoken individuals, they were somewhat direct in the manner in which they provided support. These managers were furthermore willing to work as part of a team and to some extent relied on group support. They also scored average to high in terms of social confidence and appeared to be assertive and outspoken individuals. The fourth manager scored average in terms of extroversion, his confidence and involvement in social situations, and the trust and caring that he showed towards others. He was, however, self-reliant and tended to be comfortable spending time alone.

The managers scored average to high in terms of their willingness to take control, direct

people and manage others as well as in terms of a preference to influence others through negotiation and persuasion. Three of the managers were assertive and outspoken in terms of opinions and criticisms while also taking criticism well. They seemed rather passionate and even forceful in conveying their ideas and could have appeared single-minded. They emphasised the importance of adhering to standards and completing tasks. At the same time these managers were open to suggestions, involved others in decision making, and relied on group support with a need for consensus (implying that sufficient direction was not always given). The fourth manager was reasonably willing to express his opinions, but preferred to make decisions alone, although in a work context, he was somewhat inclined to adapt and accept the majority decision.

7.2.1.3   *General adjustment*

One of the managers indicated that he was resilient and emotionally stable and that he adjusted to realities in a calm and controlled manner. He was self-assured, confident of his ability to cope with demands and not adversely affected by pressure. Indications of tension were balanced with an overall ability to relax. He was somewhat optimistic about the future, and viewed situations and people positively. (Note that this optimism implies that a manager might not always appreciate potential problems.) The other managers scored average to high in terms of resilience and their management of tension, but varied in emotional stability, self-confidence and the way they saw the future.

The managers in this group were ambitious and achieving individuals who formulated demanding goals and targets for themselves and others. They indicated moderate to high competitiveness and were also energetic and enthusiastic. They scored average to high in terms of decisiveness. With one exception (where impulsivity was noted), their energy was well directed implying productive behaviour.

7.2.2   **Managers who did not indicate a preference in terms of leadership style**

This section deals with the four managers who indicated that they used transformational, transactional and nontransactional behaviour to the same degree.

7.2.2.1   Thinking styles and problem-solving patterns

One of the managers seemed more strategic, while the others focused on the medium term. In general, the managers were organised in their planning without becoming preoccupied with detail. No clear pattern was distinguished in terms of adherence to standards, rules and regulations in the work context, concern for task completion and deadlines, and regard for moral and social obligations. Low, average and high scores were obtained on these traits.

The strategically oriented manager seemed intellectually adaptable with a tendency to abstract thinking, creativity and a rather radical approach (rejecting established methods for new ideas and change). The other managers varied in terms of a practical versus a theoretical focus and in terms of their interest in producing ideas for improving existing methods.

Three of the managers showed a tendency to critically evaluate information and plans while the level of analysis of the fourth manager seemed straightforward and lacking depth. The managers emphasised working with numerical and statistical information and basing their decisions on facts, whereas their interest in understanding people ranged from low to high. They were generally objective, implying a tough-minded approach to decision making.

7.2.2.2   Relationships and interpersonal styles

The managers indicated that they were socially perceptive and had insight into themselves and others. This implied that they behaved appropriately in social situations. However, with one exception, they were somewhat consistent in their behaviour rather than adapting to the situation or to people. One of the managers scored high in terms of extroversion and also showed a tendency to be affiliative, relying on group support and preferring to work with the group. He was socially confident and probably also responsive in these situations, although some restraint was implied by a tendency to be wary of others. He indicated that he was not that concerned about the welfare of others and that he did not become involved in people's personal problems. The other three managers scored average in terms of extroversion but indicated that they were rather reserved and impersonal, preferring to spend more time alone, with at least occasional contact. They showed trust in people but varied in terms of concern

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and support for others. They furthermore scored low to average in terms of group reliance, but average to high in terms of social confidence and responsiveness in these situations.

The managers were reasonably prepared to take charge of a situation (implying that they were fairly comfortable in a managerial or supervisory role), but varied in terms of their interest in persuading others, with only one of them showing a preference for using negotiation in communicating his ideas. These managers were assertive and outspoken in terms of their opinions, while also taking criticism at least reasonably well. They could be quite passionate in conveying their ideas, and where a manager was less inclined to analyse arguments properly, he or she might appear opinionated. As indicated, one of these managers was more participating and also indicated that he involved others in decision making and went along with the majority decision. The other managers either indicated some willingness to consult with others, while being self-reliant in making the final decision or not entering into a discussion with others, but at times accepting the group decision even when disagreeing with it.

7.2.2.3   *General adjustment*

Three of the managers indicated that they were resilient, emotionally stable and relaxed individuals who were confident of their ability to cope with demands and not adversely affected by pressure. A degree of complacency was possible and this could have impacted on their motivation and energy levels. They scored average to high in terms of having a positive outlook on life and trusting people, and they could have seemed overly optimistic or unconcerned. The fourth manager was reasonably resilient but indicated some apprehension about his ability to cope with demands as well as suspicion of the intentions of others.

The managers scored average to high in terms of ambition and competitiveness, but with one exception, showed moderate levels of energy and drive, taking things at a more steady pace. They varied from being cautious to being reasonably decisive in decision making.

7.3   LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ASSOCIATED PERSONALITY TRAITS

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When distinguishing between management and leadership, two components of the influencing process underlying leadership are distinguished, namely a visionary and an interpersonal aspect. Both innovative and visionary traits as well as interpersonal skills have also been identified as being associated with effective leadership. Although these traits to some extent underlie all the functions of transformational leadership, it is possible to group inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation with the visionary aspect and idealised influence and individualised consideration with the interpersonal aspect. This distinction also resembles the differentiation made by some theorists between identification with goals (inspirational leadership) and identification with the person (charismatic leadership) (Conger, 1999). In the ensuing discussion, the conceptualisation of the functions of leadership as explained in the full range model, is linked to traits and behaviours identified for the two groups distinguished in terms of their leadership profiles.

Numerous authors refer to innovativeness and entrepreneurial qualities that lead to change, as personality characteristics of the effective leader (e.g. Bass, 1990; Church & Waclawski, 1998; Hogan, 1994; Howell & Higgens, 1990; Miller et al., 1982; Van Rensburg & Crous, 2000; Wofford et al., 1998). A more strategic approach is expected in the case of a leader practising inspirational motivation where the emphasis is on the creation of a vision for the future. This vision furthermore needs to be different and challenging. This requires someone with an individualistic approach who critically considers the current situation with a willingness to experiment and implement change. A holistic perspective, an interest in conceptual thinking, a creative approach as well as a willingness to question assumptions, are also requirements for the function of intellectual stimulation.

A clear distinction could not be made between the two groups in terms of the above profile. In both groups there were managers who scored average to high in terms of conceptual thinking, innovation and the critical evaluation of information. However, adherence to structure probably implied better quality of ideas in the case of the managers exercising a transformational style. A manager with a focus on practical concerns and immediate issues was also found in both groups (the individual in the second group also lacking depth in his level of analysis).

Doing the right thing is a characteristic of transformational leadership, while transactional behaviour implies doing things right. Bass (1990) refers to the leader being convicted of the moral righteousness of his or her beliefs. Adherence to moral standards and rules reflects the ethical stance associated with a leader who exhibits idealised behaviour and also provides associates with values with which they can identify. A sense of responsibility furthermore reflects the dedication that inspires associates to share the leader's vision and goals. Clarity in terms of goals and the roles of associates in achieving them are requirements for both inspirational motivation and idealised behaviours. However, a preference for the structure provided by guidelines and adherence to regulations can also be related to a contingent reward strategy as well as to the use of active management by exception. Miller et al. (1982) refer to the transactional leader preferring a stable environment and using procedures to maintain control; Hogan (1994) mentions that the leader, in addition to articulating a vision, needs to provide resources and serve an evaluative function; and Bass (1997) regards the transactional leader as focused on task performance behaviours rather than the development of followers (although he or she could use a task- or people-oriented style). This implies stimulation of associates performance through suggestions, consultation, monitoring and feedback.

With one exception, the managers exercising a transformational style indicated adherence to moral standards and rules, and a sense of responsibility in both work and social contexts. All the managers in this group furthermore showed adherence to regulations in the work context which indicates an attitude that was probably also reflected in their expectations of others. This implied a degree of rigidity that could have impacted on the creativity of both the managers and their associates. Although it helps the idea-oriented leader to maintain a degree of practicality, it could imply a less idealistic vision of the future, and possibly also explains why some of the managers in this group were less inclined to take risks. These traits reflected the managers' reliance on both transformational and transactional behaviours. The managers in the second group did not indicate a consistent profile of commitment to social and work related obligations. Some of them showed regard for what is right and wrong while being more flexible in a work context, while the others indicated that they were somewhat less conforming in terms of moral concerns while adhering to regulations in the workplace. This reflected the transactional style of this group combined with aspects of nontransactional leadership such as talking about getting work done, but not actually taking responsibility, not

finding solutions and addressing problems, and allowing others to do as they please.

Self-confidence, self-determination, a lack of internal conflicts and the ability to handle pressure also underlie the idealised influence practised by the transformational leader (Bass, 1990; Hogan, 1994; Ross & Offermann, 1997). According to Van Rensburg and Crous (2000), the effective leader is focused on achievement implying he or she sets standards and perseveres to meet them. Dedication, inner direction and a high activity and energy level need to be exhibited by the leader who serves as a role model for others. Enthusiasm and optimism are also required to create a vision of the future and effective problem solving requires self-confidence. One therefore expects the leader to be resilient, stable and even-tempered as well as self-assured and able to handle pressure. A degree of tension might indicate drive and ambition and the leader's energy needs to be well directed. This individual furthermore needs to see the future and others in a positive light.

The managers in both groups seemed to be resilient, although some of them were somewhat apprehensive about their own abilities and indicated an inclination to be emotionally reactive (managers in the first group) and wary of others (a manager in the second group). A degree of complacency was indicated in the case of the second group. The managers in both groups furthermore seemed ambitious, but more moderate levels of energy and drive were indicated in the case of the second group. It is possible that the more placid, less active profile seen for this group, was reflected in a style of taking action only when things go wrong as well as in being perceived as absent and not taking responsibility for setting goals and making decisions.

Social interaction and interpersonal skills play a role in articulating a vision and inspiring, motivating and enabling others. According to Bass (1990), charismatic leaders have a need to influence others. This, however, is coupled with a sensitivity to follower's needs. Bass also regards the effective leader as strongly articulate and able not only to communicate a vision but also to give meaning to this vision. Hogan (1994) refers to social impact (being outgoing, assertive, etc.) as a personality trait that has been associated with effective leadership, while Ross and Offermann (1997) found self-confidence (as a dimension of forcefulness) to contribute to variance when measuring transformational leadership. Idealised influence implies that the leader has to provide clear direction for the group members and show

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confidence in their purpose and actions. One expects the leader to be willing to influence others either through taking control and providing direction or through negotiation and persuasion. Social perceptiveness is an advantage. Idealised influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation furthermore require an assertive and outspoken leader who voices his or her values and beliefs, clearly states his or her vision, questions assumptions and challenges associates in terms of their performance and development. These functions of transformational leadership, however, also require active participation by associates. They need to feel a sense of empowerment and ownership (idealised influence), goals need to be in alignment with their own needs (inspirational motivation) and their intellectual ability needs to be valued and their creativity developed (intellectual stimulation).

The managers exercising a transformational style mostly showed the traits associated with influencing others and taking the lead. With one exception, these managers also indicated that they were open to suggestions, involved others in decision making and were inclined to go with the majority decision. Those in the other group indicated assertiveness and a willingness to express themselves, and some of them had a need to influence others while the others were at least reasonably willing to do so. However, only one of the managers in this group involved associates, while the others showed self-interest and valued their own intellect more than that of their followers. In their transactional exchanges with associates, they probably also used a more directive than participative style. Associates experiencing the leader as uninvolved is also a characteristic of the nontransactional leadership style at times practised by these managers.

Murphy and Ensher (1999) discuss the concept of a continuum of leader-member roles which reflects the extent to which the leader treats followers as in- or out-group members. The relationship with the in-group members is based on transformational behaviours and, according to Liden and Maslyn (1998), the quality of this exchange relationship is determined by the dimensions of mutual loyalty, affect and professional respect. A contribution dimension determines the quality of the relationship with out-group members, a relationship based on the contract characterising the transactional style. According to Van Rensburg and Crous (2000), the transformational leader shows a need for affiliation and enjoyment of attention from others. His or her interpersonal relationships are warm, accepting and

supportive. Ross and Offermann (1997) emphasise the interactional aspect of leadership. They found that a need for change was not a significant predictor of transformational leadership, while an enabling style of leadership characterised by practical support and concern for subordinate development explained most of the variance. According to Bass (1990), the charismatic leader inspires trust, confidence, acceptance, obedience and affection from followers. Identification and trust and inspiring and stimulating others imply active participation and involvement by the leader. Church and Waclawski (1998), however, found transformational leaders to include introverts with a more rational approach as well as extroverts with a more emotional approach.

The participative style suggested for the managers who use transformational leadership implied that they had an in-group relationship with most of their associates. Despite their more collaborative inclination, the high ratings for transactional leadership suggested that this group could also have had out-group relationships with some of their associates and followers. With the exception of one manager who seemed somewhat more reserved, these managers indicated that they were outgoing, enjoyed the company of others and were active in their interactions. They also indicated trust in and tolerance towards others and were relaxed in their relationships, allowing others to learn from mistakes. Out-group relationships were probably more prevalent for the managers in the second group. One of the managers from this group indicated a more extrovert nature but showed a tendency to be wary and critical of others, regarding the development of trust as less important than getting the work done. The other managers indicated that they were quite reserved and impersonal although they trusted people and were at least reasonably responsive in their interactions.

Individualised consideration plays a greater role in the dyad relationship compared with interaction at group level (Atwater & Bass, 1994) and provides the means for moving from transactional to transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Leader involvement is also a requirement for individualised consideration. However, a distinction can be made in terms of involvement with others at group rather than individual level.

The managers in the more transformational group indicated that they were at least reasonably caring and supportive towards and concerned about others. However, being objective

individuals implied greater task orientation than people orientation. This made sense in terms of their use of transactional behaviour where the interaction with associates is aimed at the delegation of tasks rather than individual issues or problems. Despite some interest in individual development, their focus seemed to be more on organisational goals and/or the enhancement of relationships than on individual growth and needs. The managers in the other group were mostly selective with their support and preferred to remain detached from others' problems. This noninvolvement is a feature of the more passive leadership styles.

In summary, the managers who used a transformational style indicated personality traits theoretically and empirically associated with this type of leadership. Moderate to high scores in terms of strategic thinking, a conceptual and innovative approach, and critical evaluation of information were coupled with moral concerns, a sense of responsibility and perseverance. These managers also mostly showed at least reasonable resilience as well as motivation and ambition. Regarding the interpersonal aspect of leadership, this group indicated assertiveness and a need to influence others while also allowing participation by associates and involving others in decision making. These managers were characterised by a need for affiliation, responsiveness in interaction, trust in and tolerance towards others as well as being reasonably caring. The manifestation of these traits, however, was influenced by their use of transactional leadership. They seemed more task oriented than people oriented, and their need for structure probably also affected the inspirational aspect of leadership. Because the managers in the other group used a transformational style at times, the associated traits were also to some extent observed in that group. Traits and behaviours associated with transactional leadership as well as with the more passive leadership styles were, however, also noted. The managers in this group seemed to be task oriented and probably practised a more directive rather than participative transactional style. A somewhat passive attitude, fluctuation in commitment and a lack of involvement with others were also indicated.

These descriptions exclude the following profiles. One of the managers in the group using a transformational style, corresponded more with the traits and behaviours noted in the second group. This manager functioned at a lower post level than the others in his group, and it is possible that the post level impacted on the way in which the leadership questionnaire was completed (rater levels also differed at management levels). One of the managers in the other

group showed many of the traits associated with transformational leadership but was not rated as such by his associates. This could have been the result of a number of distinguishing traits, namely his flexible approach in terms of responsibilities in a work context, his tendency to be wary of and critical towards others, and the lack of concern shown for the welfare of others.

7.4   SPECIFIC PROFILES

The profiles of the general manager and of the management team are discussed with due consideration of the personality traits associated with different leadership styles. This information is used in the next chapter in which the processes and dynamics in the management team are discussed in relation to leadership and the leadership style(s) being exercised. Note that the team profile includes the results for the general manager and also refers to the personality traits of two managers not included in the preceding discussion (they were not rated in terms of their leadership style).

7.4.1   The general manager

The general manager seemed effective in terms of his use of transformational behaviour and the fact that he seldom showed behaviour associated with the more passive leadership styles. However, he used active transactional leadership to the same extent as the transformational style which was somewhat higher than the ideal. His score was average with regard to the holistic, conceptual and creative thinking associated with a visionary outlook and he seemed intellectually adaptable and willing to critically evaluate information. He indicated that he was a responsible person who adhered to standards and regulations in the work context and who also took his moral and social obligations seriously. This reflected the ethical stance of the transformational leader but also pointed to transactional behaviour with its focus on task performance. In terms of personal adjustment, he showed the stability and confidence expected of a role model and his ambition and optimistic outlook (tempered by a degree of caution) served him well in creating and working towards a vision. He indicated that his leadership was characterised by a willingness both to take control and influence others through negotiation and persuasion. Transformational behaviour was reflected in the sense

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that he also encouraged active participation by followers thus empowering them. (However, a need for consensus at times implied insufficient direction.) He furthermore seemed to be an outgoing person who enjoyed interaction and who was perceptive and reasonably confident in social situations. He trusted others and showed a degree of caring. However, being an objective person who based decisions on facts rather than allowing emotional justification, probably implied greater task orientation than people orientation (again pointing to the combination of a transformational style with transactional behaviours).

7.4.2   The management team

As indicated, the team consisted of managers relying on transformational and active transactional behaviours (with little use of passive leadership) as well as managers who used transformational, active transactional and passive behaviours to the same extent. Some of the team members adopted a strategic view when planning and setting goals while the majority of the managers focused on the medium term. A conceptual and innovative approach seemed common and although this reflected a visionary outlook, there could have been a lot of idea orientation and not always sufficient acknowledgement of practical realities. The majority of the team nevertheless indicated that they evaluated information critically and caution in decision making was also often noted. The team members were structural and procedural in their approach (which suited the environment) with most of the team members indicating that they conformed to moral standards and also adhered to regulations in the work context. This reflected both a transformational and active transactional styles. Passive leadership, however, was also present, with a few managers being less concerned about social obligations and/or indicating a more flexible and adaptable approach in dealing with projects than the team in general. All the managers were at least reasonably resilient although some apprehension and emotional reactiveness were noted. They furthermore scored average to high in terms of motivation but a degree of complacency and less active profiles in the case of some of the managers, possibly contributed to a passive leadership style. The members of the management team indicated that they were assertive and the majority were willing to influence others by taking the lead and/or through negotiation and persuasion with the rest of the managers being at least moderately inclined to use one of these methods. Managers were divided in the sense that they either practised the consultative and participative style associated with

transformational leadership or showed more self-interest and probably practised directive transactional exchanges or a passive style characterised by noninvolvement. These managers also differed in terms of their need for and enjoyment of the company of others with the first mentioned being outgoing and the latter being reserved and impersonal. However, most of the managers were quite perceptive and at least reasonably confident and responsive in social situations. Most of the managers trusted people. Despite some team members indicating at least moderate concern for the welfare of others, the objective approach of the team implied a task focus (associated with transactional leadership). The rest if the team showed noninvolvement in terms of their detachment from others' problems.

7.5   SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to gain an understanding of transactional and transformational leadership through a description of the traits and behaviours of managers exercising these styles. Generic descriptions were given of the leadership styles included in the full range model, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership and nontransactional leadership. The leadership styles of the managers in this study were identified, and on the basis of this, two groups were formed. The one group relied on transformational behaviours as well as the use of behaviours associated with the active transactional styles. The second group sometimes used behaviours associated with all the leadership styles including passive transactional behaviours and nontransactional leadership. The cognitive and interpersonal styles as well as the general adjustment of the managers in each of these groups were described and related to the functions of the different leadership styles practised by them. Managers in the first group indicated personality traits associated with transformational leadership but their use of transactional behaviours was also clear from their task focus and procedural approach. The second group was distinguished by nonleadership behaviours such as a somewhat passive attitude, fluctuation in commitment and a lack of involvement with others. Lastly, the profiles of the general manager and of the management team were discussed in order to link the leadership in this team to group processes and dynamics.

Chapter 8 explores the behavioural and operational issues at the plant, as well as the processes and dynamics in the management team and in related systems.

CHAPTER 8

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: PROCESSES AND DYNAMICS IN THE MANAGEMENT TEAM AND RELATED SYSTEMS

The present study considered group processes as well as group dynamics (the latter being mostly latent and covert) and qualitative methods were therefore regarded as suitable (Schneider & Shrivastava, 1988). These methods imply a holistic, naturalistic and subjective approach. Different aspects of the group's everyday functioning need to be studied in a broader context and in such a manner that experiences at various levels (individual, group, the organisation and society) are explored. Using various sources and techniques of data collection contributes to both the reliability and the validity of the findings (i.e. the trustworthiness and consequently the usefulness of the research) but there is a limit to the generalisability of findings in this type of research.

This chapter focuses on the following aims as stated in chapter 1: to gain an understanding of the processes and dynamics in a management team and how these reflect and influence the leadership style being exercised; to gain an understanding of the relationships of the management team and its leadership with other systems both in and outside the organisation in a context of organisational change. Based on the thematic analysis of the individual interviews with the directors and the members of the management team, themes and subthemes on behavioural and operational issues at the plant were identified. These were explored with due consideration of the implications for processes and dynamics in the management team and related systems. Validation for these preliminary interpretations was based on the group interviews with the management team and staff representatives. These hypotheses were expanded on the basis of observation during the group consultation session with the management team. The leadership and personality profiles for the general manager and for the management team as a whole (see ch. 7) helped to further define the role of leadership when considering the processes and dynamics in the management team and related systems. Based on recurring themes in the preceding analyses, concluding hypotheses were formulated. These dealt with the processes and dynamics in the management team, the relationship thereof with the leadership style being exercised, and the interrelatedness of the team and its leadership with other systems both in and outside the organisation. This was done

with due consideration of the overall context of change. Leadership theory, group theory and theory on the systems psychodynamic approach were used in the understanding of these findings.

8.1 THEMATIC ANALYSIS BASED ON THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

A thematic analysis (De Vos, 2002; Janesick, 2000; Stake, 2000; Terre Blanche & Kelly, 1999) was done of the individual interviews with the directors and the members of the management team. A number of themes and subthemes were identified during the earlier stages of analysis, namely culture (culture of the workforce and organisational culture); management and leadership (corporate management, the general manager, the management team, middle management and first-line management and the consultants); the workforce (capacity building and discipline); relationships (communication and teamwork); and production (the production process, the products and other systems). These themes were reworked to meet the requirements of internal consistency and distinction from one another. This resulted in the five themes discussed below, namely the work context, the community in which the plant is situated, corporate management, the management team and the workforce and other staff. Operational and behavioural issues in the plant and the organisation are described, followed by an interpretation of the processes and dynamics in the team and related systems. Personal reflections are included in these discussions.

8.1.1 The work context

This was a production organisation in a specialised field. The tour through the factory highlighted that production was highly structured and attention to detail important. Corporate management pointed out that procedures had been aligned to those followed at other plants. The procedures were unique and comments were made on the reliance on advanced technology and the related development of software and improvement of machinery. There was an increase in automisation with implications for the workforce. This issue as well as other aspects of the nature of the job were dealt with in a positive manner as seen in the comment on having to address motivation where routine jobs were involved. The physical environment in the factory involved matters such as safety, heat and noise. The way in which

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these were dealt with, was related to the workers feelings of security and satisfaction.

The general manager and managers from the production side of the plant as well as from services saw the bottom line as "getting things out of the door". All staff members were measured in terms of production outcomes and production was regarded as the essence, with other issues receiving less emphasis. The management team referred to an increase in production over the past years, but the defects (losses) still seemed problematic. According to corporate management, the plant was still not performing adequately (implying improvement under the current general manager?). There was a negative comment about the plant having been the flagship of the company but that it no longer was. Numerous comments, however, also indicated a more positive attitude such as the enthusiasm shown by the production managers for the production process and for the product, and expectations being seen as challenges and opportunities. The general manager was optimistic about the changes taking place and felt comfortable about where they were at that stage. He also saw them moving in the right direction. The vision was to "become the best in the group in one year".

The role of the supplier was emphasised by the fact that one of the managers was with a supplier on the day of the interviews and reference was also made to problems with suppliers in terms of quality. The customers were becoming more demanding and tended to be extremely specific in terms of what they wanted. High standards were expected. Given customer demands, production could not be stopped and strikes therefore had to be avoided. Production pressure was also implied by the fact that the plant delivered locally (including to the other plants in the organisation) as well as overseas, although the comment was made that there was not much local competition.

Processes and dynamics

For the broader community, safety was one of the elements of the product manufactured by this organisation. A function of the organisation was therefore to serve as social defence mechanism in the sense that it contained and managed anxiety for the community by providing this safety. Safety and security were also elements of the physical environment at the plant. Questions on work security and related pressure were implied by the technological

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demands of the environment, continuous changes in this regard, expectations in terms of outputs and customers' expectations. The production process required structure and attention to detail to provide a safe product, but at another level, this structure and the control it implied also helped to contain the anxiety associated with the pressures of the job. This in turn, strengthened a culture of control. Control started with efforts by corporate management to keep a degree of control through specifications for the production process and was also implied by the general manager's role in bringing about change.

The primary task of the plant was clearly identified as production and when focusing on this task the general manager seemed to be authorised and to have confidence in himself, his management team and the workers. He was held accountable for production and accepted responsibility for meeting the goals associated with this task. He seemed to inspire others through this attitude but there were also comments which indicated a possible struggle for power as well as resistance to change. The feelings of tiredness experienced by the researcher during the interviews probably reflected the frustrations, defensiveness and resistance of members of the management team - did they always have the energy to attempt the changes needed? This refers to the dynamic of transference and countertransference in the relationship with the consultant where feelings experienced by the consultant provide evidence of underlying feelings in the client system.

Interdependence between corporate management and the plant, between the management team and the workers at the plant, and between the plant and the suppliers and customers was suggested, but because this was not directly acknowledged, it created a context for projection. Not accepting the reality of reliance on others resulted in issues related to responsibility and placing associated feelings elsewhere in the system. Accountability became associated with who was to blame. This was symbolised by the researcher's personal experiences of the physical environment, namely that this was a hot place to work and one had difficulty listening and hearing. The preceding discussion also highlights the issues of task management versus people management. There seemed to be comfort in the control associated with task management, but the anxiety associated with people management was less successfully dealt with.

8.1.2   The community in which the plant is situated

The political history of the community and its culture determined the attitudes of the staff at the plant. White members of staff were described as conservative, while black members were seen as conservative but radical. The management culture (by implication, of the white staff) had developed over a lengthy period, suggesting some stagnation and these managers were referred to as "old hands", implying both expertise but also the fact that they felt threatened by and resisted change. The core of the workers (who were primarily black) had been part of the struggle and this contributed to the workforce having a uniform culture. The resultant attitudes were regarded as problematic in terms of work ethic, lack of pride in their work, discipline and a lack of understanding of business principles. There were opposing views on how this had been dealt with in the past: efforts to empower the workers led to an attitude of entitlement and "they do not realise you need to give to get"; there used to be a disciplinary culture and changing this was for the better; and a view that the discipline in the past was good but this had now changed. The division along racial lines seemed to impact on relationships and there was a reference to "us and them" being used on the floor. This also resulted in communication problems because of the different languages. Although race and language differences to some extent occurred in the workforce, they were specifically reflected in the white management team and the primarily black workforce and their leaders. (Reference was also made to the leadership being male.) It was noticeable that although all the managers referred to the current situation, the managers with long years of service also considered the problem from a historical perspective.

Processes and dynamics

A degree of separation and split between management and the rest of the staff was natural and created a context for projection that assisted in dealing with anxieties and issues around adaptation and survival. Collaboration between the staff and between management and the rest of the staff was nevertheless essential to ensure work on the primary task. This, in turn, requires effective communication and establishment of trust. Racial and language differences, however, come with their own tensions, stereotypes, perceived threats and issues of belonging that impact on communication and trust. In this instance, these differences

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exaggerated the split between management and the workforce making it difficult to gain insight into the resultant projections and projective identifications. (Note that the management team was mirrored by the consultants being white.) Flight behaviour was also used in the talk about the past and the focus on the workforce culture as a major problem. There seemed to be groupthink in terms of the perceived culture at the plant (from both the directors and the management team and possibly also the consultants). It seemed as if management projected onto the workforce in seeing them as incompetent, dependent and in need of being controlled. The researcher's experience of the problems in the community/environment was at first overwhelming and disempowering. This possibly reflected the way the management team perceived these problems.

8.1.3   Corporate management

Management and leadership at corporate level impacted on (and were influenced by) the way the general manager led his team, the functioning of the management team and their leadership in relation to the workforce as well as the leadership in the workforce. The managing director was seen as practising an autocratic leadership style and the general manager even suggested that the company was "fear driven". This implied pressure on the other directors (specifically the director of manufacturing) who reacted by becoming more involved in the management of the plant. Despite denial in this regard, the directors seemed prescriptive about issues such as the required leadership style at the plant (emphasising a need for development, empowerment and accountability), the way labour relations had to be dealt with and the intervention in general. This, in turn, implied pressure on the general manager, although he indicated that this did not concern him because his focus was on the job at hand. The impression that corporate management controlled the plant impacted on mutual trust and also disempowered the management at the plant and lowered their confidence.

Processes and dynamics

The controlling leadership style of the managing director seemed to create pressure and anxiety. Although the directors, the general manager and the management team had a responsibility to keep informed and to deal with relevant issues, an emphasis on control might

have been one way they dealt with fears about their own ability to meet demands. A centralised leadership style, lack of authorisation and dependency thus resulted at all levels in the organisation. A power struggle and efforts to establish authority were seen as well as a lack of trust and the resultant loss of meaning and hope followed by projections onto corporate management and the plant management. The interaction between the consultants and the people from the organisation reflected how the consultants represented the different levels of authority in relation to the different roles of the directors, the general manager and the management team. This resulted in role conflict for the consultants, and the idea that the intervention also served as a source of data, caused further conflict.

8.1.4   The management team

Corporate management regarded the leadership style of the general manager as reactive whereas a more transformational style was expected with the leader taking a stand on issues, empowering his team and also holding them accountable. The comments by the directors and the members of the management team indicated that the general manager to some extent practised a transactional style (sense of responsibility; hard work, effort and long hours; attention to detail, especially in terms of production and the technical side of things; commitment to doing things right; structured procedures initiated to deal with disciplinary and performance issues; and suggesting reasons for problems and not solutions). A comment was made that efforts to maintain control might be his reaction to pressure. This control was also seen in him overly accepting responsibility for his management team and their problems, the fact that he protected them and that they relied on him to take responsibility for, inter alia, technical problems. Although he stated that the intervention belonged to the management team, he kept control. These and other features of his relationship with his team, however, to some extent also represented a transformational style. He indicated that he expected a lot from his team and that he tried to be understanding towards them and also offered them recognition and rewards. He was popular, and the team members respected his work ethic and involvement. Furthermore, he was seen to have a vision and changes in this regard led to greater openness, participation and commitment. It should be kept in mind that there were possibilities for competition related to the role of one of the directors versus the general manager's role as well as in terms of the previous and current general managers' roles and the

role of some of the managers in the plant versus their role in the organisation.

The leadership in the plant was regarded as centralised and seemed to be characterised by dependency as indicated by the general manager's comment on the father-son culture. Although managers from production and from service departments saw this as the position throughout the plant, specific references were made to the general manager and his management team. Because the general manager accepted responsibility for his team and protected them, they were not authorised and also not held accountable. The management team, in turn, relied on the manager and it seemed as if they did not always feel secure enough to take up their management roles. They were not authorised to take up these roles. It was said that confidence could be built by allowing the members of the management team to assume their responsibilities and to learn through mistakes, thus becoming empowered.

In terms of the management team and their subordinates, corporate management saw the managers as either providing very little direction or as managing instead of leading (although in a few instances a manager was also regarded as providing leadership). The latter was also seen in comments that the managers were perceived as controlling and taking responsibility for the work of others. Efforts to control everything resulted in overload and more than one person referred to the resultant crisis management ("slaan vure dood"). This impacted on their effectiveness and the leadership they provided. This dynamic was furthermore reflected in the problems they had with time management (e.g. references to long hours; too many and ineffective meetings; too much time spent in meetings; information overload; etc.). Personal insight had to be accompanied by skills development, especially in terms of people management, and management also had to learn to delegate. It was said that there seemed to be a perception that delegation meant giving away your work (which represents power) and then not having a job. There was a fear of losing power, and in defence, managers held onto power.

There was a perception that the managers' willingness to state their opinions and to criticise and challenge others (including the general manager) would lead to empowerment. Increasing openness and less defensiveness in the management team were furthermore required for unity in the team. This implied a need for trust and building meaning as well as effective

communication and conflict management. A need was expressed by more than one manager for sharing and acceptance of responsibility as a team. Managers also acknowledged the importance of teamwork and the need for inclusion of and participation by the entire team. Changes in this regard had taken place but the team was still not perceived as unified. References were made to boundaries between departments and the split between production and services, team members criticised each other and years of service were also mentioned by some as a distinguishing factor in terms of issues such as acceptance of change. Communication and trust between management and the workforce were also regarded as problematic and it was said that management had to spend more time on their subordinates and become more involved in order to build relationships. The general manager was reported as emphasising teamwork, and a fairly new development that involved both management and the workers in a team concept, had been taking place. There was a perception that workers were dealt with by controlling them rather than by coaching and guiding them (implying development and thus empowerment).

Processes and dynamics

By indicating the preferred leadership style to the general manager, corporate management were in fact preventing him (not authorising him) from taking up his leadership position. Being directive was in line with the theme of control in the organisation. Competition due to the role confusion referred to probably resulted in the individuals involved feeling threatened and projecting onto each other. Pairing that involved the consultants also reflected issues of power. The general manager reacted to pressure and to his sense of responsibility by introducing structure and control. This is not inappropriate in a production environment but also implies keeping the environment safe in a psychological sense. He provided containment and a sense of safety for the management team. Although this was needed for them to focus on the primary task, it also led to dependency and their failure to take up their authority and the responsibility that goes with it. The term "accountability" was again used in a more punitive manner implying who was to accept the blame. Although the general manager stated that he accepted blame, he seemed to deny that some kind of change in his style was necessary and was therefore shifting the "blame" elsewhere. It would have created discomfort to change his style even if it was acknowledged that change was needed. There were

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furthermore many positive aspects to his style including caring and mutual respect and trust as well as providing staff with a vision.

The management team seemed to experience some anxiety about their own performance on account of the real pressures associated with their roles and the environment and doubts about their own competence. The researcher also experienced these emotions, indicating that the managers did not take up their anxiety but projected it onto the outside where the researcher carried the emotions for the team. These doubts were related more to people management than task management. The general manager's style made it difficult for them to take up their own authority (some resentment is seen, for example, towards the intervention, and threat and resentment in relation to authority figures were also experienced by the researcher) but they also used dependency as a way of dealing with anxiety (again a dynamic mirrored in the researcher's relationships). Dependency in the management team might have led to the fantasy of a saviour (be it the directors, the general manager or the consultants) and the general manager might have been set up for failure to sustain this fantasy rather than accepting the reality of his and their own limitations. Awareness of the need for interdependence as well as self-reliance resulted in feelings of depression.

The management team also seemed to deal with pressure by practising control over the people and processes under their supervision. Although it was acknowledged that subordinates (be it the general manager, the management team or the workforce) had to be empowered, the leadership wanted to stay in control. A subordinate became personalised; it became an object. Subordinates were not allowed to take up the authority that would have enabled them to become empowered and even the accountability had to be "pushed down". Projection onto subordinates provided a reason for control. Control in the system served as a defence against development in the managers themselves, in others and in the system in general. Development requires a noncontrol environment in which free thinking and exploration are encouraged. Accepting the responsibility of combining task management with people management implied developing the subordinates to do the job, delegating to them and allowing them to build confidence and trusting them (thus enabling them to take up authority). The consultants also reacted to the expectations of them with a need to control the intervention and were at this stage doing the work for the management team.

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The managers voiced a belief in openness but there did not seem to be sufficient trust for such openness, and this, in turn, hampered development of trust and effective communication and conflict management. There was a lack of clarity and meaning in terms of roles and authority, and instead of maintaining healthy boundaries, barriers seemed to develop. Issues of inclusion/exclusion and of belonging or not belonging were apparent and individuals seemed to feel threatened. Criticism by the management team against other managers as well as against other systems in the plant and the organisation seemed to be projections caused by these feelings. A need for safety was expressed in the need for supportive relationships and unity in the team. Tenure could also be seen as a defence against changing. A need for support could take the form of dependency. Issues of communication and trust also needed to be addressed to establish interdependence between the management team and the rest of the staff. Active participation (teamwork) implied a distribution of authority but this had to be clearly outlined to ensure that people did not become defensive or dependent but could productively focus on the primary task. The consultancy team also had to deal with issues of belonging, trust and support and experienced a need for acceptance and positive relationships with the management team. There was an unrealistic expectation that everyone would benefit ("win") from the intervention, and to sustain this fantasy, some of the managers had to carry (and take out) limitations in terms of competence (projection).

8.1.5   The workforce and other staff

The production managers were in control of production which, after a change in structure, included people from engineering, technical, quality and production. Technical teams now resembled project teams with various types of expertise available to solve problems. The flatter management structure, however, implied less clarity in terms of responsibility and the line of reporting which, in turn, resulted in more responsibility for the production manager. It also created a problem in terms of career pathing (reference was made to a racial threat in this regard). Lack of role clarity for middle management, contributed to the gap that seemed to exist between top management and first-line management. Reference was also made to middle management being perceived as less competent. First-line management, in turn, seemed to have difficulty fulfilling their role because of role conflict. Their role in the community and their need to feel part of the group made it difficult for them to confront the

workers. They were furthermore promoted on the basis of their knowledge of the job without always considering their abilities in terms of the higher performance level expected. Lack of training, authority and power also manifested. Comments were made that accountability had been moved down, and newly appointed first-line managers were also seen as accepting greater responsibility and being more capable of dealing with discipline. There was a perception that if the workforce and their leadership were empowered, they would assume personal responsibility and become accountable (a change in involvement and commitment was already seen). However, there was some doubt about whether all workers wanted the responsibility. Inclusive leadership implied greater involvement of the workforce and their representatives, for example, in the intervention.

The lack of literacy, technology training and general development amongst the older members of the workforce in particular (resulting in a low turnover) had to be addressed. Some of the members of the management team, however, seemed to regard the workers as functioning at their level of competency and more was not expected of them. Regardless of the individual position on this issue, there was general acknowledgement that the process of appointing and training younger and better qualified workers had to be continued and that money had to be spent to keep these people. Motivation of both the older workforce members and the new staff nevertheless remained a priority. There were opposing viewpoints about the effectiveness of current training programmes. Specific needs included the training of first-line management (shift team leaders), especially in terms of leadership skills (the emphasis was currently more on job skills), succession in first-line management and the programmes for the development of teamwork. Teamwork was an essential part of the production process and was emphasised as such amongst the workers with measures of teamwork and team leader performance in place. Teamwork was regarded as a way to empower the workers, a source of energy, the reason for higher outputs and a vehicle for transformation. But at this level too, there was a need for greater clarity in terms of individual accountability versus team performance.

Various managers regarded discipline at the plant as problematic. Although the general manager was seen to pay attention to disciplinary and performance issues, he and the rest of management were expected to be stricter when people did not perform. This was difficult for two reasons, inter alia, namely racial issues and the possible threat of strikes. As indicated,

role conflict in the case of first-line management furthermore hampered confrontation at this level. A lack of training and issues of authority and power also played a role. Although some work in this regard had been done, the disciplinary procedures had to be more streamlined with clear standards, informal procedures that allowed for immediate response in certain instances and shorter procedures in other cases. It was perceived as more of an issue with the older members of the workforce and they relied on the union for support to a greater extent than the younger/newer members. The union had to be involved but perceptions of the union varied ("the union is not unified"; "a union leader is possibly involved in corruption"; "the union creates problems in terms of communication to workers").

Processes and dynamics

There was a lack of role clarity at middle management level while first-line managers experienced conflict in terms of their role in the plant versus their role in the community (with associated issues of belonging). Note that work roles can be regarded as normative (i.e. the job description), from an existential perspective (i.e. the way the individual sees it) and in phenomenal terms (i.e. the way others see the role). It furthermore seemed as if the first-line managers were not enabled or authorised to handle the responsibility they had. This probably resulted in feelings of anxiety. The management team projected the problem onto middle management and first-line management and because they were regarded as incompetent, management exercised control, despite voicing a belief in empowerment of leadership at these levels. Note that racial issues and the "us and them" culture referred to earlier, contributed to projections. Once again, others were not accountable and could therefore be blamed. The lower levels of management reacted by adopting a position of dependency. They were probably comfortable with the status quo and might have resisted efforts to empower them because of the anxiety associated with the change and responsibility. The dynamics in the case of both the management team and the lower levels of management, however, fluctuated, with some managers succeeding to a greater extent in promoting inclusive leadership and some subordinates accepting this role. Although the consultants expressed concern about the lack of involvement of the workforce, they did not resist the pressure from management.

Capacity building, discipline and similar issues are problematic in a manufacturing

environment, especially in the local context. Projection by management onto the workforce in terms of their competence and discipline, however, prevented the successful implementation of a strategy to deal with these issues. There seemed to be sincere efforts to address the problem but at the same time perceived incompetence resulted in a need for control by management as seen in the emphasis on disciplinary procedures. Also note that the interdependence (not referred to directly) seemed to cause some resentment in the case of management. It was acknowledged that the workforce had to be developed and that they had to be actively involved and afforded the opportunity to take up their own authority. A team approach seemed to be preferred for this. Issues of dependency, however, had to be kept in mind. The division in the workforce (mirrored by the split in the union) was acknowledged and to some extent dealt with. Management probably identified with the older workforce and the threat they were experiencing, but this was not effectively dealt with if the solution was seen as the new staff "saving" the plant.

8.2 VALIDATION OF PRELIMINARY HYPOTHESES BASED ON THE GROUP INTERVIEWS

Feedback on the preliminary interpretations with regard to operational and behavioural issues (discussed in the previous section) was obtained during a group interview with the members of the management team as well as a group interview with staff representatives. Observations in terms of the processes and dynamics in each of these groups also provided support for related hypotheses formed during the individual interviews.

8.2.1 Group interview with the management team

During the group interview with the management team, insecurity associated with the changes taking place as well as resistance to change became clear. This was reflected in a pre-meeting being cancelled because of illness, all the consultants not attending the group interview and the consultants losing their way to the plant. All role players (corporate management, the general manager, the management team, the staff and the consultants) were probably experiencing some anxiety because of the pressure of the plant not performing adequately and the need for the intervention to change this. The broader context was also one of change, with

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transformation implied by technological demands and labour relation issues (a shift from a procedural to a participative approach). Unresolved issues related to the functioning of the management team prevented them from moving forward and no vision or strategy seemed possible at this stage. This was mirrored in the consultants being left with a feeling of confusion and no clarity on how to move forward, and they also carried feelings of fear and despair related to change for the team. By working through these issues in consultant debriefing, the consultants possibly helped to bring about a shift in the team.

The management team created safety by trying to keep the team contained and "average" as seen in the absence of two of the managers who represented opposites in terms of the old and the new. Fluctuations in the team throughout the intervention and even on the day of the group interview indicated that these efforts were not completely successful. The intervention questioned the assumption that the general manager provided safety, and because he was on the boundary, he also represented outside factors that were perceived as threatening. In an attempt to function as a closed system, the team might have been working him out, not through direct confrontation but through passive aggression (an impression formed by the consultants). Note that the two managers next to the general manager left during the group interview. There were performance issues related to these managers and they were probably experiencing aggression towards management (including the general manager) even if it was not directly related to the current interview. By leaving they were possibly taking this aggression out for the rest of the team. Despite efforts to create a closed system, there was a lack of trust that prevented unity. Some of this was mirrored in the consultancy team and in similar feelings related to how the intervention was proceeding being experienced by members of this team. The consultants were therefore carrying some of the discomfort associated with this lack of trust for the management team.

Confronted with the need for the team to work, the managers resorted to flight behaviour and talk about "packing and going on holiday". Although time, task and role boundaries were provided by the consultants and open discussion within these boundaries was encouraged, throughout the group interview there seemed to be a need for more structure. Structure and control had been identified as ways in which the team dealt with pressure and anxiety and this was mirrored in the researcher's need for structure to deal with insecurity. The team seemed

leaderless and struggled to create structure, manage their time, make decisions, deal with ambiguity, communicate constructively and resolve conflict (some managers doing most of the talking, comments being directed at the consultants, criticism of others' ideas and the split between production and services).

Projections of corporate management having too much control and of the workforce being incompetent, left the team powerless in the middle. They were not authorised to take responsibility and their subordinates did not want to accept responsibility. This resulted in efforts to take control which allowed continued dependency rather than exploration of interdependence and the assumption of personal responsibility this implied. They referred to the pressure they were experiencing and that they reacted by going into "panic mode" and trying to control everything. They "pushed down" and "forced down" accountability. The researcher experienced it as a struggle to keep the workforce involved in the intervention and there was an incident with the consultants giving a worker a lift but continuing their discussion - even when the workers climbed into the car with the consultants, they were still not being talked to!

8.2.2   Group interview with staff representatives

The general manager and some members of the management team attended the group interview with the broader group of representatives (possibly reflecting their need for control). The group was effective and it was possible that the change in composition enabled them to work without the dynamics associated with their work groups, setting energy free. However, it was also a structured session with clear time, role and task boundaries (reflecting the time pressure referred to earlier). They were probably used to structure and this enabled them to work. Anxiety was furthermore contained by the representatives acting in role (the human resources manager emphasising relationships, the change-oriented shop steward talking about training, etc.). Although there was insufficient exploration of the experiences of this group, the consultants saw them as positive and considered them as the level at which transformation could start. The workforce and their representatives did not seem to take up the projections of incompetence and negativity by the management team.

8.3 HYPOTHESES BASED ON OBSERVATION DURING THE GROUP CONSULTATION SESSION

The aim of the session with the management team was twofold. In the first place, the consultants wanted to test and expand on the hypotheses concerning the processes and dynamics, not only in the management team but also in relation to the broader context. However, it was also a learning experience for both the consultants and the members of the management team regarding the functioning of the team and changes needed in this regard. The focus was on the here and now. The observations are described and interpreted in terms of the processes and dynamics in the management team, the relationship of these processes and dynamics with the leadership style being exercised, and the interrelatedness with other systems in and outside of the organisation. Reflective notes on the personal experiences of the researcher and on the research procedures are also included in the findings.

8.3.1 Preparation

The consultants drove together and feelings of apprehensiveness were acknowledged. They arrived early and together with the human resources manager prepared the meeting room (outside of the main building). They discussed who would be present with deciding input by the researcher. The entire management team participated, together with the marketing manager who had not been present up to that point and excluding a temporary manager from head office (to replace the quality control manager who had resigned but who was still present at the session). The presence of the technical expert was specifically mentioned. Team members arrived on time with the exception of the planning and logistics manager about whose initial absence there was some concern. The consultants who had worked with the team thus far were greeted in a relaxed manner while there was some reserve about the "new" consultant (the consultant to the group session). The team seated themselves in such a way that the "new" consultant was placed next to one of the familiar consultants (they were dressed similarly). The researcher sat opposite the general manager and next to the only other female in the group, while two senior members of the team (dressed similarly) sat on both sides of the manager, reflecting further efforts at creating safety.

Processes and dynamics

Although there was some known factors, the unknown created anxiety. This was an unfamiliar situation for both the consultants and the management team and apprehension was to be expected. To deal with this, the consultants clearly stated their roles for the group session beforehand (observer and consultants). Role definitions and boundaries seemed to have been successfully negotiated, given the researcher's experience of being authorised with regard to certain decisions. The roles of the members of the management team were also brought up in the reference to specific members of the team. These were people on the boundary between the team and the client (marketing manager) and between the team and corporate management (technical expert and replacement manager). There were issues of inclusion (a manager who was leaving and one who was late) and it seemed as if the team dealt with their apprehension by creating a safe environment, neutralising any strangeness (as seen in the seating in the room and the pairing that took place). The exclusion of the replacement manager by the consultants also contributed to maintaining the so-called "family".

8.3.2   Time period 1

The duration of this first time period was one hour. Time, task and role boundaries were stated, and to create a point of departure, a matrix of the team's profile was presented. The general manager asked what had to be achieved and referred specifically to "today". *The consultant responded that the team had to decide for themselves.* Throughout this session, insecurity about the task/objective was indicated by various people, for example "do not understand today's process", "in the dark" and "tell us". One of the production managers commented that the aim was to determine whether they as a team could work together and move the organisation. A discussion on the team's profile followed with reference to its content, accuracy and comparison with an ideal. *The consultant commented that the team seemed dependent (asking for help from the consultants) and that they believed that the expertise was outside and that they did not value what was inside or realised that the answers were in the system. Their struggle to get started possibly reflected the dynamics of the larger group, that is, the organisation.*

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There was a somewhat defiant statement from one of the production managers that personality was a constant and also a plea that others should accept him and respond accordingly. The discussion moved to the importance of talking to one another, an awareness and understanding of the self and others and how members complemented one another to the benefit of the group (without denying differences and a possible need for change). Joking and laughter occurred on a few occasions during the session, this being one of them. Talk on the profiles returned to a more abstract level with some reference to people not included in the matrix. *The consultant referred to them as a needy group. They were furthermore focused on the future and they experienced pressure to perform, therefore seeing things in terms of right or wrong, confusing production with people and competing rather than listening to each other (also in this context).*

The organisation was seen as results driven but in the team there was talking without always doing. The functioning of the team was furthermore affected by splits in it and by the focus of each individual on issues important to him or her without consideration for others. A few "bumper sticker" comments were made about team work. *The consultant noted that the team was results driven, implying a task leadership focus but that people leadership was more of a struggle. The members of the team furthermore focused on "me" rather than "us'"and they needed to work on their identity as a team, the picture in the mind of us (without resorting to their right/wrong attitude of only the individual or only the team). The phrase "to be honest and open with you" was often used and there was more listening and communication than at the start of the time period.* The time period ended with a question from one of the members: "How do we go forward here?"

Lunch (a 30-minute break) was served in the room where the management team held their weekly meetings. The financial manager was absent. The consultants and the team members grouped together respectively with some general communication across the groups.

Processes and dynamics

The consultants provided containment and created a safe space for the group to work in by setting boundaries. A degree of dependence on the consultants was therefore to be expected

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but their role was not to do the work for the group. The group members indicated a task focus and a resultant need for a clear task with related objectives. With this need not being met, they did not at first create their own structure but reacted to feelings of confusion and frustration by looking for help from outside of the group. (Note that confusion and frustration could also act as defences since flight into these feelings implies avoidance of the anxiety associated with having to deal with the task.) The dependency dynamic was possibly a feature of the group's usual functioning and the general manager seemed to take up the responsibility for meeting this need by trying to find clarity and providing structure on behalf of the group. In so doing he challenged the leadership role of the consultant leading the process. The defence of pairing (leader of the group and leader of the process) was observed and this activity on the boundary possibly allowed greater passivity in the group. The researcher's personal experiences of the session being out of control and a lack of motivation reflected the group's feelings of confusion and resultant passivity (indicating some aggression and counterdependence). The lack of clarity on the task mirrored a lack of clarity and focus in terms of the plant's primary task. This explained "the struggle to get started" both here and in the plant.

The organisation and the team were results driven and there was little tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity as seen in the members wanting to act before clarity had been established, the need for an ideal profile and the split between individual needs versus team needs. This "right/wrong attitude" was appropriate in terms of production but was also applied to people, creating opportunities for splitting and projection. The consultant's intervention provided the opportunity for working with what was really being felt. A need for understanding and acceptance was expressed and it was noted that the team's functioning would benefit if these issues were acknowledged. Issues of inclusion were also implied. Feelings and needs in the here and now were expressed, but this made the group uncomfortable and flight behaviour was seen, inter alia, in a return to a task focus (although some advances in terms of more open communication had been made). The confusion in task versus people management was reflected in the group's competitiveness ("me" rather than "us") and the struggle with communication and interpersonal relationships. This prevented the formation of a team identity that provides for individuals and individual responsibility.

The researcher experienced some discomfort during the lunch break, reflecting the insecurity resulting from the preceding session for both the team and the consultants. The familiar territory and social context did not create safety. Issues of inclusion were noted.

8.3.3   Time period 2

The duration of the second time period was one and a half hours. The event was at first discussed in a task-oriented manner and comments were made that the group needed to summarise, reflect and make decisions. However, the members almost immediately started to express feelings such as frustration related to the event and a further exploration of the need for understanding and appreciation as individuals. The general manager expressed the discomfort of dealing with the here and now (referring to the escape into lunch) and the confusion of and personal limitation in trying to understand and deal with soft versus hard issues. *The consultant referred to the split that had to be made between content (meetings, strategy and production) and process (talking about us) and he identified the members' need to connect and asked them to illustrate this.* There was some confusion and a request for help in this regard and an expression of despondency by one of the technical managers. This related to performance at the plant that did not reflect the long hours management worked.

The group returned to a content-related discussion on problems such as the long hours they worked being blamed on their inability to delegate and manage others. *The consultant commented that the members did not listen to the painful side and tried to escape from anxiety.* The general manager acknowledged the anxiety in the process ("cannot get out of the circle"), while the marketing manager changed the process into a "safer" meeting by referring to an imaginary table and later experiencing it as reality. Work-related frustrations were identified in terms of the workforce (e.g. incompetence, lack of skills and lack of discipline) and in terms of corporate management (e.g. absence of a plan, keeping power and lack of support). It was commented that there was talk about the same problems without any actions being taken and that perceived powerlessness might be used as an excuse. *The consultant referred to the boundary role of the marketing manager and that he needed to take away good news from the team. He also commented on the complaining ("moaning and groaning") and that the frustration of the group members was disempowering them. Talking about people*

who were not in the room could have served as self-protection.

Individual responsibility for taking action was emphasised before talk returned to the lack of unity in and action by the team ("kamstige team"). *The consultant referred to the avoidance of confrontation by team members by working through the general manager and that the silent voices also needed to be heard for a full picture.* It was thought that a common goal and placing the interests of the organisation before personal interests ("own little mountain" and "back stabbing") would lead to less dependency and greater unity in the team. Work pressure and ineffective communication were again mentioned and it was said that there was difficulty in challenging authority. Respect for authority was seen as culturally based but the general manager responded that "ek is nie jou pa nie". *The consultant commented that the team members were frustrated by authority but that their fear of challenging authority was disempowering them. The leadership, in turn, resisted this dependency. Ineffective communication made it difficult to relate and the struggle with relatedness in the team was mirrored in their interaction with the total system leading to feelings of isolation. The compulsive following of a way of doing things furthermore implied that energy was going around and people were getting stuck and finding it difficult to move.*

Previous issues (their need for structure, communication problems in the team and in the plant, lack of delegation and individual interests versus a common vision) were repeated. The split between services and production was again mentioned *(according to the consultant this split could have been be accompanied by aggression)*, and although team goals were seen as important, it was said that insufficient attention was being paid to individual needs. *The consultant commented that this process was resembling a court case with guilt being placed on someone else to find relief rather than realising that they were all part of a system and needed to carry stuff for each other. "They should not expect heaven with no fear, frustration and anxiety" but they should work towards less anxiety and thus not be managed by fear but manage fear.* Although it was acknowledged that dependency on the general manager reflected the displacement of responsibility, dealing with this caused discomfort, and at the end of the time period the group shifted the blame to corporate management.

The team members and the consultants interacted to a greater extent during the 30-minute tea

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break than during the lunch break. The atmosphere was also more relaxed.

Processes and dynamics

The group recognised the current task and started working on this with little resistance. A hypothesis was formulated that, over the past few weeks, the intervention had resulted in some sensitisation regarding intra- and interpersonal functioning. Ultimately, they needed to identify and work on their primary task as a management team (related to the primary task of the plant). There was an awareness of their own need for understanding and connection, but working in the here and now and dealing with soft issues (the process) made them uncomfortable and the time period was changed into a meeting with the focus on production issues (the content).

While the general manager tried to keep work focused on the here and now, the marketing manager escaped into the larger context. These managers seemed to be unwilling to accept their boundary roles; neither was the group willing to allow this. Anxiety about their ability to deal with the work and with soft issues both in and outside the team, resulted in projection onto other team members (including the general manager), the workers and corporate management. This flight behaviour fostered a feeling of depression in the researcher. The team's frustrations in this regard were also disempowering them, and to deal with this they had to realise that concepts such as individual responsibility versus group support and individual versus group goals were not mutually exclusive. As long as trust was a problem and open communication (including effective confrontation) in the group was avoided, these issues could not be resolved and unity would be difficult. Role clarity in the team and clarity in terms of group norms had to be established to improve relatedness in the team, a struggle reflected in the team's interaction with the total system.

The team members furthermore struggled to challenge authority and to take up personal authority. Dependency prevailed despite resistance from the leadership. (The shift in energy from the right of the researcher during the first time period to the leadership opposite the researcher during the second time period, reflected the issues on authority that emerged during this time period.) Working through frustrations related to the work and authority (by

focusing on the intra- and interpersonal) might have been hampered by their need for structure and control which restricted the flow of energy (as seen in the repetition of issues). The depressive position implied that each member had to accept his or her own part in the system and the fact that anxiety results from taking up authority and responsibility. This anxiety had to be managed rather than using defences such as blaming (shifting the guilt) to deal with it.

From the interaction during the tea break it seemed as if the team had adapted to working on process rather than content and that they no longer challenged the consultants. This reflected on the work done but also indicated dependency (seeing the consultants as the experts). It was also possible that some members (especially the general manager) were drawn into their roles and did not hear what the consultants were saying.

8.3.4 Time period 3

This time period lasted one and a half hours. The financial manager and the production manager - phase 2, were late, causing some concern in the group. Members continued to express their need for sufficient and open communication, sharing and mutual support in the team. Informal contact as a means for creating better working relationships was discussed. One of the production managers stated that "he felt scared some mornings". *The consultant said that they should not regard social interaction as separate but do the work in a different manner so as to built respect and trust in the work situation creating a context in which challenging each other was possible.* Talk returned to problematic issues related to production (meetings, time pressures, losses, discipline and management) with members stating their opinions without listening to one another. The planning and logistics manager was called out. *The consultant commented on the shift to the content away from the process and to the fact that the members did not talk directly to or listen to one another.*

Some comments were made on how to deal with the problems at the plant, referring to a focus on team performance and providing reinforcements but also to the perceived incompetence at the lower levels (with opposing viewpoints in this regard). *The consultant saw this projected incompetence onto the lower levels as the result of the fantasy that managers were competent and had to take the decisions.* A joke was made. The general manager stated that

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the team efforts were sufficient to make this the number one plant and it "burns me honestly" that it was not the case. *The consultant stated that the general manager was holding onto his "object of authority" role and that he needed to let go. This was partly the result of a system that was pulling down people at all levels and not authorising them to assume their positions as leaders.* It was acknowledged that team members should function more independently. The result would be better performance, but because of their inability to deal with the work-related pressure they might also "fall over". Opportunities to grow were needed, especially at lower levels, although this did not exclude the need for control. *The consultant commented that there should be greater concern about issues such as growth and trust, otherwise dependency and overprotection would result. The "needy system" seduced the general manager and the management team into a role of being in control, thus keeping others dependent. Management would experience guilt if they did not take responsibility and the subordinates might react with shock and anger. Who was in control of what?* The group explored this dynamic with references to their relationship with the general manager (taking personal responsibility instead of relying on him) and to subordinates (a feeling of guilt when not in control; a need for clear boundaries so that caring does not imply being a father figure; allowing others to grow and become empowered; and helping others to attain organisational goals instead of trying to do this oneself). In reaction to this discussion, talk returned to the need for some control, given the capability of the workforce and the need to for responsibility to be "pushed down" and people to be lifted up. *The consultant saw the general manager as providing containment and the safety for the team to grow and do their work. However, when the team members overstepped the boundary, it led to role overload and feelings of burnout, tiredness, helplessness and not being connected.* The general manager confirmed this by saying that "it takes courage to come to work". Comments were made on recent positive production results and the team consequently feeling more positive about work but also about the crisis management (anxiety driven) style resulting in a need for control. Control and constraints from corporate management and a need to protect the plant from corporate management were mentioned.

The time period ended with comments on the split between production and services and a lack of cooperation and resultant feelings of isolation. *According to the consultant, the split in the team mirrored the structure in the plant which played into the room causing isolation and*

making it difficult to communicate and integrate. A 30-minute tea break followed.

Processes and dynamics

The group focused on process issues in their discussion on communication and the need for trust and support in the team. Issues of inclusion again surfaced and it was clear that the group was still relying on an apparently intact "family", thus reflecting their dependency issues. An honest expression of feelings of anxiety made it clear that if they were prepared to acknowledge and show their vulnerability and to respect these feelings in others, they might be able to create a context in which individuals accept responsibility but in an interdependent manner. This was, however, difficult for the group members and they moved to the there and then of production (content issues). This shift required someone to carry the feelings not dealt with as seen in a member leaving the room and a member who commented very little. The pressure was real but they seemed to deal with pressure individually, while better interpersonal relationships would have resulted in more team efforts. The lack of integration in the team probably mirrored the situation in the rest of the plant as well as in the organisation.

The team members' defence against anxiety was resulting in antitask behaviour such as the projection of incompetence onto the workforce. Flight behaviour was observed when they were asked to consider the reality of this projection. This projection also resulted in even more pressure because it implied greater responsibility for the management team which, in turn, was resolved by members becoming dependent on the general manager. He was experiencing role overload and feelings of burnout, tiredness, helplessness and not being connected as a result of this dependency. "Fathering" by the general manager could have been a defence against having to discipline. The pattern was repeated in the plant. Instead of authorising the leadership, the system seemed to be using it to fulfil dependency needs. In turn, subordinates were not trusted to or allowed to take up their authority. There was a lack of role clarity (who was responsible for what) and overstepping of boundaries (managers taking responsibility for subordinates' work and the latter relying on management for work that was their responsibility). Flight behaviour in the form of projection onto corporate management as the enemy also resulted. Comments in this regard indicated that the control

and dependency culture originated from corporate management (possibly indicating some real limitations of the context in which the team had to work and the management style in the plant therefore to some extent being a realistic response).

During the tea break there was some talk about family matters, reflecting a need for belonging and escaping from the anxiety caused during the session.

8.3.5   Time period 4

This last time period was again an hour and a half, and defined as a review and application session. One can consider boundaries, authority, role and task in such a session. The focus here was on task and each member had to describe his or her job in normative (job description) and existential (how the member sees it) terms. By inviting comments from others, a phenomenal perspective (how others see it) was also gained. The service departments emphasised their role in service of production, in support of the management team and in service of the customer. The need for providing reliable and timely information was mentioned and reference was made to this not being an initiating role. They also had to provide guidance to their own team of subordinates and comments were made by some members on the lack of ability of these teams in terms of task and people skills. This, in turn, led to crises and affected the managers' performance. Positive feedback from the other members related to enthusiasm and willingness to help, initiative and competence and the ability to deal with crises. Factors that needed attention were insufficient sharing of information, too much time taken in responding, some lack of supervision and over-involvement with the customer. *The consultant wondered how willing the members of the group were to provide feedback despite the need for this. He referred to the boundary role of the marketing manager and the fact that he served as a source of information to the team, and also commented on the frustration of the group (partly due to too much work) possibly being seated in the planning and logistics manager.*

The managers who dealt with production emphasised quality, standards, timely delivery and keeping costs low. Involvement in teamwork and competence in teams were mentioned and some frustration was expressed about the fact that the job demanded a task-oriented person,

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whereas there was a need to fulfil more of a coaching role. It was also mentioned that a lack of delegation led to overload and that pressure hampered performance. One of the managers referred to his position of doing a lot of work for corporate management. Positive comments from others related to knowledge, creativity, drive, professionalism, a sense of responsibility and a noncompromising attitude. The latter, however, also had negative consequences, especially if there was insufficient consideration of the opinion of others (being a "pain"). Insufficient trust of others was also mentioned. *The consultant commented on the need to talk and be heard, talking on behalf of others, and on the perception that one of the managers was too tough with others. He also referred to one of the managers representing the history of the plant.*

The consultant mentioned that time was running out (half of the managers had described their task) and the number of comments from others on each manager's task decreased. The general manager saw his role as taking the team "on a journey of improvement to world-class excellence". He preferred to work as part of a creative, winning team and was uncomfortable in a controlling role with the conflict and dependency that this involved ("at times it is a challenge to get out of bed"). Comments were made on the overload impacting on his health, and although he was seen as a leader who taught his team a lot, he did not give them or expect sufficient responsibility from them. (Corporate management were also seen as being overinvolved.) His perfectionism also had negative consequences in terms of production. He showed compassion, but some people did not experience him as supportive. *The consultant referred to the need for feedback in the moment. He concluded the session by saying that the team showed left-brain potential but was feeling frustration as a result of helplessness, hopelessness and anger that was not being expressed (me versus the goal).*

Processes and dynamics

The managers from the services department emphasised their serving role, thus focusing on the split between services and production in the team and in the plant. Did they feel some resentment in having to fulfil this role and were they carrying a less "glamorous" part? In both services and production, a sense of responsibility and a noncompromising attitude were valued, again indicating the need for structure and the value attached to being in control

(partly justified by projections of incompetence). Both in the case of the general manager and the other managers and their teams, this control resulted in dependency that disabled the subordinates and frustrated the managers. There was a need for greater emphasis on relationships and the development of people skills this implied. Not dealing with frustrations resulted in feelings of helplessness, hopelessness and anger. The general manager used flight into the future as a defence and escaped with an idealistic vision of "world-class excellence" and he also indicated a wish to be "swallowed" by the team. Emphasis on the safety of the team (also reflected in the consultants' need for reassurance from one another) implied that the group did not acknowledge the importance of interaction with the environment and of the boundary roles of some of its members.

8.4 THE LEADERSHIP AND PERSONALITY PROFILES

The leadership and personality profiles of the general manager and of the management team were discussed in detail in chapter 7. In the ensuing discussion, these profiles are considered as they relate to the hypotheses on the role of leadership and the processes and dynamics in the management team and in related systems.

8.4.1 The general manager

In terms of his leadership profile, the general manager seemed to make effective use of transformational behaviour. His average interest in creative work together with a critical approach provided some support for him being able to articulate a vision and stimulating others as part of a process of change. He indicated on his personality profile that he was a responsible individual who adhered to a moral code of behaviour and that he therefore served as a role model. He was furthermore an optimistic person who indicated inner direction and a high energy level. These traits were reflected in comments from the management team that they respected him for his work ethic and that he had a vision that had already resulted in changes. He himself indicated a positive outlook on and a vision for where he saw the plant in the future.

The general manager used active transactional leadership to the same extent as the

transformational style. His dedication inspired others but it was also said that he took too much responsibility for his team, protecting them and not allowing them to accept their own responsibility. The adherence to standards and regulations shown on his personality profile was also seen in his attention to detail and perfectionism. A comment was made that the environment required such an attitude, but that it seemed as if it was also used to maintain control and handle anxiety. Throughout the intervention, the dynamic of control by the general manager and resultant dependency by the rest of the management team preventing them from taking up their leadership roles, was observed. Although the general manager stated a preference for a visionary rather than a controlling approach, his profile indicated a need for both. The pressure experienced in the system probably resulted in the emphasis on control. The personality profile indicated a resilient person who would nevertheless at times experience tension and respond to stress. There appeared to be a lot of pressure in the system (much of this directed at the general manager) and feelings of burnout, tiredness and helplessness were indicated, impacting on the general manager's function of providing containment. His valence for moving towards and helping others enabled the team and the organisational system to project anxieties onto and into him which he, in turn, acted out by efforts to maintain control. This resulted in feelings of burnout.

His personality profile indicated that he had an affiliative nature and he also fulfilled an active role in group situations. He was willing to take the lead but at the same time indicated that he used a consultative and participative style. Despite being people oriented, he did not lose his objectivity. It appeared that the general manager encouraged participation and teamwork and that he brought about changes in this regard. However, excessive reliance on the participative style was seen in comments about meetings at the plant. This reflected efforts by the general manager to keep control by being involved, and also implied that role boundaries were not adhered to, resulting in insufficient direction as well as lack of authorisation of the rest of the team. Furthermore, his interest in personal relations and involvement with others seemed to be directed at organisational goals rather than at individual growth and needs. This made sense, given his equal reliance on transformational and transactional behaviour. From others' comments he seemed to be a popular person but there was a general feeling that task management at the plant was adequate, while people management was causing some insecurity.

8.4.2   The management team

The profile of the management team pointed towards conceptual and innovative thinking which corresponded with the need of the work environment for continuous technological adjustment. It also implied a visionary outlook and a willingness to accept change but it was clear that not everyone shared this attitude. While the team was not always realistic in its ideas (with only a couple of managers indicating a focus on practical concerns and immediate issues in their profiles), the members nevertheless evaluated information objectively and critically (again meeting the demands of the environment). They were furthermore reasonably motivated. Creativity, knowledge and drive were referred to during the intervention. The above attributes pointed towards the transformational style practised by some of the managers and behaviours associated with this style at times also being used by the rest.

The moral concern indicated on the profiles of many of the team members implied that their subordinates were able to identify with their vision (professionalism and conscientiousness were mentioned during the intervention). This was especially true of those managers practising a transformational style. The adherence to rules and regulations that was a characteristic of the profile of this team, however, also reflected the simultaneous transactional preference indicating the kind of structural and procedural approach earlier associated with efforts to remain in control. References were made to managers accepting too much responsibility, having a work overload and practising crisis management because of this. A culture of control and a non-compromising attitude were also recurrent themes. However, the personality profiles also indicated a lack of conscientiousness in the case of certain managers (a nontransactional or passive style that can be linked to aggression against authority) and this was supported by performance issues referred to and mention of problems with quality and standards as well as with timely delivery. It was mentioned that the management style was task oriented and that there was a sense that people management skills were lacking. The personality profiles indicated reasonable resilience in the team with a degree of complacency in some cases. Optimism about the future as well as a realisation of the demands of and problems in the environment were expressed during the intervention, and team members seemed to be using control as a defence against work pressure and the resultant anxiety. Less active participation by some of the managers was also observed.

Team members were split on relationship and interaction preferences and this was also the main difference between those who practised transformational leadership and those who also relied on transactional and nontransactional behaviours. Some of the managers enjoyed the company of others, were active in social situations and provided some support (although objectively). The rest of the team were reasonably responsive in social situations, but they were probably frustrated by excessive interaction and more selective with their support. This split was perceived in the interpersonal issues in the team such as a lack of unity, trust and support, and problems with communication and conflict management. Teamwork was emphasised, but it was not acknowledged that, given the behaviour preferences, this might be problematic for some. Problems in the relationships with the workforce were seen partly as a result of a lack of involvement by management. In this regard, issues of division, communication and trust were also mentioned. References to too many and ineffective meetings reflected a style that was too participative and consultative, possibly indicating insecurity because there was a need for safety in the team and a closed system might have developed. It also showed a need for control. Despite some of the managers showing an inclination towards individual development of subordinates, the tendency was to focus on organisational goals reflecting the influence of a transactional style.

8.5   CONCLUDING HYPOTHESES

Based on recurring themes in the preceding discussions, a number of comprehensive hypotheses were formulated and explored from a theoretical perspective. The hypotheses related to the change experienced in the organisation, the overemphasis on control in the various systems, efforts to move from dependency to interdependence, personal authority as a requirement for interdependent functioning and problems with interrelatedness. Although categories were used in the discussion of the hypotheses, the processes and dynamics referred to in these categories were related. Support for conclusions contributed to the validity of these conclusions but conflicting findings and alternative explanations were also considered. Corroborating results from the climate survey were included in the discussion. The strategic objectives formed by the management team were also used at this stage to form some idea of the sensitisation that occurred during the intervention.

8.5.1   A context of change

Transformation in the organisation was implied by technological demands and labour relation issues and a shift from a procedural to a participative approach was indicated. These changes are in correspondence with global trends (Czander, 1993; Krantz, 2001). At the same time the plant showed inadequate production (in terms of the losses reported) in an outcomes-driven environment. All role players mentioned related pressure and were probably experiencing the insecurity (and resistance) associated with change (Krantz, 2001). In an organisation experiencing change, lack of clarity and a loss of control lead to anxiety and the accompanying dynamics (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). The pressure and resultant anxiety associated with the work environment, especially in a context of change, explained many of the dynamics observed in the management team. In this instance, the consultants carried some of the confusion associated with the lack of clarity, thus providing a degree of containment during the transition when the organisation does not fulfill this function (James & Huffington, 2004; Krantz, 2001). By working through the feelings of confusion on behalf of the management team, the consultants helped the team to shift to some extent. If the consultant is aware of his or her own experiences, possible projections and introjections are identified and he or she acts as a container until the members are ready to take back their feelings (Seel, 2001; Stapley, 1996).

The confusion associated with a time of change was seen in the fluctuation of team members between difficulty in formulating a vision and a more optimistic outlook. The latter was accompanied by a somewhat vague and idealistic vision of "world-class excellence" inspired by the general manager. A hopeful attitude towards the future could reflect adequate reality testing but where the latter is somewhat diminished, an idealised conception of the changes to take place is possible (Krantz, 2001). The management team and related systems in the organisation had to be aware not only of the external reality but also had to reflect on the internal reality, the latter requiring a state of being (as opposed to a condition of doing) (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). In stating their strategic objectives, the management team indicated a realistic awareness of the outside reality, that is, of global competition and the need for change. The team members formulated goals in terms of product requirements, outputs and costs. This, however, implied the condition of doing. A state of being required reflection on

the internal reality of the team, a focus on the here and now. Czander (1993) refers to psychoanalytic consultation aimed at change in terms of the psychic structure of the organisation. This was one of the main aims of the intervention, namely to sensitise the team in terms of individual and group functioning, especially during a period of change. Conscious as well as unconscious motivations had to be considered. Some success in this regard is indicated in the ensuing discussions.

8.5.2   Containment through control

The product of this organisation symbolised safety and, as such, served as a defence system on a broader level by containing and managing anxiety (De Board, 1978; Obholzer, 1994b; Stokes, 1994). At an unconscious level, organisations also contain anxiety and provide security for their members (Czander, 1993; Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000; De Board, 1978; French & Vince, 1999; Obholzer, 2001; Stokes, 1994). The defences provided by an organisation could help in coping, task performance and adjustment to changes. However, they could also obscure reality and prevent the organisation from fulfilling its task and adapting to change. An organisation experiencing change cannot offer the necessary containment, leading to anxiety and resistance to change (James & Huffington, 2004; Krantz, 2001). In a stable environment, projection onto management and onto, say, other departments, alleviates anxiety. With changes in the structures (including the authority structures), personal stress and interpersonal tension in groups are likely to increase (Stokes, 1994). Structural and procedural strategies can be implemented to offer containment during the transitional period, that is, before another defence system has been developed (or as indicated the consultants can in part provide this function). The use of projection as a defence was noted in this instance and a reliance on control developed in reaction to the flexibility of the environment.

Control over the environment was a practical necessity, but probably also served the function of containing anxiety. The organisation's primary task was seen as production, while safety was a practical consideration that directed the production procedures. Related to this was the recurrent theme of structured procedures involving attention to detail and adherence to standards and regulations. In view of the changes that were taking place, there seemed to be excessive reliance on the latter and a culture of control was identified in the organisation. In

line with the culture of control, a centralised leadership style, a lack of development of personal authority and the resultant dependency of subordinates characterised different levels of the organisation, starting with corporate management. Various authors (e.g. Krantz, 2001; Neumann, 1999; Obholzer, 1999; Stapley, 2001) refer to the containment role of management in a context of change. Excessive control could, however, result in a basic assumption of dependency at the group level (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b; Rioch, 1970, 1975) and even at an organisational level (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b; Schneider & Shrivastava, 1988). Kets de Vries and Miller (1984a) refer to the individual psychodynamics of the leader that determines the nature of dysfunctions in an organisation. The reliance on control in this organisation seemed to be partly the result of the controlling leadership style practised by the executive manager. To deal with the resultant pressure and fears about their own ability to meet demands, the directors also exercised control. Initially this control dynamic appeared to be contradicted by the apparent efforts to allow the plant management to take responsibility for the intervention, but at the conclusion of the intervention, corporate management's continuous control became clear. It is possible that without change at this level, change efforts by the plant management were not possible (see the comments by Kline et al., 1996, on factors that most hinder team performance being external to the team and the reference by Coppersmith & Grubbs, 1998, of the need for management to model change).

Opinions differed about the style practised by the general manager at the plant and this was to some extent explained by his leadership and personality profile where elements of both transformational and transactional leadership were observed. Transformational elements such as a strong work ethic, caring, mutual respect and trust as well as providing staff with a vision were mentioned. (Note that according to Conger, 1999, identification with the leader could have played a role in the dependency dynamic referred to in the next section).Transactional elements included a sense of responsibility, providing followers with structure and dealing with issues in a controlling manner. The latter behaviours were appropriate to the manufacturing environment and as Krantz (2001) indicates, structures and procedures also serve as containment in organisations undergoing change. However, the general manager seemed to overemphasise these behaviours to deal with pressure and the resultant anxiety - anxiety projected by the team and the organisational system onto and into him. Because of

this, he was experiencing role overload and feelings of burnout, tiredness, helplessness and not being connected. His individual profile indicated resilience but this probably made projections by the group possible. Both the centralised leadership style practised by corporate management and the dependency of the management team contributed to the manager not being authorised to assume his leadership role. Role consultation dealing with personal as well as organisational issues seemed appropriate (Gould, 2001; Hutton et al., 1997; Pogue White, 2001).

The management team also used control over both processes and people to deal with anxiety. Although some of the team members indicated a transformational leadership style and associated behaviours (creativity, knowledge, conscientiousness, resilience and drive), all the members practised active transactional leadership. The researcher mirrored this need for structure to deal with insecurity (Seel, 2001; Stapley, 1996). According to the leadership and personality profiles, some team members also relied on more passive styles of management. This was reflected in the use of apathy, passivity and noninvolvement in dealing with pressure. The organisation was results driven and there was little tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity. The team members indicated a task focus and a resultant need for a clear task with related objectives. They nevertheless struggled to obtain clarity in terms of the primary task of the team and the plant (Miller & Rice, 1967, 1975, 1990) and also did not seem able to create structure, manage their time, make decisions, deal with ambiguity, communicate constructively and resolve conflict. This reflected energy that went around and got stuck partly because of too much control and structure. French and Vince (1999) refer to the fact that the containing function of organisations could result in rigidity. The passive-active conflict referred to could also have been immobilising.

A right/wrong attitude was appropriate in terms of the production process, but when applied to people, created opportunities for splitting and projection. In an organisational context, projection refers to the paranoid-schizoid way of functioning with members of a group splitting off bad or conflicting needs and emotions and projecting these onto other individuals or groups (Halton, 1994). Projection outside of a group exploits the natural boundary between insiders and outsiders. In this instance, the management team projected onto the workforce and their leadership in seeing them as incompetent, irresponsible, dependent and in need of

being controlled ("push down" and "force down" accountability). Subordinates were consequently not trusted or allowed to take up their authority which, in turn, resulted in their dependency. This placed even more responsibility and pressure on the members of the management team and led to feelings of frustration, helplessness, hopelessness and anger. This was mirrored in the feelings of depression felt by the researcher (Seel, 2001; Stapley, 1996). The team furthermore projected their own need to control onto corporate management, and together with the projection of incompetence onto the workforce, this left them powerless in the middle. They were not allowed to take responsibility and their subordinates did not want to take responsibility.

8.5.3   Dependency versus interdependence

Instead of authorising the leadership, the system seemed to be using it to fulfil dependency needs. Responsibility and accountability were advocated at all levels, but throughout accountability was equated with "who was to blame", justifying the need for control and resulting in a struggle for power. It is suggested that delegated authority (Obholzer, 1994a) was not exercised because of a lack of power (Carr, 2001; Czander, 1993; Miller, 1993; Obholzer, 1994a; Shapiro, 2001). This struggle was reflected in the consultants representing different levels of authority (also indicating the boundary role of the consultants). The general manager provided containment and a sense of safety for the management team which enabled them to work but which also implied dependency. The general manager's style made it difficult for the team members to take up their own authority. They struggled to challenge authority and expressed aggression related to authority. They possibly had a fantasy of the general manager as a saviour. To sustain such a fantasy, they might have set him up for failure thus retaining the hope of "a saviour", never dealing with the reality of their own limitations and the limitations of anyone in a leadership position. This is referred to as the basic assumption of pairing (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b). (Pairing as a defence was used throughout the intervention and was also observed during the group session with the team.)

Because the general manager resigned and corporate management took over decisions at the plant, the hypothesis seems valid that the system was working out the general manager in

order to revert to a state of dependency, with control by corporate management as parental figures. (Note that one of the other managers who left the plant at this stage also advocated change and personal accountability.) The intervention thus concluded with the dynamic of control and dependency still underlying behaviour (although greater insight probably resulted in some shift in this regard). The management team resisted efforts to take up personal authority and seemed to be using dependency (and the resultant flight into passivity) as a way of dealing with pressure. A group working on the basic assumption of dependency obtains security and direction from one individual, in this case the general manager (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984b; Rioch, 1970, 1975). This state is also characterised by ambivalence towards authority when counterdependency develops. A basic assumption group acts as a closed system with inadequate acknowledgement of the external reality.

Obholzer (1994a) refers to the need for the membership to sanction the authority of the role as well as that of the person in the role. The dependency needs of the management team, however, required the general manager to be one of the team rather than sitting on the boundary as a representative of the team, the plant and corporate management (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). Cilliers and Koortzen (2000) refer to the manipulation of the leader out of his role. Roles and activities associated with mediating the relationships across the boundaries between systems are a function of leadership and this boundary role (representing inside and outside reality) is essential in managing change in accordance with adjustments in the organisation's vision and primary task (Obholzer, 2001). If there is role confusion and authority boundaries are not clearly specified, the leader becomes disempowered (Cilliers, 2001; Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000; Shapiro, 2001). The general manager resisted the dependency upon him but was drawn into this role, wishing to be "swallowed" by the team. "Fathering" by him was possibly a defence against having to discipline. Obholzer (2001) refers to the personality of the leader that makes him or her susceptible to taking on the basic assumption group's leadership requirements. According to the personality profile of the general manager, he was willing to take the lead but at the same time preferred a consultative and participative style. This style was also practised by many of the team members, possibly reflecting their need to create safety in the group. This was a way of dealing with the fears associated with change (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001) but could also have been partly responsible for the lack of

directiveness observed in the team.

Projective identification implies that the recipients of a projection unconsciously identify with the projected feelings and often behave accordingly (Halton, 1994). It was not clear to what extent the workforce accepted and acted upon projections of incompetence. The results of the climate survey, for example, indicated that middle and senior management had a more negative perception than the other levels of the discipline in the plant (De Beer & Marais, 2003). The consultants experienced the workforce as dynamic. Statements referring to incompetence and negativity reflected projections, and the workforce did not appear to always take up these projections (being a possible positive force in transition). It was, however, possible that the workers were comfortable in a position of dependency and might have resented having to take up personal authority and the consequent responsibility (reliance on being "saved" by new workers was observed).

At a process level, the functioning of the group in a larger system is provided for by the variables included in the input-process-output model (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; Raelin & LeBien, 1993; West &Anderson, 1996). At a dynamic level, interdependence symbolises this connectedness. Transforming dependency (reliance on others) to the state of interdependence requires role clarity, accepting personal authority in terms of one's roles and acknowledging the relationship with the environment (Carr, 2001; Miller, 1993; Obholzer, 1994a). Group roles refer to the functions, responsibilities and tasks assumed by group members (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997; Zajas, 1994). The management team indicated insight in this regard in stating as a strategic objective the need to clarify the structure of authority and to enable people to handle their responsibilities, inter alia, by allowing greater autonomy in decision making. This refers to the active and participative process of followership (Obholzer, 2001; Obholzer & Miller, 2004) which should not be confused with consensus management, a style that implies the lack of directiveness referred to earlier.

However, commitment to collaboration was also needed at organisational level, requiring a rational distribution of authority, clear role and boundary definitions and the management and regulation of these roles and boundaries at this level (Gould, 2001). Boundaries exist to contain anxiety (Cilliers, 2000; Cilliers & Koortzen, 2000), but transactions related to the

organisation's task take place across the boundaries between systems. Interdependence is crucial when facing change, because the transition involves the whole system, and a group has to acknowledge their relationships with the whole organisation and the outside environment (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001; Miller, 1999; Stacey, 2001). In this instance, interdependence was suggested between corporate management and the plant, between the plant and its suppliers and customers and between the management team and the staff. The changes foreseen implied even greater interdependence in the organisation and between the organisation and other organisations. However, this was not acknowledged and effective interactions across boundaries therefore not encouraged. Instead the different subsystems provided a context for projections which helped to deal with anxiety and thus adaptation, but which also prevented interdependent collaboration.

Obholzer (2001), amongst others, refers to the source of anxiety in the work environment as being related to the task itself and to the relationships with management and colleagues. In the case of the management team, its members experienced insecurity with regard to task management but especially with regard to people management. They dealt with the accompanying insecurity by projecting their own feelings and behaviours onto other groups, thus protecting the fantasy that they as a "family" were safe. Projections, however, also took place in the team, and internal as well as external reality testing seemed inadequate. Re-owning these feelings implies a shift from the paranoid-schizoid to the depressive position (Halton, 1994). This allows a full range of emotional responses and leads to integration and cooperation in and between groups. The depressive position implies that each member had to accept his or her own part in the system and to manage the anxiety accompanying the authority and responsibility for this position. To this end, an individual member had to learn to manage the boundary between the inner world and the external reality (Miller & Rice, 1967).

However, it is painful to take back less acceptable feelings and another person, such as a consultant, may have to temporarily contain these feelings (Halton, 1994). Once clarity in terms of roles and boundaries had been obtained, interdependence in the team and with related systems would have been possible (Carr, 2001). Interdependence is achieved in a dependency group when counterdependence has made way for individual thought, cooperation and

appropriate use of authority (De Board, 1978). The relationship between the leader and his or her followers determines their appreciation of interdependence (Carr, 2001). Their own authority in this relationship is emphasised in the statement by Obholzer (2001), namely that effective leadership requires active followership. The strategic objectives formulated by the members of the management team reflected the need for role clarity as well as the personal accountability of the managers in terms of decisiveness, effectiveness and commitment to task completion and deadlines.

8.5.4   Personal authority

Personal authority refers to the confirmation of authority from within an individual by the individual himself or herself (Obholzer, 1994a), and implies managing oneself in relation to role and task performance (Carr, 2001; Miller, 1993; Obholzer, 1994a). The strategic objectives formulated by the members of the management team indicated an awareness in terms of role clarity and resultant authority and accountability in terms of themselves and of their subordinates. However, with regard to their own functioning, it has been indicated that they apparently reverted to a position of dependency.

In a manufacturing environment, especially in the local context, the issue of capacity building is central to empowerment. It was regularly mentioned that subordinates had to be empowered through coaching and support in a context of teamwork thus enabling them to take up authority when appropriate and as negotiated in terms of role definitions and boundaries. The management team identified capacity building (improvement in the competency level of the staff, identification and development of potential, career development and succession planning), development of subordinates (involvement in problem solving and decision making, delegation, trust and support, recognition and individual feedback and expecting accountability), as well as a team approach as strategic objectives. However, the team again implied the control feature of their management style in referring to a balance between consideration for people and active control over task progression. This was mirrored in the insufficient involvement of the workforce in the intervention despite the consultants' apparent concern in this regard. Control was even implied in the efforts to empower subordinates. Carr (2001) regards the term "empowerment" as inappropriate because it implies giving others

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power instead of negotiating to develop their authority. Some explanation for the contrast is found in the leadership and personality profile of the team - all members preferred a degree of control, with some members also indicating a more supportive role in their relationships.

8.5.5 Interrelatedness

At a process level, the composition of the management team (a homogeneous group with long tenure in the case of some of its members) implied cohesion, especially in the earlier phases. However, this composition could also have resulted in groupthink and a negative impact on performance in situations requiring innovativeness such as in a changing environment (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; Earley, 1999; Elron, 1997; Keck, 1997; Kim et al., 1999; Knight et al., 1999; McCauley, 1998; Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998; Sohoran, 1993; Watson et al., 1998; West & Anderson, 1996). At a dynamic level, a system deals with the fears associated with change by creating safety within (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). Emphasis on the safety of the team implied that the members did not acknowledge the importance of interaction with the environment and of the boundary roles of some of its members. The team reacted to uncertainty with a need for containment, safety and support in the team. The need for an intervention questioned the assumption that there was safety in the general manager, providing another possible reason for working him out in order to keep the team a closed system. This was partly confirmed by the resignation of the general manager. Similarly, some of the other management members who left the plant or who were cautioned in terms of their performance, seemed to carry certain issues for the team (presumably traits associated with more passive leadership styles) and left the team even more homogenous in terms of its profile (Cilliers, 2000). It is also possible that feelings of hostility against the general manager caused too much anxiety and were therefore projected onto scapegoats (Lyndon, 1994). The consultants mirrored the team's need for support in their seeking reassurance from one another. They were also tempted to maintain the "family" image of the management team.

The team was not successful in creating a safe system as was seen in splits and projections as well as issues of inclusion and exclusion that threatened its unity (mirrored in the division in the workforce). This probably reflected the increase in interpersonal tension in groups that is experienced when organisational change implies less successful reliance on defences such

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as projection (Stokes, 1994). Emphasis on personal interests instead of on a group goal characterised the struggle for a team identity. Team members showed a need for understanding, acceptance and connection but a lack of trust made it difficult to acknowledge and show vulnerability and also to respect these feelings in others. This, in turn, impacted on open communication and effective confrontation and conflict management. The team members found it difficult to work with these issues in the here and now and resorted instead to the there and then by focusing on task-related issues.

From a process perspective, principles of counselling groups could have been applied to improve practices and help the team to accomplish identified work goals (Corey & Corey, 1997). The group acknowledged that maintenance behaviours were problematic, and according to Bottom and Baloff (1994), a team building approach is suitable in dealing with these process variables. Maintenance behaviours refer, inter alia, to communication, participation, cooperation, supportiveness and conflict management (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; Kathuria & Partovi, 1999; McLeod et al., 1992; Watson et al., 1998; West & Anderson, 1996). Mutual trust, awareness of feelings, acknowledgement and understanding of differences as well as an emphasis on sustaining relationships, are required to develop team unity (Kim et al., 1999). Role clarity in the team and clarity in terms of group norms and values had to be established to improve relatedness in the team. (The rules and norms already adhered to, to some extent represented the rituals/traditions referred to by Luft, 1984, as a defence against anxiety.)

Strategic objectives referred to improved communication with sharing of ideas, requests for information, less defensiveness, flexibility, willingness to allow others to express their ideas, and positive challenge of these ideas. Trust, respect and support between members and departments had to be fostered and an emphasis on team performance was to be encouraged. Meaning in terms of the here and now and hope for the future are preconditions for the development of trust. The struggle with interrelatedness impacted on their ability to find meaning and the insecurity related to change in the organisation affected their view of the current and future situation.

At a dynamic level, sensitisation was also needed in terms of a balance between team unity

and interpersonal support implied by interdependence versus dependency with its lack of personal authority and accountability (Carr, 2001). The team had to realise that concepts such as individual responsibility versus group support and individual versus group goals were not mutually exclusive (Locke & Latham, 1992; Luft, 1984; Zajas, 1994). Principles of experience-based groups (Cooper, 1979; Smith, 1980) and experiential learning (Gould, 2001; Luft, 1984; Smith, 1980) were adopted in providing the sensitisation. In the work with the management team, there was some repetition of the stages of group development (Bottom & Baloff 1994; Burns, 1995; Corey & Corey, 1997; Luft, 1984; Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1998; Wheelan 1994), reflecting the lack of group identity. In an organisational context and in this structured and task-focused environment in particular, people were reasonably comfortable in dealing with the more familiar process variables. The nature of the intervention probably did not provide sufficiently for the organisational culture in terms of dependency and the consequent need for structure (Stapley, 1996, 2001). Working at a dynamic level caused discomfort as seen in the group session held with the management team. In stating the strategic objectives, the team reverted to procedures and content with which they were familiar. Flight into the known took place as the unknown was threatening.

Sensitisation at a dynamic level implies an increase in knowledge and awareness of especially unconscious processes related to individual and team behaviour, personal feelings and defences in this regard, and group dynamics (Cilliers, 2000). The aim is to develop more effective ways of relating between the individual and the group, between a group and another group, between a group and an organisation and between the organisation and outside systems. In this instance, the sensitisation was insufficient and the intervention prematurely concluded with a return to the familiar dynamic of control and dependency at the closure of the intervention. The anxiety, need for closure and feelings of disconnection (and resultant guilt) that the research experienced are normal at the end of an intervention, but possibly also reflected the feelings caused by organisational change and the intervention for the management team (Seel, 2001; Stapley, 1996).

The struggle with relatedness was reflected in the team's interaction with the total system and in the problems experienced with people management. Racial and language differences with its tensions, stereotypes, perceived threats and issues of belonging, impacted negatively on

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the communication necessary to develop trust which, in turn, enables people to work together. Issues with relationships and trust were also reflected in the results of the climate survey (De Beer & Marais, 2003). The primarily white management team was mirrored in the consultancy team and in the formulation of strategic objectives, the management team indicated awareness of the split between departments as well as in terms of racial and other groups. A lack of trust and effective communication characterised the relationship between the management team and staff. Confusion in task versus people management was reflected in the group's competitiveness ("me" rather than "us"). The general manager and some of the other team members indicated a consultative and participative style as well as an affiliative nature in terms of their personality preferences. Their involvement with others seemed directed at organisational goals instead of individual development. The other members indicated that they were frustrated by an emphasis on interaction and they were also selective in the support they provided. These factors contributed to the difficulty of establishing satisfactory relationships and explained why teamwork was not always successful despite the support voiced in this regard.

Various authors (e.g. Bethel, 2000; Brandstätter & Farthofer, 1997; Cooper, 1979; Corey & Corey, 1997) support these arguments for an influence of manager personality in terms of the processes and dynamics observed. Luft (1984), however, cautions that although the leader functions related to socioemotional needs are necessary, these are not sufficient. Adequate task-related behaviours are also required. McLeod et al. (1992) refer to the need for a balance between socioemotional and task-oriented behaviours, with an emphasis on the latter. Various authors (e.g. Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; Harrison & Pietri, 1997; Kathuria & Partovi, 1999; Keck, 1997; Knicely, 1996; McCauley, 1998; Shaw & Barret-Power, 1998; West & Anderson, 1996) describe task behaviours. Both transactional and transformational leadership are related to work performance and work attitudes, and both these styles also have value in organisational contexts (see, for example, Atwater & Bass, 1994; Bycio et al., 1995; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Sagie, 1996; Sosik, 1997; Sosik & Dionne, 1997). Differentiation in terms of socioemotional needs (associated more with the transformational style) and a task focus (associated more with transactional behaviours) was nevertheless observed.

8.6   SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to gain an understanding of the processes and dynamics in the management team and how these related to the leadership style being exercised, and of the interrelatedness of this team with other systems both in and outside the organisation in the context of organisational change. Based on individual interviews with some of the directors of the organisation and with the members of the management team, operational and behavioural issues in the plant and in the organisation were identified and the underlying dynamics explored. Recurring themes dealt with the emphasis on production, the structured and controlled environment implied by the production procedures and the transfer of this control to people management. Control and the resultant dependency were features of the different levels of the organisation, including corporate management, the general manager and his team, and the management team and their subordinates. Projection was also used as a defence against anxiety (related to task management but especially to people management) and this was partly responsible for the problems with relatedness experienced in the management team and also in their interaction with other systems. The themes were further explored during group interviews with the members of the management team and with staff representatives, but it was especially during the group consultation session with the managers that the manifestation of these processes and dynamics was observed. The leadership and personality profiles of the general manager and of the management team partly explained the combination of transformational leadership features with the more transactional focus on task objectives and procedures. The impact in terms of the control-dependency dynamic and interpersonal relationships was discussed.

Concluding hypotheses were stated with due consideration of leadership theory, group theory and theory on the systems psychodynamic approach. The lack of clarity and flexibility associated with a context of change, resulted in insecurity and feelings of anxiety. In an environment characterised by structure and control, reliance on these mechanisms to provide containment seemed realistic. However, overemphasis of control led to a centralised leadership style and resultant dependency in the various systems. Interdependence not only between members in a system but also between the various systems, however, was essential especially given the context of change. This implied a need for clarity in terms of roles and boundaries, and acceptance of personal authority in relation to these roles as well as sanctioning of the boundary function that forms part of leadership. A struggle with relatedness

in and between systems nevertheless prevailed. The members of the management team showed increased awareness and understanding of their own functioning at individual and group level. However, this seemed insufficient, probably because of premature closure in terms of the intervention.

Chapter 9 integrates the conclusions with regard to the aims of the study, and discusses the recommendations made in this regard.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

In a rapidly changing market environment, organisations are faced with a need for change in various systems (Gordon-Brown & Bendixen, 2002; Horwitz et al., 2002; Krantz, 2001; Rosenzweig, 1998; Van der Colff, 2003). Leadership is central to this transformation (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Leadership should, however, be seen in relation to the concurrent processes and dynamics in the team being led, while also considering the interrelatedness between all systems in and outside the organisation. The problem statement was therefore formulated as an investigation into the relationship between leadership style and group processes and dynamics with due consideration of the role of related systems in a context of organisational change.

The theoretical assumptions and practical implications of the full range model of leadership were covered in the literature review. This model provides for the transactional-transformational paradigm of leadership, a paradigm that includes leadership behaviour regarded as suitable to changes in the market environment (Bass & Avolio, 1994). According to this model, every leader displays each of three leadership styles to some degree, namely laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership (Bass, 1997). Bass and Avolio (1994) contend that the transformational leader relies on behaviours associated with idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration to bring about change at individual, group and organisational level. This does not exclude the appropriate use of transactional behaviours. Transformational leadership furthermore implies identification with a vision, leading to empowerment (in contrast to the identification with a person associated with charismatic leadership that could lead to dependence) (Conger, 1999). Central to empowerment is the relationship between the leader and individual followers and the concept of individualised consideration (Atwater & Bass, 1994; Kuhnert, 1994). This emphasis on the leader-member relationship is also seen in empirical work, and the leader-member exchange theory has been used to explore the influence of both the transactional and transformational leader on the quality of relationships and on job-related outcomes (e.g. Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Murphy & Ensher, 1999). The information gained by studying leadership influence at individual level, has also been used in group and organisational contexts. Various

authors (e.g. Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Sagie, 1996; Sosik, 1997) found transactional and transformational leadership to have a differential effect on performance and work attitudes at group level. In terms of organisational strategy, behaviours associated with both styles seem to be required (Atwater & Bass, 1994).

The literature review also covered approaches to studying and working with groups. In studying group processes, an input-process-output model provides for group and organisational variables related to the group's functioning (Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; West & Anderson, 1996). Input variables at group level (as discussed by authors such as Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997; Dirks, 1999; Elron, 1997; Keck, 1997; Luft, 1984; Phillips & Phillips, 1993) include the composition of the group - that is, its size, how homogeneous or heterogeneous it is (with related advantages and disadvantages), the group task and team tenure. Group roles and group norms are considered structural variables, as is the cohesiveness of the group. Cohesiveness refers to the mutual attraction of its members which makes better communication possible (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997) but may also have a negative impact on production in the form of groupthink (McCauley, 1998). Group processes include maintenance behaviours with the emphasis on interpersonal relationships (trust, support, communication, coordination, conflict management, etc.) and task behaviours aimed at solving problems and realising goals (problem identification and analysis, information search, decision making, strategy formulation, etc.). Numerous authors (e.g. Bottom & Baloff, 1994; Dirks, 1999; Harrison & Pietri, 1997; Kathuria & Partovi, 1999; McCauley, 1998) discuss these processes.

Group dynamics, on the other hand, include not only conscious but also unconscious interaction between the individual, the group and the organisation (Cilliers & Koortzen, 1997). The systems psychodynamic perspective is based on the theory and concepts of psychoanalysis, group relations and open systems theory (Gould, 2001). The systems psychodynamic approach refers to a psychoanalytic perspective on group functioning as well as the application of open systems theory to provide for the inclusion of the structural aspects of organisations (Miller, 1993; Miller & Rice, 1967, 1975, 1990). The paranoid-schizoid and depressive positions (Czander, 1993; De Board, 1978; Klein, 1959, 1985) are applied to group life (including work groups) in explaining the group behaviours directed at survival and the

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defence mechanisms that the group uses to handle unconscious emotions, fears and needs (Bion, 1961, 1975; De Board, 1978; Rioch 1970, 1975). Central to these defences is the role of authority (Obholzer, 2001; Wheelan, 1994). The interdependence between the group and other systems furthermore requires the leadership of the group to serve a boundary function in maintaining the group identity while interacting constructively with other systems (Obholzer, 2001). The organisation serves as a container for the anxieties of its members as well as on a broader level for social anxieties (Czander, 1993; De Board, 1978; Stokes, 1994). This, however, requires a relatively stable environment (Stokes, 1994), whereas change impacts negatively on the organisation's containing function (Krantz, 2001). Change will only be successfully dealt with if there is awareness of the dynamics in the groups in an organisation and of the relationships with the environment (Bar-Lev Elieli, 2001). The concept of group relations training (e.g. Rice, 1965, 1975), with its focus on interpersonal, intergroup and institutional relationships, is often used in organisational consultation, including contexts of change (e.g. Miller, 1993).

The above fields of study, namely leadership and group processes and dynamics were integrated in the empirical investigation. The specific approaches referred to were used as a framework for this investigation. Intervention was done at management level in a plant of a South African production organisation that had been experiencing transformation. The intervention dealt with the identification of behavioural and operational issues and the sensitisation of the members of the management team in terms of individual and group functioning. Respondents from the organisation were directors, members of the management team, representatives of the staff and staff members. Self-reflection and reflection on the methodology implied that part of the consultants' role was also that of respondents. Quantitative instruments and qualitative methods were used to gather information. Questionnaires were used to evaluate the members of the management team in terms of their leadership styles and associated traits and behaviours. This information was used to explore the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership and the impact of leadership style on the various systems. Individual and group interviews involved some of the directors, members of the management team and staff representatives, while a group consultation session was also held with the management team. Possible behavioural and operational issues in the organisation were identified and hypotheses formulated on the processes and dynamics

in the team and in related systems. Results from a climate survey and strategic objectives set by the management team, supported and added to the available information. A discussion of the specific aims related to the empirical investigation follows. The chapter concludes with a critique on the study and the final conclusions and recommendations.

9.1   TRAITS AND BEHAVIOURS ASSOCIATED WITH TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The related aim stated in chapter 1 is: to gain an understanding of transactional and transformational leadership through a description of the traits and behaviours of managers exercising these styles. The members of the management team were evaluated in terms of their preferred leadership styles (as measured on the MLQ) and two groups were identified. Some of the managers (including the general manager) relied on both transformational behaviours and active transactional behaviours with an absence of behaviours associated with passive leadership. The rest of the managers sometimes used behaviours associated with all the styles. (Note that an effective leader is expected to use transformational behaviours fairly often, to sometimes use active transactional behaviours, while hardly ever relying on passive leadership.) A qualitative and integrated description of the traits and behaviours (as measured on the OPQ and the 16PF) of the managers in the two groups showed definite trends. Not only could these trends be explained in terms of the theory on the full range model of leadership while adding to the understanding of transactional and transformational leadership, but it also provided support for the use of personality questionnaires when desiring a certain leadership profile.

In terms of some of the traits and behaviours related to cognitive styles and approaches to problem solving, there was no clear distinction between the two groups. The team as a whole seemed to be conceptual and innovative but the results for the managers in both groups ranged from a focus on practical concerns to a high interest in conceptual thinking, innovation and the critical evaluation of information. The latter is associated with the inspirational motivation function of transformational leadership, a style used by the one group of managers, and occasionally by the second group. Both inspirational motivation and idealised influence require clarity in terms of work standards, commitment in this regard, and a sense of

responsibility in work and social contexts. A need for structure and a focus on task performance, however, also characterise the leader who relies on an active transactional style. These traits were clearly exhibited by the managers in the group relying on both transformational and transactional behaviours. The managers in the second group either showed concern for moral standards and rules or adhered to regulations in a work context, but did not indicate a consistent profile of commitment to social and work-related obligations. This reflected their reliance on transactional behaviours combined with aspects of passive leadership. Overall, a characteristic of this team seemed to be their adherence to procedures, regulations and standards.

Inspirational motivation, idealised influence and intellectual stimulation imply enthusiasm, a high energy level and the self-confidence to deal with various situations. Again the groups were similar in terms of these traits and behaviours and all the managers were at least reasonably resilient, although some apprehension and emotional reactiveness were noted. A degree of complacency indicated in the case of the second group was linked to the use of passive leadership.

The primary difference between the two groups was noted in the interpersonal styles of the managers. Regardless of preferred style of leadership, the managers indicated that they had a need to influence and lead others (or were at least reasonably willing to do so) and that they made an impact in social situations. These traits and behaviours are associated with inspirational motivation, idealised influence and intellectual stimulation. These functions of transformational leadership, however, also require sensitivity towards followers' needs and active participation by them, and whereas the managers in the first group indicated that they consulted others and valued consensus, the second group was characterised by a more directive approach with less involvement. Moreover, an affiliative nature and reasonable caring and support for others confirmed the transformational style of the managers in the one group. Their exercise of individualised consideration, however, was influenced by the objective, goal-oriented approach associated with their reliance on active transactional behaviours. Managers in the second group indicated that they were more reserved (although still at least reasonably responsive when interaction was required) and mostly selective in their support, preferring to remain detached from others' problems. This noninvolvement is

a feature of passive leadership. Task orientation versus people orientation seemed characteristic of the team as a whole.

Transformational leadership seemed to have been characterised mainly by traits and behaviours associated with idealised influence and individualised consideration - that is, with the interpersonal aspect more than the visionary aspect of leadership. This distinction has been related to identification with the person versus identification with goals and also ties in with the distinction in terms of harmony as the driving force in the African context rather than the visionary outlook supported by Western concepts of leadership. The findings provide valuable guidelines on determining the profile of the effective leader, but also partly indicate perceived effectiveness versus an objective evaluation. The leader was evaluated by others and it is possible that these raters associated effective leadership behaviours (as measured by the MLQ) with someone who exhibits personality traits and behaviours (as measured on the OPQ and the 16PF) contributing to social values and interpersonal satisfaction.

9.2   GROUP PROCESSES AND DYNAMICS IN RELATION TO LEADERSHIP STYLE

The related aim stated in chapter 1 is: to gain an understanding of the processes and dynamics in a management team and how these reflect and influence the leadership style being exercised. The information obtained during the interviews on possible behavioural and operational issues in the organisation to some extent guided the group consultation session with the management team. Based on observations during the group session, the functioning of the management team and the way this related to the leadership style being exercised were further explored. Information was obtained in a dynamic here and now situation and also acted as a learning experience for those involved. In exploring the effect of leadership style, the leadership and personality profiles of the general manager and of the management team were also considered. The strategic objectives formulated by the team helped to form an idea of the sensitisation that took place.

The management team was operating in a context of change, with added demands in terms of inadequate production. The insecurity and pressure related to change resulted in an increase

in anxiety, and anxiety explained many of the dynamics observed in the team. Task management, but people management in particular, created anxiety for the team. Transformational leadership and the associated personality traits were reflected in the vision for the future formulated, inter alia, by the general manager. Managers also indicated an awareness of operational issues by setting strategic objectives related to global competition and a need for change. However, insecurity was also observed in the vision being somewhat vague and idealistic, possibly reflecting the dynamic of flight behaviour.

At an unconscious level, control was used as defence to contain anxiety and provide security. Although opinions differed about the leadership style practised by the general manager, there were indications of a centralised leadership style with a lack of development of personal authority by the other managers and the resultant dependency in his team. Transformational elements in his leadership and personality profile implied a strong work ethic, caring, mutual respect and trust as well as providing others with a vision. A leader with whom others can identify, however, also creates the danger of undue reliance on this person. The transactional elements in the profile of the general manager were apparent in his strong sense of responsibility, a need for structure and the exercise of control. These features of his leadership style seemed to result in greater task than people orientation. Although control is not inappropriate in a manufacturing organisation, the insecure environment resulted in excessive reliance on it, leading to role overload and feelings of burnout. The team members also used control over both processes and people to deal with anxiety, and accepting responsibility for others resulted in role overload. Behaviours associated with transformational leadership were observed for some of the managers, but the general reliance on active transactional behaviours was clear in the task focus of the team. For those team members who relied on passive styles of management, noninvolvement in dealing with pressure was observed.

The containment provided by the general manager was necessary to enable the management team to work. However, the team seemed to resist efforts to take up personal authority and to use dependency (and the resultant passivity) as a way to deal with pressure. At an unconscious level the team therefore functioned on the basic assumption of dependency (a state that is at times also characterised by ambivalence towards authority and counterdependency). The basic assumption of pairing was also observed in a possible fantasy

of the general manager as a saviour. To retain the hope of "a saviour", he might have been set up for failure and they might have been working him out (an hypothesis partly supported by his resignation). The general manager was not authorised to take up his leadership role. Taking excessive responsibility for his team implied a lack of role clarity. Responding to their dependency needs and becoming one of the team furthermore affected his boundary role as a representative of the team, the plant and corporate management. A consultative and participative style of interaction in the case of the general manager and of many of the team members, possibly reflected their need to create safety in the group.

Underlying the behaviour of the management team was an apparent fantasy that they, as a "family" were safe (note the homogeneity of the team). At a dynamic level, creating safety in a group is a way of dealing with the fears associated with change. However, the team was unsuccessful in creating a safe system as was seen in splits and projections as well as issues of inclusion and exclusion which threatened the unity of the team. Management members who left the plant (including the general manager) probably carried certain issues for the team leaving it a closed system. Team members showed a need for understanding, acceptance and connection but there was a lack of trust that impacted on open communication and effective confrontation and conflict management. In terms of their leadership and personality profiles, the general manager and some of the team members indicated a consultative and participative style as well as an affiliative nature but their involvement with others seemed directed at organisational goals. The rest of the managers indicated frustration with excessive interaction and selective support for others. At a processes level, managers recognised the need for change in terms of maintenance behaviours and strategic objectives referred to improvements in terms of issues such as trust, respect and support as well as communication, cooperation and conflict management.

However, at a dynamic level, they also needed to understand that interpersonal support and team unity did not exclude individual responsibility and individual goals. Interdependence had to be distinguished from dependency with its lack of personal authority and accountability. Interdependence requires clarity in terms of roles and boundaries and accepting personal authority in terms of one's roles and managing the accompanying anxiety. At the same time interrelatedness needs to be acknowledged. The strategic objectives

formulated by the members of the management team reflected the need for role clarity and personal authority and accountability of the managers. Interdependence with other systems was also acknowledged in objectives related to authorising and enabling subordinates.

It was difficult for the team to work in the here and now with its focus on being and exploring group processes and dynamics, and they resorted instead to the there and then of task-related issues. They were nevertheless reasonably comfortable in dealing with the more familiar process variables but struggled with understanding at a dynamic level (and because of the related anxiety probably also avoided work at this level). Sensitisation in terms of individual and group functioning occurred during the intervention, but the strategic objectives formulated by the managers referred to change in terms of operational issues or to process variables when dealing with behavioural issues. At a dynamic level, there was a return to the familiar dynamic of control and dependency.

9.3 THE GROUP AND ITS LEADERSHIP IN RELATION TO OTHER SYSTEMS

The related aim stated in chapter 1 is: to gain an understanding of the relationships of the management team and its leadership with other systems both in and outside the organisation in a context of organisational change. Information was obtained during the interviews and the group consultation session. The leadership and personality profiles, results from the climate survey and the strategic objectives were also considered.

Transformation in the organisation was implied by technological demands and labour relations issues, and at the plant under investigation change was specifically required in terms of inadequate production. All role players were probably experiencing insecurity and pressure which led to anxiety and the accompanying dynamics. Whereas an organisation usually provides defences against anxiety and thus security for its members, an organisation experiencing change cannot offer the necessary containment. It was indicated that the management team reacted with the dynamics of control and dependency, and also created a closed system. Limitations in terms of awareness of both internal and external reality affected their ability to relate to the other systems in and outside the organisation.

A culture of control was identified in this organisation. The production process and the related safety requirements implied control over the environment, but excessive reliance on the latter was used as defence against anxiety. In line with the culture of control, a centralised leadership style characterised different levels of the organisation, starting with the executive manager and corporate management. A controlling leadership style has value in a manufacturing environment. However, the full range model of leadership justifies the use of such a style in combination with and to a lesser extent than transformational leadership. It was indicated that the general manager and his team relied on both transformational and active transactional behaviours, but that the latter seemed more prominent. (Passive leadership was also observed.) Control by corporate management and the dependency of the management team, implied that the general manager was not authorised to take up his leadership role. Similarly, a projection of too much control onto corporate management and the general manager as well as a projection of incompetence onto the workforce left the management team powerless in the middle.

It would seem that instead of authorising the leadership, the system was using it to fulfil dependency needs. Responsibility and accountability were advocated at all levels, but accountability was equated with "who was to blame". Individuals were not enabled to and neither did they seem willing to take up personal authority. This strengthened the perceptions of a need for control. Dependency was observed in the management team and in the workforce. The workforce did not always accept and act upon the projections of incompetence by management onto them and their leadership. However, the workers seemed comfortable in a position of dependency and might have resented having to take up personal authority and the consequent responsibility. In a manufacturing environment, especially in the local context, the issue of capacity building is central to empowerment. The management team identified capacity building and empowerment by means of coaching and support and in a context of teamwork as strategic objectives. This would have enabled subordinates to take up authority when appropriate and as negotiated in terms of role definitions and boundaries. Control was, however, implied in the efforts to empower subordinates (giving others power instead of negotiating to develop their authority).

Since the organisation no longer provided adequate containment, safety was created in groups

by creating closed systems. This implied some lack of awareness in terms of internal and external reality and allowed for projections in and across groups. The struggle with relatedness in the management team was reflected in the problems they experienced with people management. Racial and language differences impacted negatively on the communication necessary to develop trust which, in turn, enables people to work together (problems with trust were confirmed by the results of the climate survey). The management team indicated awareness of the split between themselves and the staff in terms of these differences, a split that provided further opportunities for projection. Clear boundaries are necessary to contain anxiety and for the various systems to survive. However, effective interaction across the boundaries between systems both in and outside an organisation is essential, especially during times of change. In this instance, interdependence was suggested between corporate management and the plant, between the plant and its suppliers and customers and between the management team and the staff. Some awareness in this regard was indicated by the management team but commitment to collaboration was needed at organisational level, requiring a rational distribution of authority, clear role and boundary definitions and the management and regulation of these roles and boundaries at this level.

The intervention seemed to have ended prematurely and the system returned to a state of dependency with control by corporate management. Although some insight was obtained, sensitisation was insufficient.

9.4　　CRITIQUE ON THE STUDY

Critique on this study is related to ethical considerations in terms of the impact on those involved in and of the methodology of the study. The issue of informed consent was problematic. Approval was obtained from the directors and from the general manager at the plant both for the intervention and use of the information for a thesis. Efforts were furthermore made to involve the other members of the management team at the plant in all aspects of the planning and implementation of the intervention as well as follow-up procedures. Participation was also to some extent voluntary. However, for reasons of motivation, the members of the management team were not informed about the use of the information for a thesis. (Involvement by other members of staff was also limited.)

This problem was addressed by a number of efforts to ensure confidentiality. Feedback on individual functioning was primarily given to the individual concerned with broader feedback focusing on group functioning. In reporting on the study, privacy was ensured by not referring to the organisation by name, by referring to the nature of the organisation in general terms, by using a description of their posts when referring to individuals from the plant and by referring to co-workers as consultants. Discussions centred on group rather than individual themes, although some recognition by those who participated in the study is nevertheless still possible.

Premature closure of the intervention implied that there was insufficient containment of the impact of the intervention at the various levels (individual, group and organisational). This was a structured environment and structure was used as a defence mechanism. Using qualitative methods in such an environment probably led to confusion and caused additional anxiety (and influenced the face validity of the procedures). The expertise of the consultants nevertheless ensured some sensitisation of individual, group and organisational functioning. There was, however, insufficient follow-up in this regard and expecting change in the management team without change in the organisation was probably unrealistic. The system reverted to the processes and dynamics operating prior to the intervention. Note that the time and costs implied by this type of intervention are not always realistic, given the organisational context and need for results.

In qualitative research, data gathering and data analysis occur simultaneously and the researcher continuously reflected on and interpreted information in terms of the content and the process. In an overall flexible approach, hypothesis formulation nevertheless shaped future developments. Recording, structuring and analysing information furthermore implied a selective focus and possible misinterpretation. Using the self as instrument is an advantage in qualitative research, but the researcher had to be aware of the way in which her subjectivity directed the data gathering and interpretation of findings. The researcher also played a number of additional roles including observer and recorder, consultant and psychologist. Being a key figure in the intervention further emphasised the possible influence of researcher subjectivity. To deal with the possibility of research bias, multiple sources and techniques were used to ensure that the interpretation was reflective of the participants' experiences, and existing

theory was used as frame of reference in the interpretation process.

9.5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study focused on group processes and dynamics in relation to transactional and transformational leadership. In the example in chapter 1 of J. Michael Fay and the expedition he led, both transactional and transformational behaviours were used with an emphasis on the charismatic component and the identification with an individual implied by this style. Although these leadership behaviours contributed to the apparent success of the expedition, the role of followership was also crucial in the sense that this was a group of people from a cultural background that probably sanctioned a degree of dependence on the leader. Although the context necessitated interdependence, the balance was probably more towards a commanding role fulfilled by Fay. Furthermore, successful completion of the expedition was defined in terms of the value system of the leader's culture, a culture presumably supported by the specific publication and by the author of the article. This example supports a conclusion of this study, namely that the uniqueness and the realities of a situation defy a standardised application of theoretical assumptions and that full understanding and directed change are not always possible or feasible. One has to trust the process and allow natural progression determined by the situation.

The findings of the present study largely supported the conceptualisation of leadership styles in terms of the full range model of leadership. The leadership styles practised were associated with personality traits and behaviours relevant to the descriptions of these styles. If an organisation adheres to the definition of effective leadership in terms of the full range model of leadership, profiling in terms of desired personality characteristics can be based on the results of this study. For the managers involved, the distinguishing traits of transformational leadership were related to their interpersonal styles and their work and social ethics. This distinction of transformational leadership in terms of the interpersonal instead of the visionary aspect of leadership was also noted in the empirical work on the full range model. It is questioned whether this is not to some extent a function of the operationalisation of leadership, namely by means of follower and peer ratings. The equivalent reliance on transactional behaviours in terms of the need for structure and the focus on task performance

is not supported by the model, even though it is probably not only necessary (given the manufacturing environment) but also effective. Further exploration by means of objective performance-based outcomes is suggested.

This study illustrates the use of the theory on group processes and dynamics in exploring group and organisational functioning. The systems psychodynamic perspective was particularly useful in understanding group functioning in relation to the leadership style being exercised while providing for the mutual influence in terms of other systems in and outside the organisation. The context of change and the related insecurity resulted in efforts to deal with anxiety by means of excessive reliance on the structure underlying successful functioning in this manufacturing environment. Centralised leadership associated with a dynamic of control and dependency characterised all levels of the organisation. This impacted negatively on the development of personal authority, a requirement for cooperation in an interdependent manner. A lack of clarity in terms of role and boundary definitions also resulted in a struggle in terms of the interrelatedness in and between systems and provided opportunities for projections. As indicated, transactional leadership is to be expected and can probably be associated with success in this type of organisation. However, the general reliance on this style was probably both an outcome and a cause of the unconscious defence strategy developed in the management team at the plant as well as in the rest of the organisation. (The same was true of the passive behaviours.) In addition to transactional leadership, the general manager exhibited behaviours associated with the interpersonal and visionary aspects of transformational leadership. According to theory, these behaviours define a successful leader. However, he was prevented from taking up his leadership role by the dynamics of his team and the organisation. Despite some sensitisation in the management team, a state of control and dependency remained in the system. This can be partly ascribed to the paradigm that focused on process in an environment that emphasised content, the intervention being limited to part of the system and premature closure.

A combination of leadership and group theories was successfully applied in the present study to explore the functioning of a management team in a context of organisational change. The study furthermore contributed to the understanding of the concepts that the theories comprised and added information that can be used in an organisational setting both in terms of leadership

and group functioning. However, what happened in this system was determined by various aspects unique to the situation. A different situation again demands an exploratory study as a starting point. Despite increased understanding by both the consultants and participants, the system did not change in the planned direction, but had a life of its own that determined progression in this system.

9.6 SUMMARY

The present study focused on leadership, the group in which leadership is exercised and the broader organisational context. This chapter provided a brief overview of the literature used as framework for conducting and interpreting the empirical investigation. Theoretical and empirical work on the full range model of leadership was mentioned, group processes with their emphasis on maintenance and task behaviours were discussed, and the systems psychodynamic perspective referred to as an approach that provides for an integrated view of the conscious and unconscious interaction between the individual, the group and the organisation. The study was conducted with a management team in a plant of a production organisation that was in the process of change. The members of the management team were evaluated in terms of their practice of transactional, transformational or laissez-faire leadership and it was indicated how these styles were related to relevant personality traits and behaviours. The importance of interpersonal styles and work and social ethics was highlighted while also pointing out the value of transactional behaviours in the given context. Despite issues regarding the operationalisation of leadership, the results of this study can aid in selection and development in an organisational context. It was shown how the processes and dynamics in the management team were largely explained by efforts to deal with transformation and the related anxiety. Control and dependency, unsuccessful efforts at interdependence and a struggle with interrelatedness were identified. These issues were related to the leadership and personality profiles of the general manager and his team. Centralised leadership seemed to characterise all levels of the organisation and the related control and dependency impacted on cooperation between systems. A critique on the study dealt with ethical issues such as informed consent and confidentiality. However, it was the use of the paradigm in this environment in particular, and the limited scope (in terms of participants and time) that were problematic. In conclusion, the uniqueness and the realities

of each situation need to be explored and provided for, and a system should be allowed to determine progression in the system.

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APPENDIX A

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS WITH SOME OF THE DIRECTORS: AN EXAMPLE

Interview with the director: manufacturing

Description	Issues	Dynamics

Consultant A[2] and I (sitting together) and the director: manufacturing (sitting opposite us) met at the offices of the consultancy firm in the evening. The meeting was brief (one and a half hours) partly because of another appointment I had. The director gave some background on the plant. The plant had been taken over by the organisation 20 years ago. The production procedures were aligned with those followed in the other plants, but the culture of the plant remained consistent and reflected the culture of the area. The white members of staff tended to be conservative, while the black members of staff, although also conservative, seemed to be radical and even militant in their attitude. There was a division along racial lines. The plant had not been performing in terms of hard outcomes (i.e. production) under the previous general manager. The current general manager had been moved from another plant three years before to try to solve the problem and at one stage had been considered for the post of director: manufacturing of the organisation.	time pressure roles history culture race (division) production performance change pressure leadership leadership style interpersonal relations development empowerment accountability service vision org. culture intervention systemic	urgency pairing projection structure anxiety competition threat power authority control dependency interdependence

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[2] Four consultants participated in the study. The researcher is referred to in the first person, whereas the labels A, B and C are used to distinguish between the other three consultants.

He had been popular in the other plant in the sense that he was part of the "family" in terms of his position in that community. He was currently working up to 16 hours a day and was respected by his management team for his work ethic and effort. The plant was still not performing adequately. The current director: manufacturing was appointed in the general manager post at the other plant until he became director (and therefore also responsible for the plant in this study, placing additional pressure on the general manager). The director: manufacturing identified the problem in the plant as being a leadership issues, specifically the leadership style of the general manager of the plant. He thought that the general manager accepted too much responsibility for his management team and their problems and did not empower his team sufficiently or held them accountable ("being a leader" and taking a stand). He gave attention to detail and his concern was with production. He focused on the engineers and took action in terms of disciplinary and performance issues. When questioned about a problem, he suggested reasons and not solutions. He was regarded as reactive and not transformational. The culture of the plant was seen as reactive.		

The director: manufacturing discussed the need for personal development with the general manager but also considered replacing and redeploying him. Discussions were held with the management team about their performance. The director: manufacturing stated that the function of this team was 50% service and 50% taking the process forward. The managers in the top management team, including the general manager, were at the post level of senior manager. The previous general manager was a technical expert who was still a senior manager but who reported to the technical director. The manager of logistics was not regarded as managing and the manager of finances was regarded as managing rather than leading. Both had received performance councils. The manager of quality (the only female member of the team) was also not regarded as strong enough for the post - a manager rather than a leader. Two production managers served two sections of the plant and there was a vacant post in production. Both were seen as managers but the manager for phase 2 also had leadership qualities. The human resources manager retired during the intervention and a new human resources manager (who had worked under the general manager at the other plant) took over. The latter was regarded as a leader.		

The technical manager (regarded as a manager and leader) had been back for six months after a three-year absence. He seemed to be autocratic/charismatic. He appointed three strong black people with a seemingly different profile from those in the organisation. The director: manufacturing identified the outcomes of development, empowerment and accountability and said he worked towards this in his monthly visits to the plant. He initiated auditing procedures focused on both the workers and the workplace that was led by him, with some attendance by the general manager (teams of employees were formed and the importance of teams stressed; they chose their own leader; the importance of a vision was discussed and values articulated; and quality was discussed and innovation stressed). He accepted a suggestion by consultant A that the problem was systemic and that an intervention in the plant was needed, with a view to changing the leadership style and the culture of the plant. He seemed reluctant to allow the management team at the plant to decide on the outcomes to follow from the intervention.		

Reflective notes on the interview with the director: manufacturing

Personal experience	Critique on the methodology
I was very early and felt left out when I realised that consultant A wanted to meet with the director: manufacturing first. The director indicated that he was comfortable with everyone being present and I felt accepted. I saw him as having a vision and was impressed with the decisive way in which he talked and the coherent well-structured information given. He came across as intelligent and sincere but despite his manner, the content of what he said was rather hard. I felt urgency and excitement and confidence in trying to convince him although still depending on consultant A for guidance. For me, there were issues of trust in the alliances at this meeting and also in the consultancy team in general. I was also aware of roles and role boundaries I projected onto the other consultants (goodness, competence, safety and dependence) and experienced depression in having to develop the confidence to rely on myself.	We took notes during the interviews. This was natural at meetings for the people we worked with and had less effect on the processes and dynamics than, say, taping would have had. It implied some selection in what was written down as well as possible misrepresentation of what was said. In typing up the interviews, material was ordered and structured in what I regarded as a sensible way, again implying subjective interpretation. In qualitative research, data gathering and data analysis can, however, not be separated and both take place throughout a study.

APPENDIX B

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS WITH THE MEMBERS OF THE MANAGEMENT TEAM: AN EXAMPLE

Interview with the general manager

Description	Issues	Dynamics
The consultants met with the general manager late in the morning in the boardroom at the plant. He sat at the head of the table, I sat with consultant B on one side of the table and consultant A on the other side. The interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. There was a door between his office and the boardroom and both I and consultant B wondered about confidentiality. The general manager had arranged a programme for the day and gave us printouts of this. He outlined the management team and the members' years of service. He had been at the plant for three years. He gave a brief overview of the plant. There was a staff of 90 and an hourly staff of 270. He acknowledged that all was not well and that change was needed. He felt that they were not under resourced but that the problem was accountability that was not "pushed down" enough. The plant had a father-son culture - centralised authority. He referred to a good debate with his team in which they gave their opinions. He expected a lot from the guys but did not always hit the right note.	roles length of service change resources accountability centralised authority oneness race gender language production performance strategy vision themes participation corporate fear time pressure	belonging containment structure control trust authority confidence dependency projection denial communication interdependence apprehension delegation urgency

The team and their interpersonal functioning had to be considered. They needed something on the table to debate and he told them to give us straight answers. He stated that no one felt threatened. He had not told them that he was the problem. The top management comprised white males with black male first-line management and some coloured leadership. Language was a problem. He gave an outline of the production processes and said that much of it was automated and people only had to set up the equipment. Inspection was manual. He referred to reducing the hours. Two years of hard work and effort produced results. Phase 1 of production was not running well but phase 2 was 41% up in volume from the previous year. There were numerous opportunities and it was necessary to determine what the issues were and what needed to be done to go forward and achieve sustainable improvement. The consultants again met with the general manager after the interviews with the other management team members. This was a 15-minute meeting. I now sat with consultant A. Consultant A stated that the managers either showed respect for the general manager or understanding that it was not easy to sit in that chair (showed). There was a reference to the previous general manager. The direction for further actions was discussed.		

Themes from the interviews had to be discussed with management to see if they agreed with these themes and if further interviews between managers and the general manager were still necessary. Based on these themes, a climate survey was to be constructed (to be evaluated by the general manager). The climate survey to some extent replaced the interviews between other role players and the general manager. The roles of the human resources managers were referred to. The current human resources manager seemed to be someone the general manager relied upon. The general manager stated that he was not concerned about the threat against him. He felt the organisation was fear driven and he did not work like that but focused on what needed to be done and got on with it. Reference was made to the audit from head office and time pressure.		

Reflective notes on the interview with the general manager

Personal experience	Critique on the methodology
I was comfortable as we were driving there and we found the plant fairly easily. Although we lost our way going home because it was already dark, this was not a problem. I saw it as a commitment problem that the other consultants wanted to finish early. There were also some role issues in terms of who was in control of what aspect of the project. I was apprehensive and relied on the others to take control. In the second discussion with the general manager I was concerned about the emphasis on management's role with no one looking after the workforce.	

Reflective notes on the interviews with the team

Personal experience	Critique on the methodology
The consultants were energised at the end of the day and felt identification with the process (and the people?). The impression was that the management team felt the same and there was some supportive feedback. The poverty in the environment was upsetting. Once again there were time and commitment issues as well as a sense of urgency to show the management team that there was continuation (a need voiced by consultant A). This possibly reflected some insecurity and the need for control. Were we now doing the work for them? I felt that they were protecting the general manager.	The interviews were unstructured with some themes mentioned by the consultants. The managers might have experienced it as a therapeutic (here-and-now) exercise and they were eager to talk, although the content was mostly focused on issues with little reference to their experience of these issues at other levels. Apparent openness and trust (almost vulnerability) were possibly shown so that we would like and help them. The intervention was shaped as we gathered more information but we were still doing the shaping. There was an idea of groupthink, a corporate groupthink that we bought into, and when we had identified the management team as the owner, we bought into their groupthink. There was also the question of our function. At this stage it seemed as if the plant had turned and we were providing structure and continuation for them. Who did the consultants represent? Did the consultants replace other dependency figures (the general manager or corporate management)? Pairing was considered.

APPENDIX C

THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEWS: AN EXAMPLE

Theme: Management and leadership

Subtheme: Corporate management. The leadership style practised by the managing director was to some extent regarded in terms of the charismatic features of transformational leadership but comments seemed to point to a more autocratic style. He was seen as controlling the directors of the organisation. People were regarded as fear driven. The director: manufacturing was consequently experiencing pressure (director: human resources, general manager, financial manager) and possibly reacting to this by being controlling and wanting to manage the details in the plant itself, examples of which were the level of his involvement with the general manager and the management team as well as with other staff teams, and the initiation of and involvement in the intervention (director: manufacturing). He expressed a transformational vision of development, empowerment and accountability but seemed to practise a more transactional style. The director: human resources also indicated some anxiety on issues at the plant related to labour relations (director: human resources). Given their responsibility for production at the plant and for the personnel at the plant respectively, they had to be aware of and deal with possible risks in these fields. However, they seemed to be prescriptive in terms of what the problems were (management/leadership and labour relations) and the way in which these problems had to be dealt with (general manager, new human resources manager). The effect of this was pressure experienced by the general manager and a feeling that corporate management did not trust managers at the plant, and that the latter were not allowed to build confidence by dealing with problems and were therefore not empowered (general manager, technical expert, financial manager).

Subtheme: The general manager. The general manager's leadership style was regarded as reactive whereas a more transformational style was required (director: manufacturing). This was reflected in his management team with some members being regarded as managers and others as managers and leaders. (My observation was that the general manager heard this but disagreed.) The transactional features of the general manager's style included his sense of responsibility, the hard work, effort and long hours he put in (seemingly to stay in control),

attention to detail (production procedures and the technical side of things), the structured procedures initiated to deal with disciplinary and performance issues and the comment that he suggested reasons for problems and not solutions (director: manufacturing, director: human resources, general manager, new human resources manager, financial manager, planning and logistics manager, technical expert). The transformational features of his style included his relationship with the management team (understanding, respect, expectations, recognition and rewards), the respect the team had for him (although some dependency was also indicated), involvement with the workforce and his vision and change, based on this vision (director: manufacturing, general manager, financial manager, production manager - phase 2, engineering manager, human resources manager).

Subtheme: The management team. The leadership in the plant was regarded as centralised and seemed to be characterised by dependency, as indicated by the comment on the father-son culture (general manager). This, in turn, implied a lack of empowerment and accountability (director: manufacturing, general manager, human resources manager, financial manager, technical expert, planning and logistics manager). Although this seemed to be the position throughout the plant, specific references were made to the general manager and his management team. There seemed to be a perception that delegation meant giving away one's work and then not having a job, accountability had not been clearly defined and it was confused with being allowed to criticise and confront leadership and the issue of individual responsibility versus team performance had not been clarified (general manager, financial manager, production manager - phase 2). Confidence had to be built up by allowing the members of the management team to take up their responsibilities, learn through mistakes and thus become empowered (production manager - phase 1, financial manager). The dynamic between the general manager and his team also seemed to characterise the management team and their subordinates. The managers were also perceived as controlling and taking responsibility for the work of others (maintaining procedures rather than leading) (human resources manager, quality control manager). This need for control and the overload resulting from it partly explained the problems with time management experienced by the team (e.g. references to long hours, too many and ineffective meetings and information overload) (director: manufacturing, general manager, human resources manager, engineering manager, planning and logistics manager, technical expert, financial manager, production manager -

phase 2, quality control manager). The expression "crisis management" was used. Skills development, especially in terms of people management, was needed and management also had to learn to delegate (director: human resources, financial manager, technical expert, quality control manager). The personal insight gained during the intervention and the resultant behavioural changes and development were regarded as opportunities for capacity building (general manager).

Subtheme: Middle management and first-line management. The production manager (part of the management team) was in control of production which, after a change in structure, included people from engineering, technical, quality and production. This implied a flatter management structure and less clarity in terms of responsibility and the line of reporting which, in turn, resulted in more responsibility for the production manager (production managers - phases 1 and 2, quality control manager). It also created a problem in terms of career pathing (reference to racial threat in this regard). Because of the roles of middle management not being clear, a gap seemed to exist between top management and first-line management (human resources manager, financial manager, engineering manager, planning and logistics manager). There was a perception that this gap occurred only in some of the areas. Coaching of middle management was a better option than controlling them because they were not perceived as efficient (quality control manager). First-line management, in turn, seemed to have difficulty fulfilling their role because of role conflict and a lack of education and training as well as a possible lack of power (general manager, production managers - phases 1 and 2). There was a perception that if the workforce and their leadership were empowered, they would take up personal responsibility and be accountable (production manager - phase 2, engineering manager, quality control manager). However, there was some doubt about whether everyone wanted the responsibility (production manager - phase 1, human resources manager, technical expert). Inclusive leadership implied greater involvement of the workforce and their representatives, say, in the intervention (director: human resources, new human resources manager).

Subtheme: The consultants. The issues on leadership also impacted on the consultants' authority. The intervention was initiated by corporate management, but consultant A then made it clear that it belonged to the general manager. The consultants were expected to

provide a contingency plan for sustainable improvement which included strategies for behaviour changes and for driving results (general manager). It had to be management driven. However, because of the control the general manager had over his team it was difficult to make it the management team's intervention. There was also resistance to the intervention as seen in the comments that this type of intervention had previously been implemented and outcomes had been identified, as well as the fact that there were risks in such an intervention (general manager, human resources manager, financial manager, technical expert). Change already seemed to be taking place and we needed to clarify what was going on to enable it to continue. The representation of the rest of the staff and the workers in particular, in the intervention was limited to the climate survey (all the consultants were furthermore white).

Dynamics. The leadership style of the managing director seemed to influence the system and to create pressure and anxiety. Increasing their control might have been one way for the leadership (the directors, the general manager and the management team) to deal with these feelings. A centralised leadership style, lack of empowerment and dependency developed throughout the organisation and the plant. It was acknowledged that subordinates had to be empowered but the leadership wanted to stay in control. Subordinates were not allowed to take up the authority that would have enabled them to become empowered. Problems with this style were also not acknowledged but seemed to be dealt with by means of projections onto, say, the workforce (not seen as accepting accountability). In addition to the projections, there was an expectation of a saviour (the general manager who had to solve the problems and protect his team - had he been set up for failure to be able to sustain this fantasy?- and talk of changes in the management team as well as what was expected of the consultants). The consultants also showed some dependency by placing the responsibility for the success of the intervention with the management team without possibly adequately acknowledging the mutual dependence. The consultants carried something for each of the groups: Handle the "confrontation" with the general manager for the directors; "manipulated" to work with the team by the general manager; and talk on behalf of the team to the general manager/directors.

APPENDIX D

GROUP INTERVIEWS WITH THE MANAGEMENT TEAM AND STAFF REPRESENTATIVES: AN EXAMPLE

Group interview with the management team

Description	Interpretation
Consultant A and I met with the management team in the meeting room at the plant in the late afternoon. The plant had guests whose visit had been arranged by corporate management, and the general manager moved the meeting with the consultants to an hour later. The consultants took a wrong turn on the way there and were 30 minutes late. The technical expert and the engineering manager as well as the acting production manager were absent. The atmosphere was one of panic disguised as cheerfulness and there was talk of packing and going on holiday. A time boundary of two and a half hours was set at the start of the meeting. A boundary was set in terms of the content of the discussion being the themes, and structure was provided by handing out the themes and the proposed intervention. Consultant A stated that our roles were to listen, and at times, to probe. The general manager was a team member. Consultant A sat at the top of the table (at one stage I moved closer to him).	A meeting scheduled for the following evening between the consultants, the general manager and the director: manufacturing (after a "constructive" talk between the managers) was cancelled because the director was ill. There was resistance to the intervention (and probably to change) by corporate management, the management team and the consultants. The team members were not ready to meet the consultants and also tried to prevent the consultants from getting to the plant (and succeeded in the case of one consultant - what was her role in the consultancy team and for the management team?). The technical expert and the engineering manager represented two opposites in terms of the old and the new, regarding the workforce as a given versus seeing opportunities for development. The team also fluctuated in terms of the involvement of the acting production manager and the two technical managers.

The production manager - phase 1 sat closest to the consultants and also did most of the talking (production focused). A technical manager sitting opposite him (not directly) often took up the opposite stance (relationship focused) although not in direct confrontation. The general manager sat on the other side next to consultant A. The financial manager next to him left early and the planning and logistics manager next to him also left before the end of the session (with prior arrangement). The production manager - phase 2 came late but with an excuse. He commented on the absence of consultant B. There were requests for openness (from the general manager and the female in the team), reference to greater openness in the team but also reasons why openness was difficult (from the production manager - phase 1). Consultant A directed the team to a discussion of the themes. The team directed information at the consultants (particularly one member). The team members were reluctant to participate, two incidents occurred where older members in terms of years of service attacked the ideas of new members and there was a request to stick to the point. There were problems in decision making (the general manager left for a while when a decision had to be made).

The above seemed to represent a fluctuation in boundaries and a lack of containment for which they actually asked. It also reflected a need for moderation. There was flight behaviour. The general manager, the management team and the rest of the staff were experiencing anxiety. The dependency on the general manager implied that there was safety in him. The intervention questioned this assumption (why did the people next to him leave? - one cannot ignore the possibility that the system was working out the general manager who was on the boundary) and dependency could have been placed elsewhere (the directors or the consultants?). This group seemed to be operating without a leader, directing their comments at the consultants instead of holding a discussion. They also did not select a leader, and neither did a leader appear. They did not seem to be able to create structure. It was not clear whether they could tolerate the ambiguity, but given the people who left, it did not seem to be so. Decision making, conflict management and time management seemed problematic. Openness and honesty and challenging management were talked about and viewed as accountability.

The finance manager left very early in the discussion and the logistics and planning manager went out the first time discipline was mentioned but came back to leave again shortly before we finished. Reasons for workforce issues (understanding of business principles, discipline, accountability and resources) were given. Culture, general education, roles, threats, fear of confrontation, fairness, communication, motivation, commitment, practical issues such as paying debts, lack of competency and training and application of what was learned were mentioned. Realities were stated such as the need for compliance in terms of discipline, the difficulty building relationships with the workforce, the importance of the role of workforce leaders in discipline and in developing workers, the potential of the workforce and a limited job market and the problems being experienced at all levels. A number of strategies had been put in place to deal with issues (ISO 14 000, teamwork development, etc.). This used resources and it seemed as if the involvement of the management team in these strategies was such that they felt pressured and did not address any issues properly. They went into "panic mode". They also felt disempowered by corporate management.

A disrespectful comment indicated that openness was not defined. The issues of trust and previous experiences in this regard were not dealt with (consider the experiences of the people who left the meeting and possible rivalry between departments); neither was accountability in terms of the more sensitive issues of management of the task and the people spelt out, because this reflected on their own competence. Reference to the culture also reflected a need for acknowledgement of differences and communication problems. Were the reasons for the problems with the workforce what they themselves were experiencing? They acknowledged some insecurity in taking up their authority and in allowing others to take up their authority. Interdependence was not explored. Given the culture of control it was questioned whether the workforce actually had a need for empowerment or resisted taking responsibility. Would it have helped if their leaders had been involved in deciding on a strategy? Projections took place in the team, between management and the workforce and also in terms of corporate management.

Lack of power, pressure and the perceived incompetence of the workforce led to feeling responsible and wanting to control, managing problems rather than working in a coaching role ("push down" and "force down"). It was commented that they needed to envisage what the plant should look like five years from now and what needed to be done to get there. It was thought that they had to deal with the realities referred to and also prioritise in terms of the strategies needed (referred to current strategies - no new strategies needed). A suggestion was made that production should be dealt with internally and consultants used for services. Consultant A concluded by saying the team seemed to believe that they themselves could bring about change and they also seemed to support the 80%-20% principle ("joke" that the assessment should then not be done).

The consultants had to work with what we were carrying for the team to lead to a shift in the team. I did not trust the process as I felt there was no process. Consultant A commented on a lack of clarity and something with which to move forward. Did this confusion reflect the managers' resistance? Did we need to contain the confusion for them? It was possible that the consultants were carrying a number of issues such as doubt about our own competence, lack of clarity on roles and boundaries, lack of trust in self and others and problems with communication. I felt a need for continuous involvement in order not to lose the team (everything was going to be stopped). Was this their fear? There was also a possibility that we were confusing them. There was a lack of clarity on who should be assessed - who was in and who was out. From the outset, keeping the workforce in the discussion on the intervention was a struggle. Was a crisis being forced? Note the worker to whom we gave a lift, but did not talk to - the workers were getting into our car and we were still not talking to them!

Reflective notes on the interview with the management team

Personal experience	Critique on the methodology
I was involved with my studies and did not approach the meeting with a focus on the here and now and the interests of the people and the plant. I felt I did not know what was going on and did not trust myself to do anything - my comment on frustration was honest but I did not think they heard me. Did consultant A feel that I evaluated him given my previous compliment and did this influence his behaviour? I was scared that the team and the other consultants saw me as incompetent and that we had lost the team. I wanted to structure the intervention because I saw this as a need on their part. Were they using me? I made mistakes in arranging the assessment and felt anxiety about this. I conveyed some of this anxiety to my promoter and he commented on the value of using the self as instrument. I felt that the intervention needed to be changed. Problematic issues had been noted and these needed to be further prioritised before deciding on strategies to be implemented. However, this decision making as well as the actual implementation of strategies were difficult, because the real reason for the problem seemed to be the team's functioning. This needed to be further explored before suggestions were made.	The stated aim was to elaborate on the themes but in reality it became an observation of the group processes and dynamics. We used ourselves as instruments and also tried not to look from the outside in, but realised that understanding comes through mutual involvement and learning.

APPENDIX E

GROUP CONSULTATION SESSION WITH THE MANAGEMENT TEAM: AN EXAMPLE

Time period 1

Description	Interpretation
The period lasted one hour. Consultant A introduced consultant C as an associate and an expert in group processes. He said the aim was team building but forgot to indicate the content (task) as working with the matrix. He said we would keep to the times indicated. Consultant C introduced the task. The general manager asked what had to be achieved "today". **Consultant C said that they must decide for themselves**. Throughout the first session, comments where made that indicated the group's insecurity ("do not understand today's process", "in the dark" and "tell us") about what the task was, what their objective was and what they needed to achieve (general manager, production manager - phase 2, technical manager - phase 1, technical expert, logistics manager). The production manager - phase 2 suggested that the aim was to determine whether they as a team could work together and move the organisation. On a few occasions throughout the session there was laughter at something someone said and deliberate attempts were also made to joke.	The consultancy team set boundaries in terms of role, time and task to provide a safe space for the group to work in (i.e. to contain the anxiety for them). This implied control which, in turn, in the first session, resulted in a degree of dependence on the consultants. The general manager immediately challenged the leadership role of consultant C and there was also a degree of pairing in terms of the leader of the group with the leader of the consultants for this process. The "family" environment in the management team did not provide the safety they expected but the consultants nevertheless to some extent mirrored this dynamic by setting boundaries to contain anxiety, allowing some dependency and providing a space in which they could work. The general manager showed his sense of responsibility by containing the session.

Strategies for approaching the task were suggested (human resources manager). The content of the matrix was debated. There was talk about the difference in numbers (technical expert, production manager - phase 1, myself), debate about whether the profile of the team was accurate (production manager - phase 1, technical expert) and comments that this was what they said they looked like (production manager - phase 2), comments about the lack of caring, the assertiveness of most members, what stood out (human resources manager, general manager, logistics manager, marketing manager, financial manager), that it should be known what an ideal profile should look like (for the industry and environment that they were in, for manufacturing) and where there were gaps in their profile (production manager - phase 1, general manager, logistics manager, technical expert). I felt uncomfortable and even saw some aggression (being attacked) in the comments directed at us. **Consultant C suggested that the team seemed dependent, given the fact that they looked to consultant A and me for help. They seemed to believe that the expertise was outside and that they did not value what was inside or realised that the answers were actually in the system.**

There was insecurity about what the task was, possibly mirroring their lack of focus on the primary task of the organisation and a lack of clarity on the subtasks (and changes in this regard) that contributed to this primary task. They needed structure and depended on the consultants to provide it (mirrored dependency in the consultancy team). When it was not given, they attempted to create their own structure and immediately wanted to do something without having clarity on the objectives. There was no tolerance for ambiguity as seen in the need for an ideal profile and the consequent need for change in the group. Some counterdependence was shown when help from the consultants was not forthcoming. References to awareness of the self and of others and how this influenced the functioning of the team indicated that they were starting to work. Realness and here-and-now experience were shown in requests for understanding and communication but this also threatened them and they moved back to structure (the profiles), "bumper sticker" statements and other forms of flight behaviour.

Their struggle to get started also possibly reflected the dynamics of the group. There was a discussion on the value of knowing the team members' profiles, that is, knowing individual preferences and needs but also knowing how the members of the team complemented each other. The production manager - phase 1 made what seemed like a defiant statement but also a plea. He saw personality as constant and asked that others should understand him and treat him in a certain manner. Some need for change in behaviour was referred to (marketing manager) but it was also said that change was not as important as an awareness of the self and others, understanding one another to benefit the group and talking to one another (general manager, logistics manager, engineering manager). A joke was made at this stage and further talk on understanding seemed to lack feeling (quality control manager, marketing manager). The talk returned to the profiles and the need for change although some mention was made of people not included in the matrix (general manager, financial manager, technical expert, logistics manager). Reference was also made to the profiles reflecting perceptions and not truth (engineering manager).

A problematic issue seemed to be the emphasis of each individual on his or her area without concern for (and probably clarity on) the team's common objectives. A lack of unity in the team was also seen in the splits referred to. A request for concern about one another's problems, however, could again have resulted in dependency in that a focus on the team only implied a lack of individual responsibility.

Consultant C again referred to the fact that they were a needy group and also said that they were focused on the future, experienced pressure to perform and saw things in terms of right or wrong, and in this framework confused production with people. They did not listen to one another but were competing to be fine and clever. The discussion moved to the fact that the organisation was results driven (production manager - phase 1) but that it was possible that the team talked without always doing (production manager - phase 2). The question of who set the goals and space for innovation was brought up with opposing viewpoints (financial manager, technical manager - phase 2, production manager - phase 1). Then there was talk about the focus on the individual rather than on the team and everyone caring only about what was of importance to himself or herself without really hearing what others said with reference to the split in the plant in terms of the two factories (human resources manager, production managers - phases 1 and 2, logistics manager). Some "bumper sticker" comments on teamwork were made (technical expert). **Consultants A and C commented on the focus being on me not us.**	

Consultant C mentioned that the phrase "to be honest and open with you" was used and that there were more listening and communication than at the start. The team's motivation was in being results driven, that is task leadership, but people leadership was more of a struggle. He heard the split in the factory. They needed to start working on identity as a team, the picture in the mind of us. Only the individual or only the team reflected their right or wrong attitude. The session ended with a comment by the logistics manager. "How do we go forward here."	

Reflective notes on the group session

Personal experience	Critique on the methodology
Although I again perceived the people at the plant to be involved in the intervention before the group session, I struggled to stay motivated and also felt that things were out of control. For example, we did not find a suitable time to give individual feedback to two of the team members. We fixed a date for the group session that suited the people at the plant and consultant C, because he was to consult to this session. Consultants A and C and I met beforehand at a coffee shop (neutral) to plan for the group session. I was apprehensive and there was some discomfort. I stated my hypotheses concerning the dynamics in the management team to bring consultant C up to date. The session was planned in detail with fixed boundaries in terms of time, task and roles. Did this represent efforts to keep control? After the group session we felt relieved but also needed reassurance that everything had gone well. Shortly after the group session two of the team members left. One of the managers retired some time before the session.	The intervention seemed to move towards closure. Previously we had allowed things to move along and had planned accordingly. Now hypotheses were formulated and acted upon and more structure was given in terms of the work with the team. Also, at the plant, things were moving to a point as seen in the shifts in managers and the implementation of the assessment centre. How were these changes related to the change in human resources manager? What did the people who had left carry for the team?